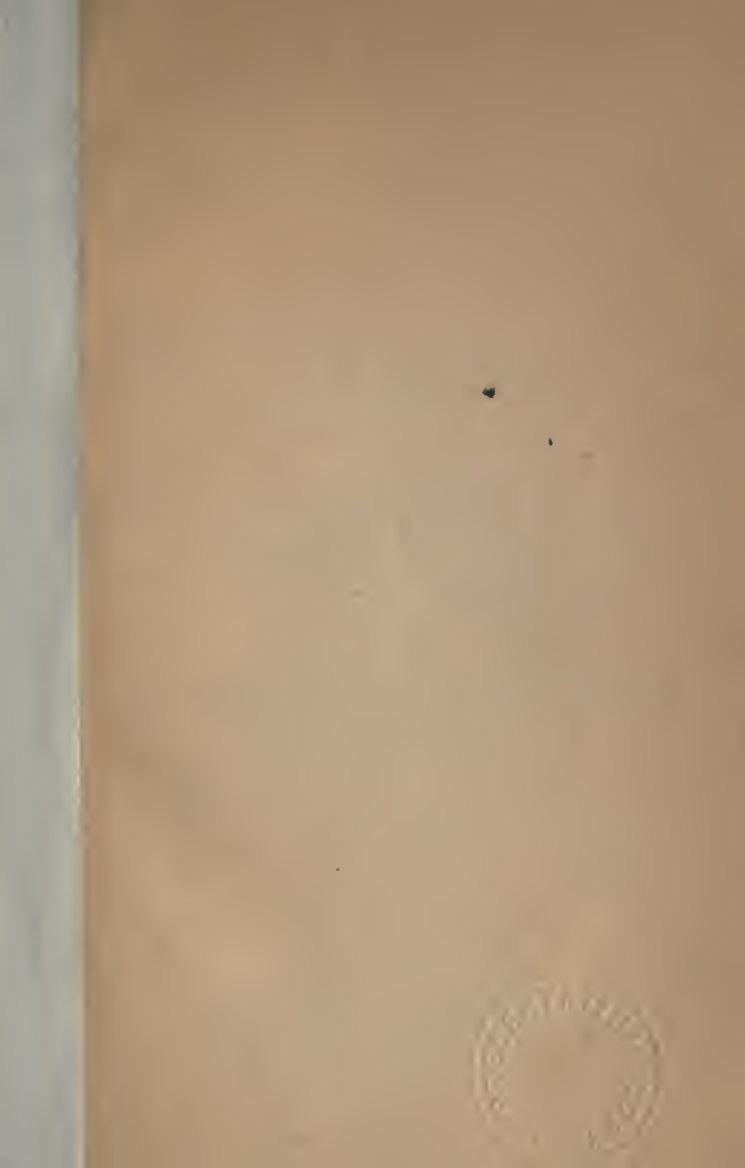


SENIOR COURSE
OF
ENGLISH COMPOSITION

NESFIELD







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OF

ENGLISH COMPOSITION

John Collinsore
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IN TWO PARTS

I.—THE QUALITIES OF COMPOSITION

II.—ESSAYS AND ESSAY-WRITING

IN CONTINUATION OF

'JUNIOR COURSE OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION'

BY THE SAME AUTHOR

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PART I.—THE QUALITIES OF COMPOSITION.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

1. **Main Characteristics of good Composition.**—A good style, as the late Fitzgerald Hall defines it in one of his posthumous letters, consists in “saying in the most perspicuous and succinct way what one thoroughly understands, and saying it so naturally that no effort is apparent.” This extract mentions three of the qualities of good composition, viz.—(1) Perspicuity, or “saying in the most perspicuous way what one thoroughly understands”; (2) Brevity, or “saying it in the most succinct way”; (3) Simplicity, or “saying it so naturally that no effort is apparent.”

Another writer, Mr. Leslie Stephen, in the course of a criticism on the writings of Ruskin, has expressed himself as follows:—“The cardinal virtue of a good style is that every sentence should be alive to its fingers’ ends. There should be no cumbrous verbiage; no barren commonplace to fill the interstices of thought; and no mannerism simulating emotion by fictitious emphasis. Ruskin has that virtue in the highest degree” (*National Review*). Here a new quality is introduced—Impressiveness, Energy or Vivacity, “the sentence should be alive to its fingers’ ends.” What follows has reference to brevity and naturalness or simplicity, and these have been mentioned already in the previous quotation.

An older writer, Blair (born in 1718), has expressed himself as follows on the same subject:—“All the qualities of a good style may be ranged under two heads—Perspicuity and Ornament. For all that can possibly be required of language is to convey our ideas clearly to the minds of others, and at the same time in such a dress as by pleasing and interesting them shall most effectually strengthen the impressions which we seek to make. When both these ends are answered, we certainly accom-

plish every purpose for which we are writing our discourse." Here a new quality is introduced—Ornament, which the same writer afterwards discusses under the name of "harmony of sentences," but which is generally known as Euphony.

Another writer, Whately (born 1787), discusses the subject of composition under three main headings—"Perspicuity," "Energy," and "Elegance or Beauty." He shows, too, how energy may be promoted by conciseness; and under the heading of Elegance he deals mainly with Euphony—"a smooth and easy flow of words in respect of the sound of the sentences" (Part III. ch. iii. § 1).

Bain, in his work on Composition and Rhetoric, proceeds on much the same lines as Whately, but draws a distinction between impressiveness of language, which appeals to the understanding, and impressiveness of picture, which appeals to the imagination; and he gives to the latter the more appropriate name of Picturesqueness.

If we sum up the views contained in the above extracts or references, we find that there are six main qualities of composition:—

- | | | |
|--|-----------|-----------|
| 1. Perspicuity—clearness of diction | | Chap. II. |
| 2. Simplicity—ease or naturalness of diction | | III. |
| 3. Succinctness—brevity of diction | | IV. |
| 4. Impressiveness—energy or force of diction | | V. |
| 5. Euphony—harmony or smoothness of diction | | VI. |
| 6. Picturesqueness—graphic diction | | VII. |

These six chapters are preceded by an initial chapter on the Figures of Speech, which have been discussed first, as they lie at the basis of all composition. It will be of great help to a beginner to know what they are and what use can be made of them for the purposes described in the subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER I.—FIGURES OF SPEECH.

2. Figure of Speech Defined.—A figure of speech is a departure from the simplest form of statement with a view to heightening or specialising the effect :—

- (1) A lantern will give us *light* in this *dark* place.
 (2) To the upright there ariseth *light* in *darkness*.

In (1) the italicised words are used in their literal sense. In (2) they are used in a figurative or non-literal sense ; and the sentence might be rewritten, "The upright find something to cheer them in time of sorrow."

3. Classification of Figures.—The figures of speech can be arranged under six main heads, the first three being based on the three chief faculties of the Intellect, the fourth on the Imagination, the fifth on Indirectness of Speech, the sixth on Sound :—

Based on

	(1)	{ <i>Resemblance</i> : Metaphor, Simile, etc.	I.
Intellect .	(2)	{ <i>Difference</i> : Antithesis, Epigram, etc.	II.
	(3)	{ <i>Association</i> : Metonymy, Synecdoche, etc.	III.
Imagination .		Personification, Apostrophe, Vision, etc.	IV.
Indirectness .		Innuendo, Euphemism, Irony, etc.	V.
Sound . . .		Alliteration, Rhyme, Assonance, etc.	VI.

Class I.—Figures based on Resemblance.

4. Simile : lit. "a thing like" (neuter of Latin *similis*). A simile is the explicit statement of some point of resemblance between two things *that differ in kind* :—

Six months ago we should have handled a rifle as a bachelor handles a baby.—*Spectator*, p. 913, 22nd June 1901.

Here the point of resemblance is clumsiness of handling by the inexperienced. The two actions compared are the handling of a rifle and the handling of a baby. Observe there is no simile, unless the things compared differ in kind, as a rifle and a baby. If we compare a camel with a dromedary, there is no simile, because a camel and a dromedary are both animals of the

same natural order. Here the comparison is literal, not figurative. But if we compare a camel with a ship, and call it "a ship of the desert," the comparison is figurative, not literal. Here we are using a figure of speech based on resemblance.

5. Examples of Simile.—The following are examples of similes, which make the original thought more easy to apprehend, imagine, or remember, and are therefore fit models for imitation :—

Now for the visit you propose to pay us and propose not to pay us—the hope of it plays about on your paper like a Jack o' lantern on the ceiling. It is here, it is there ; it vanishes, it returns ; it dazzles, a cloud interposes, and it is gone.—*Cowper's Letters*, May 1780.

The democratic organisation of modern society, when applied to the Anglo-Saxon, fits him like a garment made to order. Elsewhere, it often sits like ready-made clothing which has no reference to the contour of the man inside.—GOWEN, quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 90, July 1900.

Like all other discoveries great and small, this almost magical art (photography) lay constantly on the lap of Nature, who keeps a thousand treasures of wisdom and pleasure for man, but insists, like a laughing mother who hides her gift from a child in closed hands, that he shall guess at them before he gets them.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 5, 31st Dec. 1900. (The first *like* points to a parallel, the second to a simile.)

Sir Robert Hart is one of the famous institutions of China. Great men are like great mountains, which have to be viewed from a distance in order that their greatness may be appreciated. It is possible that his contemporaries in the East hardly see Sir Robert's work clear and whole enough to put it at its true value.—*Ibid.* p. 5, 30th June 1900.

There are those who would have England and the Colonies stand with extreme courtesy bowing to each other at the threshold of organisation like two over-polite Chinese gentlemen, neither of whom will take a step forward before the other.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 1011, Dec. 1900.

6. Pointless Similes.—Similitudes which add nothing to the clearness, impressiveness, or beauty of the narrative are useless, if not misleading. In the following examples we look in vain for the point of the comparison :—

Just as a painter is limited by the fact that he has to imitate solid bodies on a flat surface, so the playwright is limited by the fact that he has to interest a crowd.—*Literature*, p. 292, 14th April 1900. (What resemblance is there between the two kinds of limitations?)

As Christ was crucified between two thieves, so is England degraded and destroyed by a pack of villainous Socialists

between two great political parties who both look on complacently.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 555, Oct. 1900. (Neither of the thieves looked on complacently: one was penitent, the other reproachful.)

7. Metaphor.—In a simile both sides of the comparisons are stated; whereas in a metaphor one is stated, but not the other. A metaphor is thus the same thing at bottom as a simile, and its usefulness depends on the same conditions. These conditions are fulfilled in the following examples:—

On all subjects his thoughts left much that was indefinite, persistently shading off from the sharp edges of definition into cloudlands, which, however beautiful or suggestive, gave no sure foothold to reason.—GRAHAM, *Victorian Literature*, p. 191.

Henry, however, had still to buffet the billows of a sea which, having been swept by storms for thirty years, could not at once become calm.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 282. These men looked to the sun of learning to chase away the shadows of superstition.—*Ibid.* p. 314.

Sounds of a general political earthquake grumble audibly to him from the deep.—*Spectator*, p. 457, 6th Oct. 1900.

We cannot classify him (Dr. Martineau) in any school. He is a solitary majestic figure in the temple of English thought.—*Ibid.* p. 713, 17th Nov. 1900.

The anti-foreign feeling is remaking or will remake China; and Europe by its sledge-hammer blows is simply tempering the metal of Chinese nationality and Chinese patriotism.—*Ibid.* p. 162, 2nd Feb. 1901.

You cannot graft a scientific and artistic education upon the stunted stump of a defective elementary education.—*Duke of Devonshire's Speech*.

The work of Alfred the Great was that of rough-hewing the outlines of English character, leaving to his successors the task of polishing down the angles and corners.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 299, April 1900.

The heart of the empire was weak and the extremities were cold: the Colonies were fast losing confidence in the will and ability of the mother-country to protect them.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 30th June 1900.

The Continent was distracted by political struggles; the United States was not mature; new Japan was a marvellous chick that had not yet chipped the shell.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 17th Nov. 1900.

We have had him in the trap more than once, and he has not escaped without leaving a good deal of his fur behind him.—*Ibid.* 29th March 1901.

When upon the top of these burdens came the colossal budget, which the Chancellor of the Exchequer had to impose upon the country, it was hardly credited that under the enormous load the camel could rise again, as if insensible of its weight. *Ibid.* p. 8, 23rd April 1901.

8. Confusion of Metaphors.—Metaphors borrowed from more than one source must not be combined in the same phrase or in the same sentence. The brevity of the metaphor as distinct from the simile renders it peculiarly liable to this misuse. The best test of the purity of a metaphor is that it will bear expansion into a simile. In the examples of confusion quoted below I have given in brackets, wherever it was possible, the word or words which would remove the confusion :—

Traders should once and for all abandon the hope that Yunnan is a rich *mine* waiting only to be *tapped* (opened).—*Contemporary Review*, Feb. 1898.

It is but cold comfort to know that a religion *grafted* upon science will *come to the birth* (germinate) only by the slow process of evolution.—*Times Weekly*, 4th March 1898.

There are *phrases* of music that go home to the centre of our being, and five minutes' dwelling on them at sunrise will give a *keynote* that will sound for the day, the morning *bath* of the mind.—*National Review*, Feb. 1898. (Hopelessly confused.)

From its frequent disputes with the Dutch East India Company's tyrannical government, this community *imbibed a rooted* (deep) aversion to all laws and restraints.—*With the Flag to Pretoria*, ch. i. p. 7.

Depend upon it, Mr. Speaker, the white *face* of the British soldier is the *backbone* of our Indian army.—House of Commons, 20th March 1900. (Omit the irrelevant words "the white face of.")

Such methods will *land* (place) us ere long in the *vortex of the maelstrom*, in the *current* of which we are now drifting.—*Nineteenth Century*, p. 726, May 1900.

What the wise editor ought to do is to be just a day or two behind public opinion, and never commit himself to any line, until he is quite sure which way *the cat is going to jump* (the tide is going to flow), and then you go in on *the top of the rising wave* and risk nothing.—*Chicago Herald*, quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 148, Feb. 1901.

We must *handle* this *thorny* subject carefully, lest we *tread on somebody's toes* (cause some offence).—House of Commons, 29th Jan. 1902.

These *flowers* of modern chivalry were *dwarfed* (thrown into the shade) by the retrocession of the Transvaal.—*Empire Review*, p. 498, June 1901.

The mixing of the metaphorical with the literal is as bad as the mixing of metaphors :—

I was sailing in a vast ocean, without other help than the *pole-star* (models) of the ancients and the rules of the French stage among the moderns.—DRYDEN.

9. Allegory, Parable, Fable.—All these are based upon resemblance. Allegory is a comparison sustained through an

entire story, which is intended to convey some moral truth. Parable is the same, but shorter. Many of our proverbs and precepts, besides being true literally, admit of an allegorical application, and are quoted chiefly for this purpose:—

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
 It is difficult for an empty sack to stand upright.
 A stitch in time saves nine.
 Make hay while the sun shines.
 If two men ride a horse, one must ride behind.
 Strike while the iron is hot.
 You cannot swop horses while crossing a stream.

Fable, too, is a short story with a moral. In such stories birds and beasts are made to act like men. Æsop's fables are so widely known that they are frequently used metaphorically:—

The lion roared to a false note, and then rated the jaekals for yelping in unison.—*Daily Telegraph*, 5th Feb. 1898.

International finance will seek to use international armies and navies to achieve its own purposes. It will mask its wolfish appetite behind the lamb-like fleece of pious professions.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 244, Sept. 1900.

Class II.—Figures based on Difference.

10. Antithesis.—"In making use of antithesis we act on the same principle as the painter, who makes a dark tint doubly dark by throwing it against a luminous background. The tint remains the same, but the effect is immensely heightened" (HALL). The use of this figure greatly conduces to perspicuity as well as to impressiveness:—

A father that whipped his son for swearing and swore himself while he whipped him, did more harm by his example than good by his correction.—FULLER, *Holy State*.

The petition claims especial notice, not only because it was the first active movement towards a separation from Rome, but because it originated not with the king, not with the parliament, not with the people, but with a section of the clergy themselves.—FROUDE.

The Foreign Office, with that obstinacy which is the very characteristic of weakness, has always accepted the realities and resisted the formalities of Russian occupation.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 133, June 1901.

If there were a strong opposition, the Government would be alert where it is now drowsy, vigorous where it is now indifferent, and above all firm, if only from pride, where it now yields to every variety of pressure.—*Spectator*, p. 4, 6th July 1901.

Subjected to the severe onslaughts made upon it in recent years, the study of the classics now limps leisurely along, a poor camp-follower rather than one of the captains of the educational

world.—*School World*, p. 17, Jan. 1901. (Here Metaphor and Antithesis both occur.)

The one taught liberalism as an art which can be practised; the other lectured upon it as a science which can be studied.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 13th Dec. 1900.

11. Epigram.—"An apparent contradiction in language, which by causing a temporary shock rouses our attention to some important meaning beneath" (BAIN). When the contradiction appears in an extreme form, the figure is called Oxymoron:—

The wisest fool in Christendom.—(Said of James I.)

Art lies in concealing art.—(Latin proverb.)

To damn with faint praise.

His honour rooted in dishonour stood,

And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true.—TENNYSON.

It is the power of generalising which gives man so great a superiority in mistake over dumb animals.—GEORGE ELIOT.

His policy towards this country is in a thinly-veiled spirit of benevolent contempt.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 575, April 1901.

A closely-watched slavery, mocked with the name of power, is in this country the mead of successful leadership.—*Spectator*, p. 961, 29th June 1901.

From Vittoria Mr. Crane takes us to Plevna, the defeat which will ever remain the triumph of Osman Pasha.—*Ibid.* p. 159, 3rd Aug. 1901.

"It is a more serious matter to me than to any one else," cried the splendid bankrupt, "because if this estate does not pay 20 shillings in the pound, I am going to pay it myself."—*Daily Express*, p. 5, 18th June 1901.

The late Mr. Spurgeon spoke of statistics as "a system of telling lies by figures."—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 13th April 1901.

The use of this figure is a great aid to brevity, besides conducing to energy and point. Nevertheless it is a difficult one to master, and a beginner had better not attempt it at all than produce such a pointless epigram as the following:—

It must be admitted that in the cause of education as education there is a *plentiful lack* of interest.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 31st July 1901. (Say "lamentable" for "plentiful.")

12. The Condensed Sentence.—This figure consists in bringing together under one verb, or in one enumeration, ideas so distinct that we should ordinarily give a separate sentence to each of them. The figure, though effective in some contexts, is not one that an inexperienced writer should trust himself to use without caution:—

She dropped a tear and her pocket-handkerchief.—DICKENS.

It is by the goodness of God that we have possession of three

unspeakably precious things,—freedom of speech, freedom of conscience, and the prudence of using neither.—MARK TWAIN.

A lord is a man who sees the king, speaks to the minister, has ancestors, debts, and pensions.—MONTESQUIEU.

Miss Bingley's congratulations to her brother on his approaching marriage were all that was affectionate and insincere.—JANE AUSTEN, *Pride and Prejudice*, ch. xl.

A volcanic eruption might occur on an inconceivably greater scale than that which destroyed Lisbon and the faith of Goethe.—*Spectator*, p. 382, 16th March, 1901.

Mosquitos have arrived in London, and appear to enjoy the climate and the population.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 19th July 1901.

13. Climax.—“Climax” is a Greek word signifying “ladder,”—a term that well expresses the object for which this figure is used. In using it the writer leads the reader up to his main point by degrees, beginning from the lowest stage in the argument and ascending gradually to the final one. Every new stage is contrasted with the last in degree of intensity. This figure adds much to the vigour of composition; and no writer who has sufficient command of vocabulary need be afraid to use it, when seeking to drive a point home:—

Some books are to be tasted, others swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested.—BACON.

The invasions of the Northmen may be divided under three heads: first, they came to plunder; then to settle; and thirdly, to conquer and rule England.—RANSOME, *Short History of England*, iv. 23.

His reason had been outraged at Lourdes; his illusions were dissipated in Rome; his shaken faith comes to utter shipwreck in Paris.—*Times Weekly*, 4th March 1898.

French politics are complex to the native; they are inscrutable to the outsider.—*Daily Express*, p. 4, 18th Jan. 1901.

It is an outrage to bind a Roman citizen; to scourge him is an atrocious crime; to put him to death is almost a parricide; but to crucify him—what shall I call it?—CICERO, *Contra Verrem*.

14. Anticlimax, or Bathos.—This is the opposite of climax—descent from a higher to a lower. When this is done from inadvertence, it is a serious fault. But it may be done intentionally for the sake of humour or ridicule:—

In his most impressive perorations he was a master of bathos. After sentencing a tailor to death for stabbing a soldier, he wound up:—“Not only did ye murder him, whereby he was bereaved of life; but ye did thrust, or push, or pierce, or project, or propel the lethal weapon through the breeches, which were His Majesty's.”—Quoted in *Cornhill*, April 1901.

Let him try the savage state. The opportunity is open to him. There are savages of the poorest type, who will be glad to receive him—and eat him when meals run short.—*Spectator*, p. 537, 13th April 1901.

Captain Dreyfus was brought back, retried, again condemned, and—pardoned.—*Ibid.* p. 524, 13th April 1901. (In this short sentence there is a climax followed by an anticlimax.)

Class III.—Figures based on Association.

15. Metonymy.—This figure consists in describing a thing by some *accompaniment*, instead of naming the thing itself. The thing and its accompaniment are so closely “associated” in the mind, that the thought of the latter at once suggests the former. This figure is sometimes used for variety of phrase; sometimes for brevity; sometimes for impressiveness.

(a) *The symbol for the person or thing symbolised:—*

He succeeded to the *crown* (=royal office).

He is too fond of *red tape* (=official routine).

Leather (=shoe-making, etc.) pays better than learning.

Promoted to the *bench* (=office of judge).

How shall we attract men to the *colours* (=the army).

He has not told us whether the terms offered were an *olive-branch* (=offering of peace) or not.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 11th July 1901.

He was prompted by the consideration that in our times the *palm* (=a victory of peace) is more to be coveted than the *laurel* (=a victory of war).—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 948, Dec. 1900.

(b) *The instrument or organ for the agent:—*

The *pen* has more influence than the *sword*.

Give every man thine *ear*, but few thy *voice*.

He is a good *hand* at composition.

(c) *The container for the thing contained:—*

He drank the *cup* (=the contents of the cup).

The *kettle* (=water in the kettle) boils.

Going over to *Rome* (=the church centred in Rome).

The *gallery* (=spectators in the gallery) loudly applauded.

(d) *The effect for the cause (chiefly in poetry):—*

He (the fish) desperate takes the *death* (hook)

With sudden plunge.—THOMSON.

Oh for a beaker full of the *warm south*!—KEATS.

(Here wine is described by the *warm south*—that is, the warm sun which ripens the grape, from which the wine is produced. This is a metonymy three deep.)

(e) *The maker for the thing made:—*

They have *Moses* and the *prophets*.

I have never read *Homer*.

I am not fond of *Euclid* (= geometry as treated by Euclid).
The miner had his *Davy* (= the lamp invented by Davy).

(f) *The place for the thing* :—

I am fond of old *china* (= crockery made in China).
A book bound in *morocco* (= leather of Morocco).
You have a beautiful *canary* (= bird of Canary).
A little *cayenne* (= pepper of Cayenne) is needed.

(g) *The name of a passion for the object of the passion* :—

He is the *hope* of the family.
She is coming, my *life*, my *fate*.—TENNYSON.

Soul of the age !

The *applause*, *delight*, and *wonder* of our stage !
My Shakespeare rise !—BEN JONSON.

16. Synecdoche.—In this figure the change of name is from the part to the whole or from the whole to the part. The figure is used for the same purposes as Metonymy, with which, however, it should not be confounded. Metonymy is based wholly on association. Synecdoche is based partly on resemblance : for there is always some resemblance between the whole and its part.

(a) *The less general for the more general* :—

Return to her ? and fifty men dismissed ?
No, rather I abjure all *roofs*,—and choose
To be a comrade with the *wolf* and *owl*.—*King Lear*.

For seven weeks he *tramped*, a workless worker, the stony-hearted streets of London.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 124, Feb. 1898.

Moralise capital ! You might as well propose to moralise a *boa-constrictor* or tame a *tiger*.—*Ibid*.

Do men gather *grapes* of *thorns*, or *figs* of *thistles* ?—*New Testament*.
A stitch in time saves *nine* (= any number).

(b) *An individual for a class* (called Antonomasia) :—

A *Daniel* come to judgment.—*Merchant of Venice*.
Smooth Jacob still robs homely *Esau*.—BROWNING.
He's *Judas* to a tittle—that man is.—*Ibid*.

This was the way to drive discontent inwards to the body politic, and in the end to raise up *Miltons* with their *Arcopagitic* thunder against the killing of a good book as the killing of reason itself.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 458.

(c) *The more general for the less general* :—

A poor *creature*. A wretched *individual*. *Vessel* (in the sense of "ship"). *Measure* (for "dance" or "poetry"). The smiling *year* (for "season"). The Christian *world* (= the Church as a whole). *Liquor* (= intoxicating liquor). *Action* (= battle). *Company* (= commercial firm).

(d) *The concrete for the abstract* :—

There is a mixture of the *tiger* and the *ape* in the character of a Frenchman.—VOLTAIRE.

A tyrant's power in vigour is expressed,

The father yearns in the true prince's breast.—DRYDEN.

A healthy lad, and carried in his cheek

Two steady *roses* that were five years old.

(e) *The abstract for the concrete* :—

The *authorities* put an end to the tumult.

When he entered (the nunnery), on seeing a servant coming towards him with a design to tell him that this was no place for him, up goes my grave *Impudence* to the maid.—TATLER, No. 32.

France has twelve expresses superior in speed as well as in comfort to the Scotch mails, of which our *ignorance* is proud.—SPECTATOR, p. 483, 13th Oct. 1900.

(f) *The part for the whole* :—

A fleet of fifty *sail* (= ships).

Pin money (= a lady's dress allowance).

A man of seventy *winters* (= years).

(g) *The material for the thing made* :—

The speaking *marble* (= statue of marble).

He was buried under this *stone* (= tablet of stone).

He was bound in *irons* (= fetters made of iron).

Have you any *coppers* (= pence made of copper) ?

17. Transferred Epithet.—When two impressions are associated in the mind, an epithet that properly belongs only to one can be transferred to the other. One of the commonest applications of this figure is when some personal quality is transferred to something impersonal or inanimate :—

A lackey presented an *obsequious* cup of coffee.—CARLYLE.

Meantime the *wearry* negotiations between the Powers are proceeding.—DAILY TELEGRAPH, p. 6, 27th Sept. 1900.

The real authors of the war can encourage and inspire resistance from a *safe* distance.—SPECTATOR, p. 239, 24th Aug. 1901.

The following phrases, all in common use, are examples of this figure :—a sleepless pillow ; the condemned cell ; a happy time ; an unlucky remark ; a foolish observation ; a learned book ; a criminal court ; easy circumstances ; a fat ineumbency ; melancholy news ; an eloquent speech ; hysterical appeals ; brutal threats ; the smiling moon ; a furious wave ; the angry ocean : a prattling brook, etc.

Class IV.—Figures based on the Imagination.

18. Personification.—More common in poetry than in prose. The use of this figure arises from the inborn tendency of man to invest inanimate things with activities, designs, and passions

similar to his own, and to describe them in terms expressive of such attributes. This figure is sometimes called the Personal Metaphor:—

Every hedge was conscious of more than what the representations of enamoured swains admit of.—*Tatler*.

While Japan was a hermit nation, she was able to supply herself with everything necessary.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 563, Dec. 1900.

It is the first condition of human progress that a people should be married to a single land. Then, if the earth-wife be fruitful, she will bear them children by hundreds and by thousands, and then calamity will come and teach them by torture to invent.—WINWOOD READE, *Martyrdom of Man*, p. 5.

Note.—An extreme form of this figure is called the **Pathetic Fallacy**, by which external objects are made to sympathise in all the emotions of the agent, feeling exactly as he does, and hearing and understanding what he says to them. At the time when Cromwell was dying, a furious storm was raging outside, “as if in sympathy,” says Hallam, “with the mighty soul that was passing away from the earth.” In Tennyson’s *Maud* there is a canto in which the rose, the lily, the larkspur, the passion-flower, etc., are as eager as the lover himself to hear or see the maiden come out from the ballroom to meet him “at the gate, alone.”

19. Apostrophe: lit. “turning away.”—In the use of this figure the speaker turns aside from his audience or the writer from his reader, and addresses himself direct to the person or thing that has taken possession of his thoughts. The figure (common in poetry) is seen only in the most impassioned prose or in the highest flights of oratory:—

Industry, liberating and sacred Industry, it is thou who consolest !
Under thy steps ignorance vanishes, evil flees. By thee mankind, freed from the servitude of might, mounts without ceasing towards that luminous and serene region where is one day to be realised the ideal and perfect accord of power, justice, and kindness.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 415, May 1900.

Unhappy man ! and must you be swept into the grave, unnoticed and unnumbered, and no friendly tear be shed for your sufferings or mingled with your dust.—ROBERT HALL (in reference to the wounded in war).

20. Vision.—Another figure rarely met with in ordinary prose. By this figure the writer or speaker describes some event that has passed or some future that he anticipates, as if it were actually passing before his eyes:—

I seem to behold this great city, the ornament of the earth and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens lying

unburied in the midst of the ruined country. The furious countenance of Cethegus rises to my view, while with a savage joy he is triumphing in your miseries.—CICERO, *Fourth Oration against Catiline*.

21. Hyperbole (exaggeration).—A figure which is usually a fault, but may be resorted to at times, provided that the departure from fact does not shock one's sense of truth:—

Rather than that the Austrian flag should float in Milan, I would destroy a hundred constitutions and a hundred religions.—**THIERS**.

Oh that my head were waters, and mine eyes a fountain of tears, that I might weep day and night for the slain of the daughter of my people!—**Jeremiah ix. 1**.

Class V.—Figures based on Indirectness of Speech.

22. Innuendo: lit. “by making a nod”; *i.e.* by hinting or implying a thing without plainly saying it. In the use of this figure the writer abstains from expressing his point in direct terms, but says enough to enable the reader to infer it without difficulty. This mode of speech is sometimes more effective than the direct form of statement:—

I do not consult physicians; for I hope to die without them.—**SIR W. TEMPLE**.

To my steward I have left nothing, as he has been with me for the last fifteen years.—*Extracts from a Nobleman's Will*.

We need not pry too deeply into the motives which actuated the minister in disregarding the interests of his country (China): Russia does not employ an auditor-general.—*Daily Telegraph*, 9th Sept. 1898.

Every one admires his ability, his energy, his enthusiasm, his high sense of public duty. He has at present only two enemies—his tongue and the first person singular; but these two enemies are in the way to making many more.—*Pioneer Mail*, p. 3, 23rd Nov. 1900.

“James major,” says *Punch's* schoolmaster, “your younger brother gets ahead of you.” “Yes, sir,” is the answer, “but then he has been here only one term.”—*Spectator*, p. 594, 27th April, 1901.

The tone of the letter is so just and sane from beginning to end that we are not surprised to learn that it has proved entirely ineffectual in influencing German public opinion.—*Ibid.* p. 74, 18th Jan. 1902.

In cases where the testimony of British officials is wanting, we need not be over-sceptical if we imagine that the process known as “investing with artistic merit” is not wholly foreign to the composition of books of travel and adventure, especially of adventure.—*Empire Review*, p. 551, June 1901.

23. Irony.—By this figure the writer or speaker says the opposite to what he means, but does not intend or expect his words to be taken literally. He leaves his readers or hearers to gather his real drift from something in his manner or tone, or from what they know already of his convictions and he of theirs :—

The Holy Alliance (Russia, Prussia, Austria) was minded to stretch the arm of its Christian charity across the Atlantic and put republicanism down in the western hemisphere as well as in its own.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 324.

If he (George III.) granted Catholic emancipation, his logical mind told him that his kingdom would depart from his house and go to the Catholic house of Savoy.—*Ibid.* p. 298.

Sunday was the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Sultan's accession, and was celebrated with a geniality peculiarly Hamidian by numerous arrests of Armenians and the distribution of half-salaries to the Turkish functionaries.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 3rd Sept. 1901.

24. Sarcasm.—In Sarcasm a man does not, as in Irony, say the opposite to what he means. He says what he means, but says it in a way that implies ridicule, disapproval, or contempt :—

If ideas were innate, it would save much trouble to many worthy persons.—LOCKE.

This test, like all tests, could only act as a sieve, sifting honesty from dishonesty, and throwing honesty aside.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 577.

When the clergyman is approved, there is a disposition to respect him, to smooth his path—always with the exception of any consent to increase his stipend.—*Spectator*, p. 618, 3rd Nov. 1900.

Prince Boris was born on 18th January 1894. His conversion to the Greek Church at the age of two formed the subject of considerable controversy in 1896.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 11th Feb. 1901.

25. Euphemism.—By this figure a disagreeable expression is avoided, and a more agreeable one is used in its place. This is effected sometimes by a single word, but usually by a periphrasis or circumlocution :—

Apparently Manchuria has not been annexed, but has undergone a process of painless identification with Russia.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 612, April 1901.

Discord fell on the music of his soul; the sweet sounds and wandering lights departed from him; yet he wore no less a loving face, although he was broken-hearted.—E. B. BROWNING (*Cowper's madness*).

Our vocabulary has already been enriched by the word "kleptomania," an aggravated symptom of the ailment known as

“an inordinate craving for portable property.” By the same rule the bigamist might go scot-free as suffering from “an acute attack of uxoriousness,” and the forger acquitted as being under the influence of “caligraphic hypnotism.”—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 20th Aug. 1900.

26. Litotes.—By this figure we place a negative before some word to indicate a strong affirmative in the opposite direction. The negative is used in such a way as to suggest a stronger meaning behind it:—

A citizen of no mean (=distinguished) city.—*New Testament*.

As the Americans remarked about a dish of boiled erow, I can eat it, but I don't hanker after it.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 407, May 1900.

27. Interrogation.—Usually when we ask a question, we do so for the sake of information. As a figure of speech, interrogation is used (*a*) to express a strong affirmative, no answer being needed, or (*b*) to call attention to some important fact and then furnish the answer:—

(*a*) Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard his spots?—*Old Testament*.

How could Burke upbraid French reformers with their temerity in breaking away from the past? What past had they in France after Louis XIV. from which to break away?—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 263.

(*b*) Seest thou a man wise in his own conceit? There is more hope of a fool than in him.—*Old Testament*.

What is this world in the high scale of the Almighty's workmanship? A mere shred which, though scattered into nothing, would leave the universe of God one entire scene of greatness and of majesty.—CHALMERS.

Note.—The expository value of (*b*) is so great that school manuals are sometimes written in the form of question and answer.

28. Exclamation.—What an Interjection is in Grammar, Exclamation is in rhetoric. It is a mode of expressing some strong emotion without describing it in set terms:—

Bacon far behind his age! Bacon far behind Sir Edward Coke! Bacon elinging to exploded abuses! Bacon withstanding the progress of improvement! Bacon struggling to push back the human mind! The words seem strange.—MACAULAY.

29. Identical Statement.—This figure, though it assumes the disguise of a truism, is in reality an indirect way of stating a fact that is not apparent on the surface. The disguise of self-evidence leaves no handle for attack or contradiction.

What I have written I have written.—*New Testament.*

(The inscription that I have placed on the cross was written once for all and must remain.)

We English are ourselves and not anybody else.—FREEMAN.

(Englishmen have a national character of their own and need not follow Continental models.)

The business of a leader is to lead.—*Spectator*, p. 148, 3rd Aug. 1901.

(The test of capacity for leadership lies in being able to originate a policy, and not in merely echoing the wishes of that faction which the leader represents.)

Class VI.—Figures based on Sound.

30. Sound suggestive of Sense: Onomatopœia.—We have a considerable number of words whose origin is clearly imitative. No one can fail to recognise the imitative origin of such words as *clucking* (hens), *gobbling* (turkeys), *cackling* (geese), *quacking* (ducks), *croaking* (frogs), *cawing* (rooks), *cooing* (doves), *hooting* (owls), *booming* (bitterns), *chirping* (sparrows), *twittering* (swallows), *chattering* (pies or monkeys), *neighing* or *winnying* (horses), *purring* or *mewing* (cats), *yelping*, *howling*, *growling*, *snarling* (dogs), *grunting* or *squealing* (swine), *bellowing* (bulls), *lowing* (oxen), *bleating* (sheep). Thus, when words are so selected and arranged that “the sound,” as Pope says, “seems an echo of the sense,” we are following by conscious imitation one of the methods that language itself followed spontaneously in the early stages of its growth:—

The meeting of the Liberal party has come and gone, and left things very much as they were. In truth, all that was done at the Reform Club on Tuesday was to prepare a soothing poultice in the shape of a resolution and apply it to the party. But poultices, though greatly believed in by old women of both sexes in the nursery and in politics, are nevertheless very weakening things, and Tuesday's soft, squashy, steaming poultice, though it may soothe for the present, will only make the tissues of the Liberal party softer and flabbier than ever.—*Spectator*, p. 44, 13th July 1901.

In the frequent repetition of the letter *s* we almost hear the steaming and simmering of the poultice in the saucepan.

31. Alliteration.—The recurrence, either immediate or at short intervals, of the same initial letter or letters. Like the figure just described, it adds nothing to the sense, but is a mere device for impressing the memory or pleasing the ear:—

On the American side platform and pulpit spouted patriotic fire.—
GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 213.

For a generation we have been limiting competition within the State and restraining its *crude* and *cruel* violence.—H. W. WILSON, *Fortnightly Review*, p. 87, July 1901.

The City of London was prepared to support the Government with *purse* and *person*.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 11th July 1901.

They (vegetarians) can elaim with not a little pride that they can break eyeling records on *leeks*, *lentils*, and *lemonade* with the most *sturdy* consumers of *steaks*, *oysters*, and *stout*.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 8th March 1901.

There was more *candour* than *cannishness* in this admission.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 23rd Sept. 1901.

They wisely determined that their measure should *supplement*, and not *supplant*, the existing system.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 17th March 1902.

They have no traditions of their *feats*, their *failures*, or their *fates*.—*Spectator*, p. 213, 17th Aug. 1901.

An alliteration, thrust into a sentence merely for its own sake and not for the sake of pressing a point home or enforcing an antithesis, is a thing to be avoided. Such an example as the following has nothing to recommend it :—

He might as well have led a pack of beagles against a *great*, *grey*, *grizzly* bear of the Rocky Mountains.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 88, July 1900.

The words *great* and *grey* are pointless and unnecessary. Grizzly bears are quite as often brown as grey.

32. Rhyme.—This figure, like the preceding, should be used only when the words concerned are emphatic and the rhyme gives, or rather appears to give, additional point :—

It could not perhaps have been avoided, and it cannot now be *healed* or even *eonealed*.—*Lord Rosebery's Speech*, 17th July 1901.

The two men, though of course well known to each other by *name* and *fame*, had never met.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 663, April 1901.

Pointless rhymes, like pointless alliterations, are displeasing both in sense and sound :—

I confess with *humility* the *sterility* of my *faney* and the *debility* of my *judgment*.—BAIN'S *Rhetoric*, ii. 284.

33. Assonance.—The name given to similarities of sound not included in Alliteration or Rhyme, but combining some qualities of both :—

A stich in *time* saves *nine*.—Proverb.

John Carker, what is the league between you and this young man, in virtue of which I am *haunted* and *hunted* by the mention of your name?—DICKENS, *Dombey and Son*, eh. xiii.

“Mr. Chamberlain went to war for a consonant,” said some critics. “Not for a *consonant*, but for a *continent*,” Mr. Cook neatly retorts.—*Spectator*, p. 91, 20th July 1901.

34. Play upon Words.—This figure consists in using the same word in different shades of meaning within the same sentence. It serves the same purpose as the other figures of this class:—

“Sportsmen,” says Mr. H. S. Salt, “are men of slow perception, who find it easier to *follow* the hounds than to *follow* an argument.”—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 50, July 1901.

The Guardians have decided that she shall learn *weaving*. To use Shakspeare’s phrase, the idea does not *weave* itself perforce into one’s mind.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 12th Sept. 1900.

Conclusion.

35. Comparative Uses of the Figures.—The most important figures occurring in prose, poetry, or oratory have all been described in the short sketch which is now completed. What their relative value may be in poetry or in oratory does not come within the scope of this treatise. In ordinary prose, such as a beginner might be expected to cultivate for the composition of an essay, the first place must be given to those based on Resemblance, Difference, and Association (Classes I., II., III.). Metaphor, Simile, Antithesis, Climax, Metonymy, Synecdoche, are of very frequent utility, and the merit of an essay or other form of prose-composition depends to a large extent on a judicious use being made of them. They have been called by one writer “the elements of style.” The remaining three classes are not equally useful for the kind of composition which a beginner should attempt to imitate. He will do well to keep entirely clear of all the figures in Class IV., except the one first named—Personification, or (as it is sometimes called) the Personal Metaphor; and to make no use of Innuendo or Alliteration (Classes V. and VI.) except when they come spontaneously into his mind in the course of writing. On no account should he go out of his way to drag them into his sentences for the sake of ornament or effect. In fact, artificiality or the straining after effect is one of the worst faults into which a writer can fall.

CHAPTER II.—PERSPICUITY.

36. Perspicuity.—Of all qualities of composition the first and most essential is Perspicuity; for, if the writer does not

make himself understood, he writes to no purpose. What Quintilian says about oratory is equally true of ordinary prose :—“An oration should be obvious, even to a careless hearer ; so that the sense shall strike his mind, as the light of the sun does our eyes, even though they are not directed towards it. We must study not only that it shall be possible for every hearer to understand us, but that it shall be impossible for him not to understand us.”—*Liber. viii.*

The original and once the only sense of the word “perspicuity” was “transparency,”—transparency of the medium through which objects can be seen. Afterwards, by a vigorous metaphor, it came to be applied to *transparency of language*,—language being the medium through which the thought or image intended by the writer can be seen by the reader, as light is the medium through which objects can be seen by the eye.

SECTION I.—GRAMMATICAL PRECAUTIONS.

37. Among the grammatical devices conducive to perspicuity the following deserve attention :—

(a) Repeat the Subject, if there is any fear of a wrong subject being construed with the next verb :—

- (1) He is endeavouring to help some friends who are very grateful for his assistance, and (*he*) will not allow any one else to help them.

If the *he* had not been repeated, the word “who” would naturally have been considered the subject to the verb “will allow”; and this would have completely altered the sense. All ambiguity is removed by repeating “*he*.”

- (2) He is a great admirer of the artist who painted that picture and lives in Brompton.

What is the subject of *lives*? Repeat either the *he* or the *who*, so as to remove the doubt.

- (3) We have just heard that the two boys leave school at the end of next week and hope they will not return to the same school again.

What is the subject of *hope*? Is it *we* or *boys*? If *we* is the subject, repeat it. If *boys* is the subject, say “and that they hope,” etc.

(b) Repeat a Preposition, if the nouns governed by it are at some distance apart :—

- (1) As soon as he had the power, he took vengeance on all those persons who had injured his friends and relatives, and especially (*on*) his cousin John.

If the *on* had not been repeated, the reader would certainly have considered that "cousin John" was intended to be an object to the verb "injured."

- (2) The concessions by China of Kiao-chan to Germany and (*of*) Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan to Russia for terms of years belong to a new development, etc.—*Times Weekly*, 8th April 1898.

The repetition of "*of*" before "Port Arthur" improves the rhythm as well as the perspicuity.

- (3) They forget to consult, and, as far as they are not vicious, (*to*) conform to the tastes, feelings, and habits of those whose happiness they would promote.—W. J. Fox, *Christ and Christianity*, ii. 106.

The repetition of "*to*" before the word "conform" makes the sense more readily intelligible.

(c) Repeat a Conjunction, if the verbs depending on it are at some distance apart :—

Some persons have maintained that Julius Cæsar did not destroy the republican constitution of Rome for the sake of making himself emperor; (*that*) the republic had, in fact, been destroyed already by the ambitious citizens who preceded him; and (*that*) he merely stepped into a position which had been left open for him by force of circumstances.

If the conjunction "*that*" is not repeated, the two last sentences might be taken to express the writer's own opinion, and not that of "some persons" referred to in the first sentence.

(d) Repeat an Auxiliary verb when the principal verbs are far enough apart to give rise to ambiguity :—

My powers, such as they were, had been cultivated at Oxford from the age of nineteen, when I was still young enough to be moulded into the shape that my advisers considered best for me, and (*had been*) trained to the study of science in preference to that of ancient philosophy.

Unless the auxiliary "*had been*" is repeated, the word "trained" would naturally be regarded as the sequel to the word "moulded."

(e) Repeat the Verb or use the pro-verb *do* after the conjunctions "*than*" and "*as*," if the omission of the verb would cause any ambiguity :—

The Presbyterians of Scotland disliked the Independents led by Cromwell as heartily as (*did*) the Royalists.

The Presbyterians of Scotland disliked the Independents led by Cromwell more heartily than the Royalists (*did*).

The ambiguity of both sentences is removed by using the pro-verb "*did*."

(f) Antecedent clauses must not be mixed up with consequent ones :—

The prosperity of England will decline, if she loses her command of the sea, and other countries step into her place.

Does the last clause go with the consequent or with the antecedent? Begin with the antecedent or conditional clause first in any case, and then the sentence may be rewritten in two different ways, whichever of the two the writer may have intended :—

- (1) If England loses her command of the sea, her prosperity will decline and other countries step into her place.
- (2) If England loses her command of the sea and other countries step into her place, her prosperity will decline.

(g) Infinitives dependent on one word must not be mixed up with Infinitives dependent on another :—

He decided to take his daughter with him to the British Museum to see the Assyrian monuments and to compare them with the researches of Layard and Rawlinson.

Who is to see the monuments, the father or the daughter? Which of the two is to compare them with the researches? Or are both to compare them? The sentence might be rewritten in at least three different ways, and each way is an improvement on the original :—

- (1) He decided to go with his daughter to the British Museum that she might see the Assyrian monuments and compare them with, etc.
- (2) He decided to take his daughter to the British Museum that they might see the Assyrian monuments and compare them, etc.
- (3) He decided to take his daughter with him to the British Museum, where she might see the Assyrian monuments, and he might compare them, etc.

(h) The Relative *whom*, *which*, or *that*, should not be omitted, when its presence will make the construction of the sentence more readily discernible :—

Every official or influential Chinaman Lord Charles (Beresford) met proffered the assurance of his friendliest feelings toward England.—*Literature*, p. 535, 27th May 1899.

Insert *whom* or *that* after “Chinaman.”

SECTION 2.—THE OBSCURE.

38. Defective Expression.—Elliptical phrases or idioms, provided they are in current use and are generally understood, are unobjectionable. For instance, there is no lack of perspicuity in the sentence, “Do all you can,” because the omission of the Relative pronoun as object to a verb, though unknown in most other languages, is common in English. The same cannot be said, however, of ellipses that result from over-brevity or from rapidity of thought followed by carelessness of diction :—

- (1) He is inspired with a true sense of that function, when chosen from a regard to the interests of piety and virtue.—*Guardian*, No. 13.

A function cannot be a sense or sentiment. The wording should have been “a true sense of the importance of that function.”

- (2) You ought to contemn all the wit in the world against you.—*Guardian*, No. 53.

The writer means “all the wit that can be employed against you.”

- (3) He talks all the way upstairs to a visit.—*Spectator*, No. 2.

The writer perhaps means, “He talks all the way as he goes upstairs to pay a visit.”

- (4) Arbitrary power I look upon as a greater evil than anarchy itself, as much as a savage is a happier state of life than a slave at the oar.—*Sentiments of a Church of England Man*.

Neither a savage nor a slave can be called a state of life. The writer means “the life of a savage is happier than that of a slave.”

- (5) This courage among the adversaries of the court was inspired into them by various incidents, for every one of which the ministers, or, if that was the case, the minister alone is to answer.—*Free Thoughts on the Present State of Affairs*.

If that was the case! He means, “if there was but one minister.”

- (6) Never let the glory of our nation, who made France tremble, and yet has the gentleness to be unable to bear opposition from the meanest of his own countrymen, be calumniated in so insolent a manner, etc.—*Guardian*, No. 53.

By “the glory of our nation,” he means “the man who was the glory of our nation,”—a fact that is not obvious on first reading.

- (7) His chapters on these themes, or the commercial prospects of Siberia, are the pleasantest in his book.—*Daily Telegraph*, 25th Jan. 1898.

The writer means apparently “or *those on the commercial prospects,*” etc.

- (8) The ship was insured for a voyage from Cassis to Constantinople with cement.—*Syren and Shipping*, 9th Feb. 1898.

It looks at first as if the ship was insured with cement. The sentence should be worded: “The ship, with a cargo of cement, was insured,” etc.

- (9) I do not pretend to have exhausted, or nearly to have exhausted, the long list of causes which render the institution of a practical analogy between South Africa *on the one hand* and Australia, New Zealand, and Canada *on the other* an absurdity and an impossibility.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 1001, June 1901.

The same lack of unity prevails between the Germans *on the one hand* and the British and Americans *on the other*.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 5th May 1899.

Here all ambiguity is prevented by the use of the contrasting phrases *on the one hand* and *on the other*. The omission of these very

useful phrases when a comparison is drawn between a single object on one side and a group of objects on the other, is a frequent cause of obscurity.

39. Bad Arrangement of Words.—The great rule for the order of words, phrases, and clauses, is that things which are to be thought of together must be mentioned together, or as nearly together as the idiom of the language or the necessities of the context will allow. When this rule is neglected, it always displeases the ear and not unfrequently obscures the sense:—

- (1) It contained a warrant for conducting me and my retinue to Traldragdubb or Trildrogdrib, for it is pronounced both ways, as near as I can remember, by a party of ten horse.—SWIFT, *Voyage to Laputa*.

The phrase *by a party of ten horse* must be construed with the gerund “conducting,” and should therefore be placed after the word “retinue.”

- (2) I had several men died in my ship of calentures.—*Voyage to the Houghnhymys*.

The phrase *of calentures* must be construed with *died*, and the verb *died* requires a subject. “I had several men in my ship who died of calentures.”

- (3) I perceived it had been scoured with half an eye.—*Guardian*, No. 10.

The phrase *with half an eye* must be construed with the verb “perceived.” The sentence should therefore be arranged as follows: “With half an eye I perceived it had been scoured”; or “I perceived with half an eye that,” etc.

- (4) Anthony was not less desirous of destroying the conspirators than his officers.

Say “not less desirous than his officers of,” etc.

- (5) The young man did not want natural talents; but the father of him was a coxcomb, who affected being a fine gentleman so unmercifully, that he could not endure in his sight, or the frequent mention of one who was his son, growing into manhood and thrusting him out of the gay world.—*Spec-tator*, No. 496, T.

The confused construction, together with the vile application of the word “unmercifully,” is such that this sentence might with equal justice be ranked under solecism, impropriety, or obscurity.

40. Using the same Word in different Senses.—The same word should not be repeated in the same sentence, unless it is used in the same sense and in the same part of speech:—

- (1) Any reasons of doubt, which he may have in this case, would have been reasons of doubt in the case of other men, who may give *more*, but cannot give *more* evident, signs of thought than their fellow-creatures.—BOLINGBROKE, *Phil. Ess.* 1, Sect. 9.

Here the first "more" is the Comparative degree of "many." It should be changed to "more numerous," to match the phrase "more evident"; or "more evident" might be changed to "clearer."

- (2) One may have an air (demeanour) *which* proceeds from a just sufficiency and knowledge of the matter before him, *which* may naturally produce some motions of his head and body, *which* might become the bench better than the bar.—*Guardian*, No. 13.

Here *which* is repeated three times, each time with a different antecedent. This is tantamount to using the same word in three different senses in the same sentence.

- (3) *They* were persons of such moderate intellects, even before *they* were impaired by *their* passions.—*Spectator*, No. 30.

The first *they* refers to "persons," and the second to "intellects." *Their* refers back again to "persons."

41. Long and Involved Sentences.—When sentences are spun out to a great length, there is almost always a risk of the construction becoming confused or the sense obscured. Even if the parts are symmetrical and well-balanced, and unity of purpose is maintained to the end, the attention of the reader is apt to become wearied before the sentence is brought to a close:—

Such are the enormous advantages to distant Colonies of being admitted as part of the Empire, provided they are left free, as present Colonies are, to set up for themselves, if desired, that the Empire in the future would attract millions of loyal and proud subjects in many parts of the world, and hold them long, for thousands whom the use of force and the denial of "every shred of independence" can possibly secure and hold, and who, being coerced for the time, could never be trusted, or become other than a source of weakness in time of danger; for the desire for national independence, once firmly implanted in a white civilised people, has rarely been extinguished.—Quoted in *Spectator*, p. 601, 26th Oct. 1901.

The sentence might be broken up as follows:—

The most distant Colonies, provided they are left free, as our present Colonies are, to manage their own affairs, are not blind to the advantage of being part of the British Empire. So keenly is this advantage recognised throughout the world, that millions would be drawn into the Empire of their own free will, where thousands could not be driven into it by force. Voluntary subjects are a source of strength, involuntary ones of weakness; for the love of independence, once firmly implanted in a white people, has rarely been extinguished. (Three sentences for one.)

42. Uncertain Reference of Pronouns.—Pronouns must not be used in such a way as to cause any doubt about what noun they stand for:—

- (1) Some of the ringleaders having been apprehended by the magistrates and put in jail, *it* was attacked, the doors forced, and the whole prisoners liberated. —ALISON, *History of Europe*, ch. xxiii.

What does *it* stand for? After a little searching we find that *it* stands for "jail." But the construction is so faulty that it produces obscurity. The word "jail" should be made the subject of the first sentence, which might be reworded thus:—"Some of the ringleaders having been apprehended by the magistrates, the jail in which they were put was attacked." (Another fault in the sentence is the phrase "the whole prisoners," which should be changed to "all the prisoners.")

- (2) There are other examples of the same kind, which cannot be brought without the utmost horror, because it is supposed impiously, against principles as self-evident as any of those necessary truths, which are *such* of all knowledge, that the Supreme Being commands by one law what He forbids by another. —BOLINGBROKE.

What noun or adjective does *such* here stand for? Presumably for "self-evident"; but even then the construction is faulty, and the sense is not very clear.

- (3) When a man considers the state of his own mind, he will find that the best defence against vice is preserving the worthiest part of his own spirit pure from any great offence against *it*. —*Guardian*, No. 19.

What does *it* (the last word in the sentence) refer to?

- (4) At the lower end of the hall is a large otter's skin stuffed with hay, and the knight looks upon it with great satisfaction, because it seems he was but nine years old when his dog killed him. —ADDISON, *Spectator*, No. 115.

The obscurity of the last clause can be removed by saying, "when his dog killed *the otter*," or "when the otter was killed by his dog."

There is no uncertainty of reference, if the pronoun relates to a principal word, such as the subject or the object of a verb:—

- But I shall leave this subject to your management, and question not but you will throw *it* into such light as shall at once, etc. —*Spectator*, No. 628.

Here *it* relates to "subject," and not to the nearer word "management," for two reasons—(1) because "subject" is a chief word, while "management" is a subsidiary one; (2) because the rhythm of the sentence requires that the verb "throw" shall have the same object as the verb "leave."

If there is no other way of avoiding ambiguity, it is better to repeat the noun, or introduce a noun not already mentioned:—

- (1) The lad cannot leave his father: for if he should leave his father, *his father* would die.—Gen. xlv. 22.
- (2) Heavy autumnal rains had considerably damaged the harvest and diminished the amount of yield, *which*, combined with the cattle-plague, had caused a great rise in the price of provisions.—MOLESWORTH, *History of England*, iii. 270.

We look in vain for the antecedent of *which*. It is not "yield," nor "amount," nor "harvest," nor "rains." The sense shows that it refers to the poorness of the harvest caused by the autumnal rains. The sentence can be put right if we introduce a new noun, and instead of saying *which* say "and this scarcity of grain."

- (3) I have hopes that when Will confronts him and all the ladies on whose behalf he engages him cast kind looks and wishes of success at their champion, he will have some shame.—*Battle of the Books*.

To whom does *he* in the last clause refer? The sentence might be rewritten as follows: "I have hopes that when Will confronts him, and *when* all the ladies on whose behalf he engages him cast kind looks and wishes of success at their champion, *the man so confronted* will have some shame."

- (4) An infuriated bull has charged through the crowd, but it has closed, scarcely harmed, behind the beast.—*Spectator*, p. 37, 11th Jan. 1902.

It looks at first as if *it* referred to the "bull," since there the words are the subjects of their respective clauses. It would be better to say, "but the crowd has closed, etc."

43. "That of."—If this phrase is used, care must be taken that there is no ambiguity about the noun to which *that* refers. It would be much better to repeat the noun, than leave the meaning uncertain:—

Before we come to the Poetry, we will give an account of the Prose into which the tendencies of the earlier years of Elizabeth grew. The first is that of theology.—*Primer of English Literature*, p. 66.

If we are to be guided by the natural construction of the sentence, the last sentence written out in full would be, "The first *tendency* is that of theology." But this makes no sense. After some consideration (which ought not to have been exacted of the reader), we find that the meaning of the sentence can be expressed as follows: "We will give an account of *the various kinds of Prose*, into which the tendencies of the earlier years of Elizabeth grew. The first *kind* is that of theology."

Another source of obscurity, against which the student must be on his guard, consists of leaving out the phrase "*that of*" in contexts where its presence is indispensable:—

The sway of these islands is greater and more glorious than ancient Rome.—JOHN MORLEY, quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 5th Nov. 1901. (Say, "than *that of* ancient Rome.")

44. Words changed without Change of Meaning.—When words are changed, not to alter the sense, but merely to save a repetition of the same sound, they must not be set against each other antithetically, as if they were intended to be understood in different senses :—

Scarlet rhododendrons 60 feet in *height* are surrounded by trees 200 feet in *elevation*.—BAIN, *Rhetoric and Composition*, p. 247.

Here *height* and *elevation*, though apparently balanced against each other by way of antithesis or contrast, are intended to mean exactly the same thing. Instead of saying “trees 200 feet in elevation,” we could say “trees of 200 feet.”

On the other hand the employment of a synonym is desirable for the sake of euphony, provided that the two terms are not set against each other in antithetical order. The following is an example in which the use of synonyms is appropriate :—

It was an ancient tradition, that when the Capitol was founded by the Roman kings, the *god* Terminus, alone among all the inferior *deities*, refused to yield his place to Jupiter himself.—GIBBON, *Decline and Fall*, ch. i.

SECTION 3.—THE DOUBLE MEANING.

45. Equivocal Words and Phrases.—Our language abounds as most other languages do, in equivocal words; and there is no harm in using them, so long as the sense is clear from the context. Thus, if some one says that “he rents his house at fifty pounds a year,” no one would suppose that he meant pounds in troy-weight or pounds in avoirdupois. Sometimes, however, the context fails to give the requisite clue, or gives it so imperfectly that the reader is forced to read the sentence twice and reflect a little upon its contents before he can be quite sure that he has understood it. Whenever an author’s style exacts such reflection from his reader, he has committed an offence against perspicuity.

There is no part of speech which, if used incautiously, is not susceptible of a double meaning :—

(a) *Propositions* :—

(1) I am persuaded, that neither death, nor life . . . shall be able to separate us from the love *of* God.—Romans viii. 38.

Does this mean God’s love for us, or our love for God ?

(2) A little after the reformation *of* Luther.—SWIFT.

The natural meaning of the words “reformation of Luther” occurs to the mind much more readily than the intended meaning, “reformation by Luther.”

(b) Conjunctions:—

- (1) They were both much more ancient among the Persians than Zoroaster or Zerdusht.—BOLINGBROKE.

Or is here equivocal. The mention of *both* suggests that the writer names two distinct persons by Zoroaster or Zerdusht, by way of balance. It is not every reader who would know that *or* is here used to denote an alternative spelling of the same name. The writer should have said, "Zoroaster or (as the name is sometimes spelt) Zerdusht."

- (2) Is there no way of escape from this danger which threatens to break or to corrupt so many hearts?—*Spectator*, p. 690, 11th March 1901.

The repetition of *to* after *or* shows clearly enough that *or* is here used in a disjunctive sense, and is intended to express a distinct alternative.

- (3) I did not sing yesterday *as* I wished.

Owing to the ambiguity of *as*, this sentence may give opposite senses: either "I did sing yesterday, but not in the manner that I wished," or "I did not sing yesterday, though I wished to have done so."

- (4) And *seeing* dreams are caused by the distemper of the inward parts of the body, etc.

It requires something of an effort to find out that *seeing* here is intended to signify *since*,—a conjunction, not a participle.

- (5) His wants are few, or else he has philosophically accepted his new situation, for once he has satisfied his appetite he appears indifferent to his surroundings.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 4, 9th Oct. 1901.

The obscurity caused by saying *once* for *when once* is increased by the bad punctuation. The sentence should be, "He has accepted his new situation; for *when once* he has satisfied his appetite, he appears," etc.

(c) Pronouns:—

She united the great body of the people in *her* and their common interest.—*Idea of a Patriot King*.

Is *her* here Objective or Possessive? The sense would have been clear at a glance, if the author had said "in *their and her* common interest."

(d) Nouns:—

- (1) Your Majesty has lost all hopes of any future excises by their *consumption*.—*Guardian*, No. 52.

"Consumption" might be either Active or Passive. The sense appears to be "all hope of levying any future excise on what they may consume."

- (2) A man who has lost his eyesight has *in one sense* less consciousness.

The words italicised might mean either "in one organ of sense"

(eye-sight) or "in one respect." The last is probably the meaning intended; but the word *sense* is unsuitable in such a context.

(e) *Verbs* :—

(1) I have long since learned to like nothing but what you *do*.—*Spectator*, No. 627.

Is *do* here a pro-verb to save the repetition of *like*, or is it a notional verb signifying "perform"?

(2) The next refuge was to say, it was *overlooked* by one man, and many passages wholly written by another.—*Spectator*, No. 19.

In Addison's time *overlook* meant either "revise" or "neglect." The sense, therefore, would have been clearer if he had written "revised."

(f) *Adjectives* :—

(1) He has a *certain* claim to a share in that property.

Does *certain* here mean "undoubted," or is it merely an Indefinite Demonstrative adjective signifying "some"?

(2) As for such animals as are *mortal* or noxious, we have a right to destroy them.—*Guardian*, No 61.

The word *mortal* means "liable to death," except when it is joined to some noun expressive of destruction or injury. Say "such animals as destroy life or do mischief," etc.

(g) *Phrases* :—

Your character of universal guardian, joined to the concern you ought to have for the cause of virtue and religion, assures me that you will not think that clergymen, when injured, have *the least* right to your protection.—*Guardian*, No. 80.

He aimed at *nothing less than* the crown.

I will *have mercy*, and not sacrifice.—Matt. ix. 13.

He writes *as well as* you. (The sense is ambiguous, because *as well as* may be either Co-ordinative as Sub-ordinative.)

Much conversation was going on *about me*.

The counsel for the defence spoke *before the judge*.

Fish can scarcely be got now *at any rate*.

I grieve much *for his loss*.

There seems to be no limit *to the scolding of the housekeeper*.

46. Ambiguous Construction.—Such ambiguities arise, not from the equivocal character of a word or a phrase, but from the careless arrangement or careless omission of words :—

(1) Solomon the son of David, who built the temple of Jerusalem, was the richest monarch that ever reigned over the people of God.

Is "Solomon" the antecedent to *who*, or is "David"? According to § 39 the antecedent should be "David," since "David" stands next to it, but the writer of course means "Solomon." The sentence should be, "Solomon who was the son of David and built," etc.

(2) I know that *all words which* are signs of complex ideas furnish matter of mistake and cavil.—BOLINGBROKE.

The sense will be clearer if "all words" is changed to "all *those* words."

(3) God heapeth favours on His servants ever liberal and faithful.

Do the adjectives *liberal and faithful* refer to God or to His servants? If to the former, say, "God, ever liberal and faithful, heapeth," etc.

(4) The ecclesiastical and secular powers concurred in that measure. The high and mighty states of Holland.

The second sentence is quite correct, because the same "states" are both "high and mighty." But are we to understand that the epithets "ecclesiastical and secular" relate to the same powers or to different powers? The careless omission of *the* before "secular" would compel us, if we did not happen to know better, to understand the phrase in the former sense.

(5) And thus the son the fervent sire addressed.

POPE'S *Odyssey*, Book xix.

Did the son address the father, or the father the son? We give the preference to "son" as the subject to the verb, because it stands first. The sense, however, would have been much clearer, if the poet had said "*his* fervent sire" instead of "*the* fervent sire."

(6) At least my own private letters leave room for a politician, well versed in matters of this nature, to suspect as much, as a penetrating friend of mine tells me.—*Spectator*, No. 43.

Here, except for the comma after *much*, the ambiguity of the sentence as it stands would be insoluble. All doubt would have been removed, if the author had observed the rule given in § 39, according to which things that are to be thought of together must be mentioned together. The sentence would then run as follows: "At least my own private letters, as a penetrating friend of mine tells me, leave room," etc.

(7) I beseech you, sir, to inform these fellows, that they have not the spleen, because they cannot talk without the help of a glass, or convey their meaning to each other without the interposition of clouds.—*Spectator*, No. 53.

Is *because* intended to qualify the verb "beseech," or the verb "inform," or the negative verb "have not"?

(8) He has by some strange magic arrived at the valne of half a plumb, as the citizens call a hundred thousand pounds.—*Tatler*, No. 40.

Does this mean that a hundred thousand pounds was denoted by a plumb, or by half a plumb?

(9) Every scribe instructed into the kingdom of heaven is like a householder, who bringeth out of his treasure things new and old.—Matt. xiii. 52.

The perspicuity of the last phrase would be improved by saying *new things and old*.

*Exercise on Chapter II.*¹

Improve, where necessary, the perspicuity or other quality of the following sentences:—

1. As Europe will not again enter China with a composite army, as she will trust no mandatory, and as the people of China consider the exaction of the indemnity a violent oppression, we should not be surprised if it were by degrees whittled away until only a moderate annuity remained to be paid.—*Spectator*, pp. 1, 2, 5th July 1902.

2. Nothing gave more or more just offence in this country than the characteristic passage in which Count Bülow hinted, etc.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 209, Feb. 1902.

3. It has not a word but what the author religiously thinks in it.—*Guardian*, No. 4.

4. I therefore differ from most of my fellow-councillors and from Mr. B., in seeing no objection to paths which would be "short cuts" between the gates.—Quoted in *Middlesex County Times*, p. 6, 11th Aug. 1900.

5. Not only as a comedian and a singer did he (Nero) need the favour of the people, but also as a bulwark against the Senate and the Patricians.—DR. BINION, *Quo Vadis*, ch. xxiii.

6. It is not too much to say that five years ago a complete defeat by Germany in a European war would have certainly caused British intervention.—CONAN DOYLE'S *Pamphlet on the War in South Africa*, p. 156.

7. It is greatly to be desired that there shall be as little connection as possible between companies and firms regularly employed by, or regularly taking, Government contracts and members of the Cabinet.—*Spectator*, p. 199, 18th Aug. 1900.

8. Even when we come to a writer so deliberately Irish as T. Moore, he never thinks of writing anything but classical English, and to do what Tennyson did, and write a poem in Irish dialect, he would have thought exceedingly vulgar.—*Empire Review*, p. 265, April 1901.

9. It is certain that those whose customs are so objectionable would stand more in awe of them than the omnibus conductor, who, worthy fellow as he is, is frequently very shabby in appearance.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 14th Aug. 1900.

10. Nor would it be the slightest proof that the League was not a bad conspiracy, destructive of the community's well-being and peace, were it not attended with open agrarian crime.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 269, Feb. 1901.

11. Is it unreasonable to ask the Chancellor to pause before proceeding further, and to withdraw it, at least for a period, so as to allow time for a full and impartial inquiry into the probable effect such a duty would have upon the trade and shipping of the Empire? *Ibid.* p. 1103, June 1901.

¹ To save time and to stimulate attention and quickness, I advise that this and the following exercises in Part I. be done orally and impromptu in class.

12. Chicago's population will probably be announced soon after New York, and other cities will be pushed along as rapidly as possible. No estimates for any of the cities are given out in advance of the completion of the final count, but the idea has got abroad in Philadelphia that the population of that city will be shown to be greater than Chicago.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 16th Aug. 1900.

13. It is very difficult, at least for observers who are outside their community, to understand the precise relation between Jews and Mohammedans. Though the latter in some places persecute them horribly, as, for instance, in Morocco, they are, we imagine, held to be nearer to the ruling caste in Mussulman countries than they are held in any Christian country, except perhaps England, where the distinction of creed and race is very often forgotten.—*Spectator*, p. 925, 22nd Dec. 1900.

14. The Austrian aristocrats have no enthusiasm for it, because they are proud of their position in Europe, and think, with some justice, that under the Alliance their Empire is a little overshadowed.—*Ibid.* p. 469, 5th Oct. 1901.

15. There are two deer from the same region (Cashmere), one of which does, and the other does not, accommodate itself to life in Western Europe in the most contradictory and upsetting manner.—*Ibid.* p. 84, 19th Jan. 1901.

16. Many hope for troubled waters in which they may fish. They will, however, be reduced to adding one more disappointment to the collection which the adversaries of the Republic and the Clericals have been making during the past thirty years.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 27th Nov. 1900.

17. It (Liberalism) is perishing instead of the deadly respectability which is imposed upon the Liberal party by its strangely characteristic bondage to baronets.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 459, Sept. 1900.

18. Arctic Russia is an ideal land for the social reformer; no one owns estates; the land is either Tundra, the free wandering ground of the Samoyede and his reindeer, forest, or communal holding.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 265, Sept. 1900.

19. When a spring of water first breaks through a small hole, it may be stopped by a finger being placed upon the hole; but it cannot be stopped by putting an elephant before it when it is too large to be stopped.—*Life of Abdur Rahman* (in *Review of Reviews*, p. 589, Dec. 1900).

20. "My conclusion," he says, "is that neither the religion of the missionaries, nor the trade of the merchants, nor even the much-abused drug (opium), can honestly be counted as the cause of the anti-foreign movement in China, though one and all have been used as levers to envenom it."—Quoted in *Spectator*, p. 412, 29th Sept. 1900.

21. It is improbable, we may almost say impossible, that any local authority will be found to interfere with schools which give proof of their efficiency. Public opinion would be strong against this and the influence of governing bodies and headmasters.—*Literature*, p. 118, 10th Feb. 1900.

22. He was a saint indeed, not a hermit of asceticism, combining piety, meekness, humility, simplicity, with active benevolence and virtue.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 48.

23. This personage was Hanan or Annas, son of Seth and father-in-law of Kaiapha, who was formerly the High Priest, and had in reality preserved amidst the numerous changes of the Pontificate all the authority of the office.—RENAN, *Life of Jesus*, Eng. Tr. p. 210.

24. Such is the depravity of the world that guilt is more likely to meet with indulgence than misfortune.—*Friends for the Fireside*, i. 15.

25. There is political corruption, universally admitted to be widespread, and culminating in a pension-list of \$145,000,000 for a war which ended thirty-three years ago, and which, though its fraudulent character has been clearly exposed, passes Congress without a word.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *Contemporary Review*, p. 624, May 1899.

26. The absurdity, of course, is manifest for one man to pretend to absolve another when he cannot absolve himself, who is in the same condemnation and infinitely greater on account of his blasphemous assumptions.—Quoted in *Church Gazette*, p. 38, 29th April 1899.

27. What we have to do in relation to Russia or any other country is to be sedulously on guard against prejudiced judgments and always endeavour to put ourselves in their place.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 413, May 1899.

28. One constantly hears it said by persons who work among the classes the elementary schools educate and judge by personal contact with individuals, that they cannot trace any general improvement (of character).—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 860, May 1899.

29. How would you deal with a case like that of Junius, where the man is perfectly determined to conceal his identity? Would you give him any copyright at all?

Answer. I think he ought to be able to conceal it. But I think he would naturally come under the penalty that he could not go into the court to enforce it.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 9th May 1899.

30. Full confidence is felt that the British Government will act fairly, compromising, if such a course is likely materially to assist the Uitlanders, with no surrender of Sir A. Milner's cardinal points.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 14th June 1899.

31. Throughout the meeting was characterised by marked hostility to the English.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 19th June 1899.

32. Carroll and a companion, having called at the shop of Messrs. Read and Sons, jewellers, examined several brooches, but left without making a purchase. They had not been gone more than a minute, when they received information that caused them to miss a sapphire and diamond brooch.—*Ibid.* p. 5, 19th July 1899.

33. It is for this reason that I write these lines, not against M. Lebon, with whom I am not acquainted, but for the loyal officer whom he put in irons, for Captain Dreyfus, and for the laws that he has outraged.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 17th July, 1899.

34. A reception was held after the marriage ceremony at 18 Cadogan Square, the residence of Mr. and Mrs. F. Villiers, the former uncle to the bride.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 12th July 1899.

35. "The French people are lost in wonder," states Our Paris Correspondent, who gives some account of how the enemy obtained their guns and trained French and German gunners.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 20th Dec. 1899.

36. It is reported here that the secret treaty, under which England is alleged to secure the Portuguese territory in South Africa south of the Zambesi and Delagoa Bay, has caused a decided sensation in diplomatic and Government circles.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 29th Dec. 1899.

37. With their advent hotel and flat robberies in the metropolis began to increase and have gone on augmenting.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 21st June 1900.

38. The *Port Morant*, the first of the new line of Elder Dempster steamers to arrive from Jamaica, reached Avonmouth yesterday afternoon with thirty-seven first-class passengers and mails and a full cargo of fruit.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 30th March 1901.

39. On Mr. Lawson Walton suggesting that the jury should go down to Dover to inspect the shafts, the Lord Chief Justice stated that he would instruct them not to decide against the defendants because no coal had been worked.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 14th Feb. 1901.

40. He is a priest of the Orthodox or Greek Catholic Church, and his fame has spread outside the confines of Russia, where, at Cronstadt, he lives.—*Ibid.* p. 3, 29th March 1901.

41. What are we gathered for to-night? It is to celebrate the anniversary of the birth of a great nation,—of one of those nations which together make up a great empire, greater than the world has ever seen before, and to which we are all so proud to belong.—*Mr. Chamberlain's Speech*, 2nd July 1901.

42. There will always be medical unpreparedness for war, until each regimental unit, each brigade, and each division have their medical staff and equipment complete, and their efficiency tested before embarkation.—*Empire Review*, p. 431, May 1901.

43. It is, moreover, much more difficult to repair steel than wooden wheels.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 457, May 1901.

44. William Pitt entered the House of Commons without money and without interest.—*Spectator*, p. 801, 1st June 1901.

45. How far they attach religious importance to these ceremonials it is difficult to decide, feeling differing widely in every province.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 6th July 1901.

46. The hundreds of towers which characterised the city in the Middle Ages were the strongholds of the great nobles, the Orsinis, Colonnas, Frangipani, Savelli, and others, and from these armed bodies of retainers issued forth to destroy one another, or to fall upon the hapless citizen.—*Ibid.* p. 389, 16th March 1901.

47. India has prospered financially during the past year in spite of plague and famine, which have cost in direct expenditure some five millions sterling, and nearly two millions of extra expenditure on military defences.—*Ibid.* p. 410, 23rd March 1901.

48. What is wanted to make efficient that civilian control (of the War Office) which we regard as absolutely necessary is an expert head of the army directly under the Secretary of State, who is entirely under the orders of the Secretary of State, and who sees his policy carried out, but who is otherwise supreme in the military department.—*Ibid.* p. 366, 9th March 1901.

49. We must go to other sources than the ruins to learn what Baghdad was, though even now it is not too late to hope that some-

thing might be recovered by careful excavations, if only the Ottoman Government could realise its duty as the unworthy heir of a glorious vista of renown.—*Ibid.* p. 207, 9th Feb. 1901.

50. They will tolerate in any one they think well of differences of opinion on the most important subjects such as on the Continent would instantly elicit shouts of treason and treachery, and probably lead to duels.—*Ibid.* p. 756, 25th May 1901.

51. It would be necessary to try some new man, and as the throne of Serbia is not very tempting to any Prince who dislikes dependence, and as he must be tolerably able to get along at all, the choice is a difficult one.—*Ibid.* p. 757, 25th March 1901.

52. The chief fault of the book is its lack of the homely simplicity of description which impresses us with the reality of the narrative. The author means well, but he preaches too much.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 300, Sept. 1900.

53. There is a huge cave among its cliffs, where the Mac Somethings had taken refuge from their foes the Mac Something Elses, to the number of above two hundred men.—Quoted in *Church Gazette*, p. 41, 29th April 1899.

54. There was a tremendous rush on Saturday to take excisable articles out of bond in view of possible imposts, and there were in consequence numerous applications for loans to bankers.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 5th March 1900.

55. A curious feature, if I may say so without impertinence, in American commercial men seems to me, in combination with that great faculty of the acquisition of money, to be a complete contempt for money except as a means for making more, and for power.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 17th Jan. 1901.

56. Mr. Gordon has provided his readers with a brace of heroes and heroines.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 14th Dec. 1900.

57. We still want to know what are their hopes of an eternal spiritual life. They might resemble our hopes, and it is conceivable that in many points their theology might confirm ours.—*Spectator*, p. 166, 2nd Feb. 1901.

58. Welbeck Abbey divides with Warwick Castle and Chatsworth the admiration naturally felt for a splendid house full of treasures of art and set in the finest of gardens and parks, by a population shut up for the most part in large manufacturing towns.—*Ibid.* p. 484, 13th Oct. 1900.

59. In the same number is an important plea for the emancipation of women from the pen of A. Lusignoli.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 592, Dec. 1898.

60. Any one who is interested in the question of the reform of the Italian university system will find an exhaustive study of the measure which is being advocated by Professor Buccelli, the present Minister of Public Instruction in Italy, in *La Riforma Sociale*.—*Ibid.* p. 79, Jan. 1899.

61. The selection of the Queen Regent of Spain of the Duke of Tetuan as the chief envoy to the Peace Congress at the Hague is a very interesting one to us.—*Nineteenth Century*, May 1899.

62. Were he the bugbear of the Dutch-speaking population of the colony he is represented to be by the wire-pullers here and at home,

the latter would hail his return with satisfaction.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 5th Nov. 1900.

63. Does any one seriously hold the doctrine of ante-natal ideas? Such there were in the past, and not without reason; but, as our editor remarks, "the problem has entered on a new phase by the recognition of the fact that a great deal of our mental furniture is inherited."—*Spectator*, p. 63, 13th July 1901.

64. Ministers carried all the groups into which the vast amount of undiscussed supplies had been distributed by majorities considerably larger than those to which they have been generally accustomed during the present session.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 9th Aug. 1901.

65. The Government complained that there was no effective Opposition, but the moment they said a word against their policy or conduct Ministers called out, "Hold your peace; you are only encouraging the enemy."—*Ibid.* p. 6, 12th July 1901.

66. The fact is, Parliament has set the local authorities an impossible task. All experience shows that they cannot deal with the difficulties of housing alone.—*New Liberal Review*, June 1901.

67. That their country is a Republic, while Russia is an autocracy, has, as we argued last week, very little to do with the matter. France has forgotten Poland as well as the rest of the world.—*Spectator*, p. 272, 31st Aug. 1901.

68. The British chaperon has left us, we are assured, only for a time, and we devoutly hope the assurance is warranted, but so it is.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 632, Oct. 1900.

69. This class consists of people who have failed to "catch on" to the altered necessities the development of mechanism has brought about.—H. G. WELLS, *ibid.* p. 1110, June 1901.

70. He said that only two English firms were in the running at all. One was £20,000 more than the Berlin firms, and the other about £30,000 in advance.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 5th Sept. 1901.

71. Dr. M., however, though, he rose high, could never conciliate the Prussian grandees, who disliked him as a low-born man, detested him as a renegade from Socialism, and distrusted him as a self-seeker and *intrigant*.—*Ibid.* p. 42, 14th Sept. 1901.

72. She was more alive to the disgrace which the want of new clothes must reflect on her daughter's nuptials than to any sense of shame at her eloping and living with Wickham a fortnight before they took place.—JANE AUSTEN, *Pride and Prejudice*, ch. 1.

73. The old mother of the world stands beside her with relentless purpose. She knows that the moment comes in every woman's life when she wakes from such dreams (of never falling in love), and mother Nature gives back the fetters she has thrown away, to be placed in her hands by the man she loves.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 638, Oct. 1900.

74. He did not like to hear of a late officer in the army writing letters which contemplated the payment of money to public officials, nor of a firm of traders receiving such a communication and continuing to do business with the man who wrote it, without a remonstrance.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 19th June 1901.

75. It may now be stated that the accused in the Colchester

murder case is C. L., and not B. He is to be discharged on Wednesday.—*Daily Express*, p. 1, 24th June 1901.

76. What will England do in regard to its army? Simply nothing. A nation like the British is too deeply imbued with its political constitution, especially in its relation to its army, to exchange its character.—*Ibid.* p. 859, May 1901.

77. It was, indeed, most amusing to observe the good-humoured chaff that passed between Russians and British and British and French.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 27th March 1901.

78. "Liberal unity," says the annual report of the National Liberal Federation, "becomes not merely a party, but a patriotic necessity."—*Ibid.* p. 4, 29th April 1901.

79. The colonial Parliaments, or all of them who have had anything to say upon the subject, have enthusiastically approved of it without any division on party lines, which is more than can be said of the British.—*Nineteenth Century*, p. 745, May 1900.

80. Murray repairs into England. One hundred gentlemen are determined to set upon him in battle, wherever the Queen's husband may be, and either to slay him or tarry behind lifeless among them.—Quoted in *Fortnightly Review*, p. 218, Aug. 1900.

81. In presenting our readers to-day with a report of the proceedings connected with the consecration of St. Saviour's, it requires to be stated that it has been in the face of the most extraordinary obstacles.—*Middlesex County Times*, p. 6, 17th June 1899.

82. But perhaps one is unduly biassed by the charm of a complete escape from the thousand and one affectations, which have grown up since Fielding died, and we have all become so much wiser and more learned than all previous generations.—LESLIE STEPHEN, *Hours in a Library*, ii. 92.

83. That Paul should omit to mention Peter, one of the Apostles, in some of his letters is the best proof that he was not in Rome at all.—REBER, *Christ of Paul*, p. 119.

84. Among these regulations he applies the penalties of martial law, including death, to all persons who do not constitute a portion of the British army, who, among other things, destroy bridges, railways, and telegraphs.—*Spectator*, p. 375, 21st Sept. 1901.

85. The strain and the stress which suddenly came upon the civil departments of the State at the commencement of the war were prodigious, and I maintain that they were not found wanting.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 370, Oct. 1900.

86. Are we to see these different Parliaments scattered all over the world drawn once more in some nearer bond?—Lord Rosebery's *Speech*, *Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 3rd May 1900.

87. Four sub-committees have been formed. Two of these will devote their energies to the questions of theatre-building and lighting and machinery respectively.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 24th April 1900.

88. In the Middle Ages the Jews alone let out money at interest. Their rates were very high, as was natural when there were few lenders and many borrowers, and when the times were insecure, and they made the Jews unpopular.—RANSOME, *Short History of England*, p. 99.

89. She herself finds Chinese utter want of respect for women their most objectionable feature.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 77, Jan. 1899.

90. General S. showed them that British soldiers could not only meet them in superior numbers, but could drive them at the point of the bayonet from the strongest positions they could take up.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 5, 16th April 1900.

91. He does not know how to spend the money well he knows so well to earn.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 239, March 1899.

92. Many of these who call themselves spiritualists are nothing of the kind, and only use the name of things a brief conversation shows them to be ignorant of, because they hate to own themselves merely superstitious.—*Church Gazette*, p. 633, 25th March 1899.

93. Concord may best be attained by shifting the argument as against dissenters from an assertion of their unfaithfulness to tradition to an appeal to recognise that the historic Episcopate offers the best rallying-point for all Christians.—*Ibid*, p. 313, 7th Jan. 1899.

94. St. Paul was a Jew who in my view was so inflamed with the new idea, that it was practicable to make the faith of Israel the possession of those who were not of his own blood, that he made a tremendous compromise with the faith itself.—OSWALD JOHN SIMON, *Fortnightly Review*, p. 672, April 1899.

95. No doubt the President, who is a very shrewd man, succeeded in accumulating his armaments without, until very recently, any suspicion of their enormous size.—*Balfour's Speech*, *Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 30th Jan. 1900.

96. The Archbishop of York and the Chancellor Walter of Merton had allegiance sworn to Edward in his absence by the great men, so that his reign is the first which dates from the death of the last king; former kings had always counted from their coronation.—RANSOME, *Short History of England*, p. 96.

97. Dr. L. does not think that the President will replace General J. as commander-in-chief, but he considers it quite possible that he may assist him on the spot with his advice.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 13th March 1900.

98. London is in many respects quite behind the great cities of the world, and one of them—by no means the least annoying—is the inadequate arrangements for keeping its streets clean.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 21st Feb. 1900.

99. To the west of them their lost positions and the safe refuge of the great hills; to the east of them, the fateful thunder of French's field-guns, holding all aid away; and yet these stubborn churis fought on.—*Ibid*. p. 8, 24th Feb. 1900.

100. With regard to the first issue, that of making provision for the war, it would seem that once the real difficulties of the case were realised, and they came as a surprise on men of all parties, all has been done, and is being done, that is necessary and possible.—*Ibid*. p. 9, 20th Feb. 1900.

101. The Marquis of Lorn contributes a short article to the *Nineteenth Century*, in which he recommends that after the war an attempt should be made to emigrate and settle children in South Africa.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 350, April 1900.

102. It has now been announced here (New York) that Mr. J. R. Keene will in 1902 maintain the biggest American racing stable that has ever been established in England.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 6th Jan. 1902.

103. The nation has to make a careful and deliberate comparison between His Majesty's present advisers and their measures and any more or less coherent and attractive combination which sooner or later may seriously aspire to replace them.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 6th Jan. 1902.

104. In picturesque procession the Chinese Court yesterday re-entered Peking, which it left somewhat hurriedly as the Allied force marched up to the gates for the relief of the Legations.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 8th Jan. 1902.

105. A telegram from Peking says that as the result of the recent affrays at Newchwang the relations between the American and British Consuls and naval commanders and the Russian Administrator of the port are of an uncomfortable nature.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 10th Jan. 1902.

106. Germany can expect no help from Turkey in this extension; for the recruiting grounds of the Turkish army do not lie below Baghdad, and she cares nothing about the Persian Gulf.—*Spectator*, p. 12, 4th Jan. 1902.

107. Although practical politicians have long perceived the necessity of arriving at a solution of the thorny problem of the Newfoundland fisheries, it is still with us, and bristling with difficulties.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 20th Jan. 1902.

108. And yet the history of Tasmania shows that in the early days of Victoria she owed much of her development to the older colony, which, if it supplied her with some undesirable citizens, also gave her of its best for the development of her resources.—*Ibid.*

CHAPTER III.—SIMPLICITY.

47. Simplicity described.—Simplicity of diction means the use of plain and easy words in preference to uncommon, affected, or difficult ones. The following description of the merits of simplicity is worth quoting:—

It is by means of familiar words that style takes hold of the reader and gets possession of him. It is by means of these that great thoughts get currency and pass for true metal, like gold and silver which have had a recognised stamp put upon them. They beget confidence in the man who, in order to make his thoughts more clearly perceived, uses them; for people feel that such an employment of the language of common life betokens a man who knows that life and its concerns, and who keeps himself in contact with them. Besides, these words make a style frank and easy. They show that an author has long made the thought or the feeling expressed his mental food; that he has so assimilated them and familiarised them, that the most common expressions suffice him in order to express ideas which have become everyday ideas to him by the length of time they have been in his mind. And

lastly, what one says in such words looks more true ; for of all the words in use none are so clear as those which we call common words, and clearness is so eminently one of the characteristics of truth, that often it even passes for truth itself.—JOURBERT, quoted in Arnold's *Essay on Criticism*.

An affected loftiness of style, *i.e.* a style the opposite to simple, has been called Euphuism, from a book named *Euphuus* by Lyly (A.D. 1579).

48. Long Words and Periphrases.—Fine writing to express ordinary facts is a vulgarism,—the mark of an ill-informed mind, that seeks to hide its emptiness under big words and phrases, like the drum in the fable, that gave a booming sound, but was found on inspection to be hollow within. Nothing is gained by saying *in all human probability* for “most likely” or “most probably”; *lunar effulgence* for “moonlight”; *the tender passion* or *the amorous affection* for “love”; *pharmaceutical chemist* for “apothecary”; *caudal appendage* for “tail”; *the nasal organ* for “nose”; *skilful agriculturist* for “good farmer” or “good husbandman”; *partake of lunch* for “take lunch” or “lunch” (verb); *inebriate* or *dipsomaniac* for “drunkard”; *minatory expressions* for “threats”; *ruminating* for “chewing the cud”; *location* for “site”; *tonorial artist* for “barber” or “hair-cutter”; *expression* for “word”; *adumbrate* for “foreshadow”; *to donate* for “to present” or “give”; *culinary department* for “kitchen”; *maternal relative* for “mother”; *the lower extremities* for “legs” or “feet”; *potables* for “drinkables”; *arcana* for “secrets”; *pedagogue* for “teacher”; *impeccable* for “sinless”; *germane* for “relevant” or “allied”; *infructuous* for “fruitless,” “barren of results”; *apologue* for “fable”; *the sacred edifice* for “the church”; *the sacred day of hebdomadal rest* for “Sunday”; *animadversion* for “blame” or “censure”; *vituperation* for “abuse”; *exacerbate* for “embitter”; *multitudinous* for “manifold”; *incarnadine* for “dye red”; *evangel* for “gospel”; *contumacy* for “obstinacy”; *exemplar* for “model”; *cleptomaniac* for “thief”; *eventuate* for “come to pass”; *circumambient air* for “surrounding air”; *disembogues its waters* for “empties its waters”; *metamorphosis* for “change”; *precipitate* for “throw down”; *within measurable distance of* for “near” or “within sight of,” etc.

“A reader,” says the *Spectator* in p. 635, 2nd Nov. 1901, “is not favourably impressed by this story (*Spanish Brigands*)

when he finds very early in the narrative an uncle described as 'an avuncular relative.'"

The following speech, put into the mouth of Mr. Micawber, may be quoted as a specimen of ponderous and empty-headed circumlocution :—

"I am under the impression," said Mr. Micawber, "that your peregrinations in this metropolis have not as yet been extensive, and that you might have some difficulty in penetrating the arcana of the Modern Babylon in the direction of the City Road,—in short," said Mr. Micawber, in another burst of confidence, "that you might lose yourself.—I shall be happy to call this evening, and instal you in the knowledge of the nearest way."—DICKENS.

49. Allusions and Quotations.—It is better to give persons and things their plain names than to express them by allusions or quotations, which are hackneyed, pointless, and irrelevant, or might not be generally known. A writer adds nothing either to the clearness of his sentences, or (if this be his object) to his reputation for learning, by saying *the father of history* for "Herodotus"; *the blind old bard* for "Homer"; *the sublime author of "Paradise Lost"* for "Milton"; *the swan of Avon* for "Shakespeare"; *the Stagirite* for "Aristotle"; *the father of ecclesiastical history* for "Ensebius"; *the first Christian emperor* for "Constantine the Great"; *the apostle of the circumcision* for "St. Peter"; *the great lexicographer* for "Johnson"; *the bard of Mantua* for "Virgil"; *the queen of the night or the crescent satellite of the earth* for "the moon"; *the glorious lump of day* for "the sun"; *the fragrant weed* for "tobacco"; *the cup that cheers but not inebriates* for "tea"; *more honoured in the breach than the observance* for "better avoided"; *the seven-hilled city or the eternal city* for "Rome"; *the modern Babylon* for "London"; *the land of Prester John* for "Abyssinia"; *Caledonia stern and wild* for "Scotland"; *few and far between* for "rare"; *plods his weary way* for "plods"; *the green-eyed monster* for "jealousy"; *durance vile* for "imprisonment"; *the altar of Hymen* for "marriage"; *training the young idea to shoot* for "teaching"; *the gentle art of Izaak Walton* for "angling" or "fishing"; *a disciple of Bacchus* for "drunkard," etc.

Campbell's fine lines on Poland lose some of their effect through his calling Poland by the far-fetched and little-known ancient name of "Sarmatia":—

O bloodiest picture in the book of Time!

Sarmatia fell unwept, without a crime.—*Pleasures of Hope.*

50. Simple Facts in Simple Terms.—Simplicity may apply either to the terms and phrases used or to the structure of sentences. Long, involved, and highly complex sentences should, as has been explained already in § 41, be avoided for the sake of clearness. As a specimen of severely simple language—simple in words as well as simple in structure—the following example is quoted :—

Whosoever heareth these sayings of mine and doeth them, I will liken him unto a wise man, which built his house upon a rock. And the rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew, and beat upon that house ; and it fell not : for it was founded on a rock.

Every one that heareth not these sayings of mine and doeth them not, shall be likened unto a foolish man, which built his house upon the sand.

And the rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew, and beat upon that house ; and it fell : and great was the fall of it.—Matt. vii. 24-27.

As specimens of inflated rhetoric the following examples are quoted :—

One looked out over the clean-cut faces of the great forensic notables, over the crude strength emblazoned on the Irish peasantry, over the stately catafalque, with its sweet embroidery of flowers, to the deep immensity where, in the far distance, black-robed priests lit or extinguished the brown wax candles upon the altar. . . . Outside the sun blazed a mighty candle, and the busy 'buses chanted their London requiem.—(Quoted with disapproval in *Spectator*, p. 412, 29th Sept. 1900).

The peruser of Swift wants little previous knowledge : it will be sufficient that he is acquainted with common words and common things : he has neither to mount elevations, nor to explore profundities.—JOHNSON.

The last extract is not so high-flown as the first. But simpler words might have been used with advantage :—

To read Swift one needs but little previous knowledge. All that is required is an acquaintance with common words and common things : there are no heights to scale, and no depths to explore.

51. Clash of Negatives.—When two or more negatives come together in the same sentence, we do not always perceive at a glance their combined effect. “No men are infallible” is not so easily grasped as its more simple equivalent “All men are fallible.”

(1) There can be no doubt that nothing will be done.

Write :—It is certain that nothing will be done.

(2) I doubt whether the reverse be not the case.

Write :—I scarcely think so, or I doubt it.

(3) If we cannot recall at pleasure a single idea, we are not less unable to recall a whole train of ideas.

Write:—If we cannot recall a single idea, we are equally or more at a loss to recall a whole train of ideas.

(4) The loss of blood destroys strength.

This is less easily taken in by the mind than the more positive form—"Blood is the source of strength."

(5) Do not do to others what you would not wish them to do to you.—CONFUCIUS.

This is less direct than, "Do unto others as you would be done by."

52. Simplicity sometimes Unsuitable.—A simple and direct statement is sometimes avoided for the sake of euphemism, innuendo, sarcasm, or other figure based upon indirectness of speech (see §§ 22-26). Thus Cicero, to avoid saying that Milo's servants *killed* Clodius, employs the following periphrasis:—

They did that which every master would have wished his servants to do in such an emergency.—*Pro Milone*.

Sometimes a periphrasis is used in preference to a simple statement, because it suits the argument or sustains the gravity of the subject better than a single word or a short sentence could do:—

(1) Shall not the judge of all the earth do right?

Here "the judge of all the earth" is a circumlocution for God; and the context is well served by using it.

(2) The very source and fount of day

Is dashed with wandering isles of night.—TENNYSON.

A roundabout, but impressive, way of saying that even the sun has spots.

(3) Yesterday Newcastle was gaily bedizened in honour of the great occasion, and the principal streets, festooned and garlanded, were crowded with enthusiastic spectators, the day being regarded as a general holiday.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 21st June 1900.

The long and sonorous words here used are in keeping with the gravity of the occasion,—the Royal visit to Newcastle.

(4) Let me begin by stating what I mean by a prophet. I do not mean a propounder of caliginous conundrums for future generations to solve.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 93, Jan. 1901.

Here the writer intentionally uses the very uncommon word *caliginous* to suggest the darkness of the sayings of prophets.

(5) The right hon. gentleman reminded him sometimes of an allegorical personage who, when sick, was said to have formed resolves in the direction of becoming a monk or saint, but whose aspirations towards canonisation, and whose yearnings towards the cloister, evaporated on convalescence.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 19th June 1900.

These high-sounding phrases are given with mock-gravity as a paraphrase of the well-known rhyme :—

When the devil was ill, the devil a monk would be ;
When the devil was well, the devil a monk was he.

Exercise on Chapter III.

Simplify, where necessary, the following sentences :—

1. Four District Councillors retire by effluxion of time, and there is also Mr. D.'s vacant seat to be filled.—*Middlesex County Times*, p. 5, 10th March 1900.

2. He married a lady of Portuguese extraction, who predeceased him by about a dozen years.—*Literature*, p. 124, 10th Feb. 1900.

3. How is it possible to compare with these dignified authorities an historian who records Malcolm II. as "having passed over to the majority in 1034" ?—*Ibid.* p. 257, 31st March 1900.

4. Still, with all its digressions and circumlocutions, the book has its value. It is not picturesque, and it sometimes divagates from accuracy.—*Ibid.* p. 334, 28th April 1900.

5. There was one phrase, too common among us now, which I am thankful to say he obelised altogether.—*Ibid.* p. 290, 14th April 1900.

6. There is the same weakness of plot—the machinery is quite familiar and commonplace—and the same failure to visualise the men as the women ; but there is more sincerity.—*Ibid.* p. 300, 14th April 1900.

7. That they have been accustomed to have it all their own way, and do not like not having it, is very intelligible ; but that is no excuse for using epithets which the facts entirely belie.—*Church Gazette*, p. 99, 13th May 1899.

8. The country Dutchmen of the Cape were, and still are, pastoralists and stock-breeders rather than cultivators of the soil, and they endeavoured, as far as possible, to preserve their isolation and their language.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 360, April 1900.

9. The by-ways of the antiquary and the bibliophile lie very close to one another, and an article in the *Beacon* on "The Roman Temples at Bath" carries us into the region of old books.—*Literature*, p. 306, 21st April 1900.

10. There are a great many interesting deductions to be drawn from so large a collection of hitherto unpublished proverbs, and students of comparative paroemiology will not neglect Mr. Manwaring's researches.—*Ibid.* p. 363, 31st March 1900.

11. Yet we imagine that in a country, where such a large proportion of the inhabitants own a little property, that difficulty will tend to settle itself without a cataclysm when the rates go up.—*Ibid.* p. 349, 5th May 1900.

12. The usual answer, that you must not buy to great advantage from a private person, but may buy in market overt, and especially of a dealer in the article, is in our judgment no answer at all.—*Spectator*, p. 521, 20th Oct. 1900.

13. The practice seems to have fallen into desuetude, and the heir to the baronetcy spent some troublous years in the early thirties battling for his rights.—*Ibid.* p. 462, 6th Oct. 1900.

14. The German as well as the Irish vote will be a weighty factor, and the opportunity of plaeating these elements by Anti-British resolutions will hardly be missed.—*Times Weekly*, p. 282, 4th May 1900.

15. The smartness of his style is not enhanced by phrases such as "he praised Mahomed up to the azure."—*Literature*, p. 358, 5th May 1900.

16. For the moment, the enemy cannot believe that no American Government would proceed to extremes with us over such a question.—*Daily Mail*, p. 4, 17th April 1900.

17. It is clear that the garrison and the inhabitants are within measurable distance of a famine.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 3rd May 1900.

18. The progress of hygiene, and the knowledge acquired during the last five years on the ætiology, the treatment, and the prophylaxis of this affection, enable us to combat it very efficaciously.—*Ibid.* p. 11, 8th Nov. 1900.

19. In the contests of yesterday, the Radicals had every opportunity to make several additions to the exiguous gains which form so forlorn a commentary upon the fond hopes reposed by some in a Liberal revival.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 4th Oct. 1900.

20. It cannot be to the advantage of any Government to antagonise the thrifty classes.—*Ibid.* p. 4, 6th Oct. 1900.

21. We want to know whether, if Colonials have seats in our Parliament, Parliament itself may not become too vague, chaotic, and amorphous to be English at all.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 1st May 1900.

22. The officer was sent home, but returned to duty after changing his clothes, declaring that he felt none the worse for his too matutinal bath.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 27th April 1900.

23. They wished to use as mild and conciliatory measures as were possible in the pacification of the country, and to avoid all unnecessary exacerbation of the enmity of the people.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 17th Dec. 1900.

24. Every incident of the visit has been marked with the touch of the same sympathetic insight and divining tact which originally inspired it.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 27th April 1900.

25. Political upheavals and modern improvements have wiped away the major part of historical Paris.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 17th April 1900.

26. If the young Prince were once established in power, he would be in a position to contemn any enemies that he might have among those who had formed the entourage of his aunt.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 28th June 1900.

27. It was of course inevitable that a man of this psychic temper and these lofty principles should, in the capacity of a newspaper proprietor and leader-writer, make enemies by the score.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 14th April 1900.

28. They must not compel England to take measures not conducive to the independence and stability of China.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 30th March 1900.

29. The streets, once radiant with the glories of the electric light, were bathed in Cimmerian darkness after nine o'clock.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 20th March 1900.

30. The Palace of Electricity will be the marvellous cynosure of mechanical interest.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 14th April 1900.

31. Though perhaps neither side is impeccable in this matter, the burden of guilt lies far more on the shoulders of gentlemen opposite than upon those who are on these benches.—*House of Commons*, 6th Dec. 1900.

32. We not only do not give the same facilities for higher education as are afforded there, but in distributing and applying the Parliamentary vote we are labouring under difficulties which do not operate in those countries.—*Queensland Educational Journal*, p. 106, Sept. 1900.

33. This explanation has caused some uneasiness in France, and many placating expressions of goodwill to Russia in Germany, but we do not see any reason for rejecting the plain meaning of the words.—*Spectator*, p. 552, 27th Oct. 1900.

34. Feeling thus, it was surely a work of supererogation on his part to have produced the book in question.—*Daily Express*, p. 2, 14th May 1900.

35. Mr. Rose said it would not be just to the poor not to convict a man who was of a better class. He committed him to prison for one month, with hard labour.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 28th Dec. 1900.

36. It was done with the object of making the service accessible to young men who have all the qualities for military command save that now indispensable one, pecuniary fortune.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 13th Nov. 1901.

37. We are not quite sure that our countrymen are not minimising this Franco-Turkish affair too much.—*Spectator*, p. 689, 9th Nov. 1901.

38. The whole of the Persian Gulf, with its riparian tribes, is policed by our gunboats.—*Nineteenth Century*, p. 770, May 1900.

39. The Colonial Secretary's sheer virtuosity in debate has no necessary connection with the highest faculties of thought and action.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 1073, June 1900.

40. The whole of our party system is based upon a manifest lie and crying wrong, and the result is the de-ethicising of our public life.—*Ibid.* p. 930, June 1900.

41. Even now relief is found for the most complete discomfiture (that) political vaticinators ever met with in asserting that the enemy will make the country too hot for any other nation to live there.—*Ibid.* p. 758, Nov. 1900.

42. I do not at all fear being taken for an imaginative monster by a certain category of Englishmen, who would accept the idea of an England reduced to "a nest of swans upon a great pond."—*Ibid.* p. 150, Jan. 1901.

43. He is approaching within measurable distance of the melancholy catastrophe that overtook the too ambitious frog.—*Ibid.* p. 743, May 1900.

44. The due provision of these essentials must constitute the first care of the officer in command, all other considerations being necessarily subordinate to this major military need.—*Ibid.* p. 495, Sept. 1900.

45. But the head and front of Mr. P.'s offending has not this extent, and no more, though he very skilfully endeavours to make it appear so.—*Spectator*, p. 405, 29th Sept. 1900.

46. From this auspicious union springs Delia, the heroine of the story, a young lady whose "short upper lip was curved and haughty," while the lower was "a crumpled roseleaf waiting to be kissed by a lover temerarious enough to invade such a sanctuary."—*Ibid.* p. 58, 12th Jan. 1901.

47. England will lose the predominant position that the possession of coal has so long given her. But she is within measurable distance of losing this pre-eminence even now, owing to the discovery of coal in other countries.—*Ibid.* p. 232, 25th Aug. 1900.

48. It transformed her into one of those Christian virgins, whose influence was to change the erstwhile soul of the world.—DR. BINION, *Quo Vadis*, i. 194.

49. Mr. Crump has a large repertory of enttings on the subject of books, as well as of lines of poetry on other subjects, nor does their familiarity deter him from quoting them.—*Literature*, p. 407, 26th May 1900.

50. Distress has reached its apogee in the rice-growing lands, and in Raipore 35 per cent of the population are in receipt of State aid.—*Homeward Mail*, p. 630, 14th May 1900.

51. The converts from the other side, who came over to them, exacerbate their not unnatural suspicions.—RENAN, *Hist. Israel*, ii. 3.

52. "If Mr. Dombey will walk upstairs," said Mr. Blimber, "I shall be more than proud to show him the dominions of the drowsy god."—DICKENS, *Dombey and Son*, eh. xi.

53. But I have not yet seen it suggested that this difficulty may be lessened, if not overcome, not by increasing the pay of the private soldier, but by a substantial addition to the pay of the non-commissioned officer.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 17, July 1901.

54. Butter in the septentrional sense of the word did not exist.—*Ibid.* p. 337, Aug. 1900.

55. The history of Mr. Knox himself, yea even when he was witness to the facts, does not quadrate with the strict verity, but far otherwise.—*Ibid.* p. 222, Aug. 1900.

56. In his dealings with any religious organisations the ideal ruler acts quite independently of his own personal belief as to the truth or the falsity or the dubiety of their religious tenets.—*Ibid.* p. 476, April 1901.

CHAPTER IV.—BREVITY.

53. **Usefulness of Brevity.**—As a general rule brevity gives as much force to a sentence as diffuseness takes from it. A word that does no good does harm. "If a thought can be expressed in five words, there is a waste of strength in employing ten" (BAIN). Attention given to superfluous words represents a loss of attention that might have been given to the matter.

China must go forwards or go to pieces.

This short sentence is more pointed than the following, and it contains as much :—

China must bring herself up to date and adopt the methods and appliances of modern science, or submit to seeing her territory divided among the different nations of Europe.

54. I. The Choice of Words.—The most obvious, and yet the most difficult, mode of attaining brevity is to choose such words as express the greatest amount of meaning in the smallest space. This is the language of proverbs. The best-known quotations from distinguished authors are usually those that say the most in the fewest words :—

Thou knowest that Joab shed the blood of war in peace.—1 Kings ii. 5.

The virtuous woman eateth not the bread of idleness.—Prov. xxxi. 27.

The power of fortune is confessed by the miserable ; the happy ascribe all their success to merit.—SWIFT.

The passionate confidence of interested falsehood.—ADAM SMITH.

There are several good protections against temptation, but the surest is cowardice.—MARK TWAIN.

We owe consideration to the living, to the dead only truth.—VOLTAIRE.

Where snow falls there is freedom.—EMERSON. (Heat, by weakening the energies, predisposes men to political slavery.)

He makes no friend, who never made a foe.—TENNYSON.

The frontiers of England are the coasts of the enemy.—SIR JOHN FISHER.

The British army thinks these things ridiculous trivialities ; it does not think of glory, and therefore wins it.—*The Struggle in Natal*, by "Linesman."

Verbal logic drawing sterile conclusions from untested authority.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 19th Oct. 1900.

Elizabeth had resolutely declined to settle the succession to the Crown. She had no mind, she said, to be buried before her death.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 403.

The pretension of Spain to bar the gate of the west against mankind greatly provoked mankind to burst the bar.—*Ibid.* i. 382.

So sensible a republican as Blake could believe that the end of all monarchy was at hand ; but destiny mocked his dream.—*Ibid.* i. 573.

A great anti-Catholic association was formed under Lord George Gordon, a Protestant maniac, who ended by turning Jew.—*Ibid.* ii. 230.

To span that fatal arm of the sea (the Irish Channel) was harder than to overleap the Cheviots.—*Ibid.* ii. 142.

Henry VII. chose, not nobles for his ministers, but ecclesiastics, whose service, besides being devoted and intelligent, was cheap, since it could be paid by bishoprics.—*Ibid.* i. 299.

Every man is three men,—John as he is known to himself, John as he is known to his friends, and John as he is known to his Maker.—OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

Honesty is the best policy ; but he who is honest for that reason is not an honest man.—WHATELY.

God is on the side of big battalions, because He is on the side of foresight and intelligence. — H. W. WILSON, *Fortnightly Review*, p. 241, Aug. 1901.

It is impossible to argue with a prophet ; you can only disbelieve him.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 17th May 1901.

Let Rochefort write with vitriol if he pleases. If one does not read, vitriol is no worse than ink.—*Spectator*, p. 554, 27th Oct. 1900.

Recklessness in opposition is embarrassment in power. Unredeemed pledges are the bacilli of party disease.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 963, Dec. 1901.

Lord Wantage is a great loss ; but he had been a great gain, and what he had gained for us can never be lost.—FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE, quoted in *Edinburgh Review*, Jan. 1902.

The judge is condemned, where the guilty is acquitted.—*Proverb*.
The country which does not know how to punish disloyalty can never reckon upon the support of loyalty.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 3rd Feb. 1902.

55. II. Forms of Construction.—In the examples given below, the words enclosed in brackets show the longer form, in which the sentence may be supposed to have been expressed prior to condensation :—

(1) Using Abstract nouns for clauses :—

The *boldness* of Gama's manner (= Gama's manner was so bold that it) alarmed the King of Calicut, and made him submit to the Portuguese demands.

Mr. Casaubon's words had been quite reasonable ; yet they had given her a vague, instantaneous sense of *aloofness* on his part (=that his thoughts and pursuits were not in sympathy with her own).—GEORGE ELIOT.

(2) Condensing two sentences into one by means of apposition :—

Vasco da Gama, the celebrated Portuguese admiral (=was a celebrated Portuguese admiral, and) was the first to round the Cape of Good Hope.

He put all his prisoners to death—a cruel and barbarous act (=which was a cruel, etc.).

(3) Condensing two Co-ordinate sentences into one by using a participle or by omitting one of the verbs :—

Cæsar, having now completed the conquest of Gaul, determined (=had now completed the conquest of Gaul, and so he determined) to invade Britain.

Hannibal led his forces over the Alps into the plains (=and entered the plains) of Italy.

(4) Placing a noun before another noun or before an adjective, to avoid a periphrasis :—

Eye-service (=service done when there is some one to see it, but not otherwise).

Penny-wise and pound-foolish (=saving a slight expense, to incur a much heavier one in the long run).

Hat-box (a box for carrying a hat).

We may even have a noun qualified by two other nouns connected by *and*, as in the following example :—

Men who are *stock and dairy farmers* and plough their own land are most likely to be accepted.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 30th Nov. 1901.

It is questionable, however, whether such a compound as that italicised below, where two nouns connected by *and*, but preceded by an adjective that belongs to neither, are made to qualify a third noun, should be accepted :—

In China a *gigantic river and canal system*, laced across plains of extraordinary fertility, etc.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 927, May 1901. (Say “a gigantic system of rivers and canals.”)

(5) Using an adjective to express what would otherwise have to be expressed by a phrase or clause :—

Colonial Office (the office in which the affairs of the Colonies are administered).

The Liberal policy (the policy of the Liberal party).

Physical science (the science that treats of physics).

The evidence of language is irrefragable (=so conclusive that nothing can shake it).—MAX MÜLLER.

(6) Substituting a participle for a Subordinate clause :—

Pursued (=because he was pursued) on all sides, he was forced to surrender at last.

Slow rises worth by poverty oppressed.—POPE.

(When it is oppressed by poverty.)

The shepherd, having counted (=after he had counted) the sheep, left the field.

(7) Stating a fact by implication, instead of stating it explicitly and at full length :—

The spread of England's power to new continents is largely due to the adventurous spirit of her people.

This is shorter than saying :—

The people of England are of an adventurous spirit, and this is one of the chief causes that have led to the spread of her power to new continents.

(8) Giving a noun the form of a participle to avoid using a phrase :—

Landed aristocracy (owning large estates of land).

A gifted man (a man of unusual gifts or ability).

A strong-minded woman (a woman of unusual courage).

A one-eyed horse (a horse with only one eye).

(9) Forming Compound words :—

Geography is a mind-expanding subject (= a subject that expands the mind).

Red-hot (= so hot as to become red in colour).

He knew the Welsh tactics, how they loved to swoop down from cover upon the flanks of a slowly moving and *baggage-encumbered* army of invasion.—J. E. MORRIS, *Welsh Wars of Edward I.*

In the morning the coffin was carried in solemn state to the Capitol, crowds lining the thoroughfares in *grief-compelled* silence.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 18th Sept. 1901.

The French-Canadians are a race of children, happy, *good-natured*, *pleasure-loving*, *disappointment-dreading* children, and last night they were in deep despair.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 18th Sept. 1901.

(10) The use of prefixes and suffixes :—

His conduct was un-man-ly (= unworthy of a man).

His conduct was woman-ish (= worthy of a woman, but not worthy of a man).

He is a dull-ard (more than usually dull).

The ex-judge (man who was once a judge).

The exami-ee (person undergoing examination).

Absentee-ism (the habit of not living on one's estate).

Christen-dom (the aggregate of nations professing the Christian faith).

Critic-aster (an unworthy and incompetent critic).

Grievance-monger (one who makes a habit of complaining about some grievance).

To beauti-fy (to make beautiful). To dark-en (to make dark).

56. III. Metaphor.—Among the figures of speech conducive to brevity no mention need be made of Epigram and the Condensed Sentence, since of these figures brevity is the chief characteristic (§§ 11, 12). Some reference must, however, be made to Metaphor (§ 7), the usefulness of which in this capacity has been less generally recognised. A vigorous and well-chosen metaphor will sometimes express in a single word or phrase as much meaning as could be conveyed by a whole sentence worded in non-figurative language :—

Of the heavy sentence passed upon him (Bacon) by the Lords the greater part was remitted; and posterity, *bribed* by the splendid offerings of his intellect, has blotted out the rest.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 460.

As suddenly as the *vast waterspout* (the rebellion of Wat Tyler) had formed, it broke.—*Ibid.* i. 237.

He (Richard III.) had tried to *tune* public opinion through the pulpit, the feeble precursor of the press.—*Ibid.* i. 274.

Thomas Cromwell had overreached himself, and he found what it was to *play with a tiger*.—*Ibid.* i. 338.

The king (George II.), who rather shines as a patriot among the *vultures* of faction, stood by his faithful servant.—*Ibid.* ii. 186.

With difficulty he persuaded Congress, instead of a local militia which was always *moulting*, to set on foot a Continental army under regular discipline.—*Ibid.* ii. 217.

In the train of the Mahratta confederacy had *provled* a jackal horde of Pindarees, freebooters of the vilest kind, whose extinction followed in due course.—*Ibid.* ii. 421.

These attempts at reform excited something akin to horror among the *moss-grown* scholars, who saw their venerable curriculum in danger of change.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 961, June 1900.

He forces himself, his trade, and the propagandists of his *mushroom* religion on the Celestials by violent methods, which are forbidden in the serene ethics of Confucius.—*Ibid.* p. 514, Sept. 1900.

The British fleet is the *insurance department* of a world-empire and its trade.—*Ibid.* p. 709, April 1901.

The deferred accounts are coming in for the trivial fanaticisms of our party brawls and the folly of our *india-rubber* foreign policy.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 5, 13th April, 1900.

57. Offences against Brevity.—The four chief offences against brevity are—(1) tautology, (2) pleonasm or redundancy, (3) verbosity, and (4) prolixity.

(1) **Tautology.**—This consists in employing superfluous words in the same grammatical relation.¹ In the following examples the superfluous words are those enclosed in parentheses:—

In the Attic commonwealth it was the privilege (and birthright) of every citizen (and poet) to rail (aloud and) in public.—
SWIFT.

Integrity hath many advantages over dissimulation (and deceit): it is much the (plainer and) easier, much the safer (and more secure) way of dealing in the world; it has less of trouble (and difficulty), of entanglement (and perplexity), of danger (and hazard) in it; it is the shortest (and nearest) way to our end (carrying us thither in a straight line), and will hold out (and last) longest.—TILLOTSON.

(2) **Redundancy or Pleonasm.**—This consists in employing superfluous words that are not in the same grammatical relation. The superfluous words in the following examples are shown in parentheses:—

¹ This definition of Tautology has been adopted from Bain's *Rhetoric and Composition*, and the two examples under this head have been selected from the same source.

He had the (entire) monopoly of the whole trade.

He (voluntarily) offered to stand security.

I must decline (to accept) your offer.

The judge ordered that the property be restored (again) to its rightful owners.

He has made a (new) discovery.

Charles V. of Spain and Francis I. of France (mutually) encouraged each other to extirpate the heretics.

I went home full of (a great many) serious reflections.—*Guardian*, No. 34.

If he happens to have any leisure (upon his hands).—*Spectator*, No. 43.

The everlasting club treats all other clubs with (an eye of) contempt.—*Spectator*, No. 73.

Let them throw as much (foul) dirt at me as they please.—*Craftsman*, No. 232.

The dawn is overcast ; (the morning lowers, And heavily in clouds brings in the day.)—ADDISON.

In the late Franco-German war it is difficult to say who were the (first) aggressors.

Over-expression is not only a loss to energy, but by leading to wrong suggestion may become a bar to perspicuity :—

A square is a four-sided figure having all its sides equal (and parallel) and all its angles right angles.

The words *and parallel* must not be added ; for they might suggest that the sides of a right-angled figure could be equal without being parallel.

(3) **Verbosity.**—This consists in using a multiplicity of words, by the weight of which the sentiment, far from being strengthened, is, like David in Saul's armour, encumbered and oppressed :—

For seeing those things which are equal must needs have all one measure, if I cannot but wish to receive all good, even as much at every man's hand as any man can wish unto his own soul, how should I look to have any part of my desire herein satisfied, unless myself be careful to satisfy the like desire which is in other men ?—HOOKER.

This is a very languid and clumsy way of saying :

I cannot expect to have my own desires satisfied, if I pay no need to those of other men.

Or we might quote the terse couplet of Pope :—

His safety must his liberty restrain :
All join to guard what each desires to gain.

(4) **Prolixity.**—A tedious style clogged with twaddling details, amongst which it is not easy to catch the main point at a glance, is said to be *prolix*,—a fault quite distinct from wordi-

ness or verbosity. In prolixity it is not redundancy of words that harasses the reader, but the enumeration of unnecessary facts :—

- (1) On hearing this news he got off his chair, went out of the room, took down his hat, brushed it, put on his greatcoat, went round to the stable, saddled his horse, mounted, and, after giving a few directions to the cook, rode off into the town.

A prolix way of saying :—

On hearing this news he rode off at once into the town.

- (2) Last year a paper was brought here from England called a dialogue between the Archbishop of Canterbury and Mr. Higgins, which we ordered to be burnt by the common hangman, as it well deserved, though we have no more to do with His Grace of Canterbury than you have with the Archbishop of Dublin, whom you tamely suffer to be abused openly and by name by that paltry scoundrel of an observator; and lately upon an affair wherein he had no concern, I mean the business of the missionary of Drogheda, wherein our excellent prelate was engaged and did nothing but according to law and discretion.—SWIFT.

What can we make of such a sentence as this? A number of paltry details strung together in any order without any point or purpose.

58. Short Sentence between two Long Ones.—It is often expedient to wedge a short and pithy sentence in between two long ones, especially if these are in antithesis to each other. In such a case the little word *but* is hardly sufficient to express the transition from one side of a question to its opposite :—

Without force or opposition, chivalry subdued the fierceness of pride and power; it obliged sovereigns to submit to the soft collar of social esteem, compelled stern authority to submit to elegance, and gave a dominating vanquisher of laws to be subdued by manners. *But now all this is to be changed.* All the pleasing illusions which made power gentle and obedience liberal, which harmonised the different shades of life, and which by a bland assimilation incorporated into politics the sentiments that beautify and soften private society, are to be dissolved by this new conquering empire of light and reason. *All the decent drapery of life is to be rudely torn off.* All the superannuated ideas furnished from the wardrobe of a moral imagination, which the heart owns and the understanding ratifies, as necessary to cover the defects of our naked shivering nature and to raise it to dignity in our own estimation, are to be exploded as a ridiculous, absurd, and antiquated fashion.—BURKE, *Reflections on the French Revolution.*

59. Over-brevity.—“I labour to be brief,” said Horace, “and become obscure.” Perspicuity should be the first consideration, and this must not be sacrificed to brevity :—

Lady Ellesmere. Without translating, gentlemen must not talk Latin, nor smoke, nor swear, in the presence of ladies.

Ellesmere. She thinks now she has been very epigrammatic. The men may swear, if they translate it? The commonest form of muddlement in sentences is occasioned by the endeavour to be brief. You apply two or three nominatives to one verb, or two or three verbs to one nominative, which do not agree together, if you look at them separately. What she did mean was,—that in the presence of ladies men must not smoke without permission, must not swear at all, and must not quote Latin without translating it.—HELPS'S *Realmak*.

60. Condensation.—In condensing a sentence, care must be taken that the shortened sentence expresses precisely the same point as the original:—

I have been told that, if a man that was born blind could obtain to have his sight for but only one hour, during his whole life, and should, at the first opening of his eyes, fix his sight upon the sun when it was in its full glory, either at the rising or setting of it, he would be so transported and amazed, and so admire the glory of it, that he would not willingly turn his eyes from that first ravishing object, to behold all the other various beauties this world could present to him.¹—IZAAC WALTON.

This has been abridged as follows:—

It is said that, if a man born blind could obtain his sight for but one hour, the glory of the sunset or the sunrise, should he happen to behold it, would entrance him beyond all the other beauties of the world.

This abridgment, however, appears to miss the point. It implies that, after comparing the glory of the sunset or the sunrise with the other beautiful objects of the world, he would be more entranced by the sunset or sunrise than by anything else; whereas Izaak Walton's meaning is that he would not take the trouble even to look at anything else. We should therefore condense the passage in the following way:—

I have been told that, if a man born blind could obtain his sight for but one hour, and should happen to fix his first gaze upon the rising or setting sun, he would be so transported by the brilliancy of that one spectacle, that he would have no curiosity to see any of the other beauties that this world could present to him.

61. Brevity sometimes unsuitable.—As in the case of Simplicity already described (§ 52), brevity is sometimes rightly avoided in favour of some form of circumlocution, either on

¹ Bain's *Rhetoric and Composition*, p. 39. The abridged version which I have quoted is by the same author.

account of the gravity of the subject, or for the sake of the argument:—

- (1) Bishoprics were treated by statesmen as political patronage for which ecclesiastics waited and intrigued in the antechambers of power. Even moral reputation was not strictly required. *The author of Swift's poems* narrowly missed a mitre.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 162.

“Swift's poems” are notorious for the indelicate passages that occur in them. There is, therefore, a good deal of point in using the circumlocution “the author of Swift's poems” instead of simply saying “Swift.”

- (2) The possession of Calais served to keep up yearnings for conquest, and to misdirect the policy of the *island-monarchy*.—*Ibid.* i. 262.

It would have been shorter and simpler to say “the policy of *England*”; but there is a great deal of force in the phrase *the island-monarchy*. It suggests that England's real interest lay, not in Continental conquest, but in making the best use of her insular position and keeping clear of foreign entanglements.

- (3) The sentiments of Cromwell were widely different. He wished to restore in all essentials that ancient constitution which the majority of the people had always loved, and for which they now pined. The course afterwards taken by Monk was not open to Cromwell. The memory of one terrible day separated the *great regicide* for ever from the house of Stuart.—MACAULAY, *History of England*, i. 133.

Observe the italicised words. The periphrasis used in substitution for “Cromwell” explains what it was that separated him for ever from the house of Stuart, viz. the execution of Charles I.

- (4) The evidence taken in India not only from the lay witnesses, but the native pundits or ecclesiastical experts, was apparently of a contradictory character. To quote the words of counsel, they appeared to have fashioned their evidence according to the particular side in whose behalf they had been summoned to appear.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 15th Nov. 1901.

The second sentence contains an innuendo that the witnesses had given evidence according as they had been tutored or paid. But the counsel avoids saying this bluntly.

- (5) Sacred majesty, dethroned by the profane hands of rebels and heretics, was received with open arms by Louis, treated with generosity the most profuse and delicate, installed in the royal residence of St. Germain, and provided with a magnificent income wrung, like the rest of the grand monarch's magnificence, from the starving peasantry of France.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 78.

The vein of sarcasm that runs through this stately period conveys to the reader's mind a sense of the contempt that the writer feels

both for the French king and his guest, the English ex-king. This could not have been expressed in the sentence, "James II., having lost his crown in England, fled to France, where he was received with great magnificence and cordiality by Louis XIV." And yet this short sentence gives the substance of what is stated in the long one.

- (6) In spite of wire-fencing and depressed agriculture, the ancient and honourable sport in which the foxes take, literally, a leading part continues to flourish."—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 12th Sept. 1900.

Here the writer throws a little mock-dignity over fox-hunting by calling it "the ancient and honourable sport in which foxes take a leading part."

- (7) He has visited all Europe,—not to survey the sumptuousness of palaces or the stateliness of temples; not to make accurate measurements of the remains of ancient grandeur, nor to form a scale of the curiosity of modern art, nor to collect medals, or collate manuscripts:—but to dive into the depths of dungeons; to plunge into the infection of hospitals; to survey the mansions of sorrow and pain; to take the gauge and dimensions of misery, depression, and contempt; to remember the forgotten, to attend to the neglected, to visit the forsaken, and compare and collate the distresses of all men in all countries.—BURKE.

This finely-worded sentence, though it contains some repetitions and might have been expressed in fewer words, is better adapted than a short one could have been to the dignity of the subject,—the career of Howard the Philanthropist.

Exercises on Chapter IV.

I. *Eliminate any superfluous words that you may find in the following:—*

1. They believed that Her Majesty's visit to Ireland was wholly devoid of all political, of all party, significance.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 17th March 1900.

2. I for my part claim a restitution in full of every penny paid by me into the fund, having been inveigled thereto under what were obviously false pretences.—*Pioneer Mail*, p. 22, 4th May 1900.

3. Owing to the British workshops being blocked with work, certain Indian railway boards found it necessary, as locomotives could not be obtained here, to place a few limited orders in America.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 1st June 1900.

4. We cannot ignore in silence the fact that Germans in England, as well as throughout the British Empire, enjoy the freest field for every possible development of their activity.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 10th Dec. 1900.

5. I prefer a real historical romance such as this, told (it may be) in somewhat antique Old English, to photographs of thieves' slums and the monkey-tricks of schoolboys.—F. HARRISON, *Fortnightly Review*, p. 71, Jan. 1891.

6. We are disposed to overlook the gains (that have accrued to us in this war), attention having been so much exclusively directed to its losses and disappointments.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 618, Oct. 1900.

7. The Jubilee year was first instituted by Pope Boniface VIII. in 1300 A. D. for the remission of sins and the punishment thereof to all the faithful who should confess, take the Sacrament, etc.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 12th May 1899.

8. Nineteen centuries ago Jerusalem was hailed as being the Holy City of God and its church as being the Gate of Heaven. Yet, nevertheless, its chief priests were united in agreeing that it was not expedient to include Jesus of Nazareth within its fold.—*Church Gazette*, p. 49, 29th April 1899.

9. In my opinion, it is not possible to find any complete solution of this great problem all at once; but if we gradually approach it step by step, by painstaking inquiry and careful experiment, we may do something at all events to reduce the evil.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 23rd March 1899.

10. Having always had his eye on the Presidency, he therefore eagerly seized such a favourable opportunity of discrediting the members of his Government.—*Ibid.* p. 11, 24th April 1900.

11. The price of coal is abnormally high; it is almost absolutely certain that it will advance still more before the pendulum of trade and industrial activity has reached its farthest outward swing.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 9th May 1900.

12. In South Australia, as the too temerarious Lord Tennyson so rashly boasted, they have Agnes Neale, who has been styled the Adelaide Proctor of Australia.—*Literature*, p. 255, 31st March 1900.

13. It was, for example, declared that in this war Great Britain has resorted to "the arming and mobilisation of savages," which, it is added, "is a notorious matter of common repute throughout the world."—*Nineteenth Century*, p. 748, May 1900.

14. Humanly speaking, he had no doubt that the report was true, though he would have liked to have had better authority for it.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 22nd May 1900.

15. The new council again reaffirms the fact that the main issues of our imperial mission are not matters of partisanship.—*Daily Mail*, p. 4, 11th April 1900.

16. A white city of canvas will rise at midsummer next year, in which, in July, six thousand of our visitors from over-sea and from our own land will be accommodated.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 352, Oct. 1899.

17. This route is equally as short as that previously proposed, *via* Orenburg-Turgai, and is more productive.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 18th Sept. 1900.

18. The lions, zebra, and lynx, which the Emperor entrusted to us as presents for the King and for the Zoological Gardens, safely reached the coast in good condition.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 21st Oct. 1901.

19. The greater luxury and expense of living make marriage less possible than it was when life was simpler and less complex.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 636, Oct. 1900.

20. Nevertheless mankind refused to allow its natural human sympathies to be deflected by political and philosophical considerations of this kind.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 351, Oct. 1900.

21. They live for the most part a life of idleness and luxury, whereas I, Abdur Rahman, believe that there is no greater sin than allowing our minds and bodies to be useless and unoccupied in a useful way.—*Ibid.* p. 362, Oct. 1900.

II. Correct any examples of over-brevity that you may find in the following sentences, so as to make either the construction more complete or the meaning more perspicuous:—

1. The West Hartlepool steamship *Wolviston*, which towed the *Pavonia* to safety, arrived in Dartmouth Harbour yesterday from the Azores.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 2nd March 1899.

2. Those differences will grow smaller and capable of settlement by discussion just in proportion as civilised nations regard themselves as possessors of a common heritage and engaged in a common work, from which all civilised nations equally benefit.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 169, Feb. 1901.

3. Mr. Sharp, who accompanied him for the greater part of the way, is collaborating in the book.—*Literature*, p. 203, 14th April 1900.

4. The people of Shan-tung are very different from the Cantonese, though they dress alike. They speak, I am told, a dialect entirely dissimilar. As in the South, they believe they are far superior to Europeans in culture and civilisation.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 18th Sept. 1900.

5. As against the few that have failed, many of our generals have done exceedingly well. Only we have not heard so much of them—if at all.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 619, Oct. 1900.

6. The investigation of such questions of fact seems to require specialising far beyond school possibility or desirability.—*School World*, p. 406, Nov. 1900.

7. Heaven forbid that I or any one should deny to the most habitual of vagrants the power to impress even the case-hardened listener by fiction, which is a good deal stranger than truth.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 955, Dec. 1900.

8. But what has happened in the sequel? Pekiū has not been razed to the earth and the plain sown with salt where it stood.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, Jan. 15, 1901.

9. Meantime Queen Margaret was coming back from France to join her husband. In spite of Barnet, she was able to collect a party on her landing.—*Short History of England*, p. 170.

10. I strongly maintained a contrary view, asserting that both Constantinople and the shaking of English rule in her vast Asiatic empire were the aims of Muscovite policy.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 856, Nov. 1899.

11. It would be detrimental to the interests of their countrymen who are shareholders in the company. Yet the continuance of the monopoly is equally prejudicial to the larger number of their compatriots who are not.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 3rd Aug. 1899.

12. He asked merely to be allowed to see the documents (in Dublin Castle) down to the same period as Mr. Froude and Mr. Lecky.—*Ibid.* p. 11, 1st July, 1899.

13. The projected expedition was to smash Sherkeleh and catch or hunt Abdullah out of the Soudan; following this, Darfur if necessary.—*Ibid.* p. 5, 19th May, 1899.

14. On the broader question of imperial defence Sir George Clarke touches only to define the functions of the various regular and auxiliary forces.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 353, April 1900.

15. Three writers contributed a series of articles, which were collected into the permanent form of a book.—*Educational Review*, Madras, p. 41, Jan. 1900.

16. The course which he intends to pursue is perfectly fair to all the parties involved, although it leaves public curiosity where the strange discovery found it.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 4th Aug. 1900.

17. When the House of Commons met, the king said that it contained not more than forty members, whom he would not himself have chosen. In the Lords, though not Tory principles, the conservatism of wealth, rank, and privilege would prevail.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 58.

18. The child was sitting on the table, her thin black cotton legs hanging down, the toes turned in. She wore a long white apron, tied behind in a bow.—BARONESS VON HUTTEN, *Marred in Making*.

19. Our Parliament represents our own people, neither the people of India nor of the Colonies.—DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE, *Empire Review*, p. 7, Feb. 1901.

20. The top of the Pharos might be descried a hundred miles.—F. WALT, *The Wonders of the Deep*.

21. The astute cultivation of Turkey and its rulers, as practised by the German emperor, cannot fail to fill us with regretful apprehension.—*Empire Review*, p. 708, July 1901.

22. We have won our position, the maintenance of Her Majesty's flag in this country. That was number one; and number two was equal rights to the civilised man south of the Zambesi.—Quoted in *Empire Review*, p. 31, Feb. 1901.

23. One of the chief difficulties is of course the smooth and efficient working of the Dual Monarchy. The Hungarians naturally enough do not appreciate being yoked to a kingdom in a state of Parliamentary anarchy.—*Spectator*, p. 159, 2nd Feb. 1901.

24. He begged to know further particulars of what he was indebted to his brother; but was too angry with Lydia to send any message to her.—JANE AUSTEN, *Pride and Prejudice*, ch. i.

25. At the Royal Academy there is what we may call a full measure of pictures,—a measure pressed down and overflowing; at the New Gallery a rather meagre "special selection" of Rosetti's, upon what principle made it is difficult to say.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 189, Feb. 1898.

26. It is a remarkable fact that though probably there were more writers of Provençal poetry during these two centuries than there ever were in a similar period in any other land, they have not left a single masterpiece: they have vanished and made no sign.—R. S. WATSON.

27. In another column there appears an article discussing the influence conflict between the United States and Spain would have on British commerce.—*Daily Telegraph*, 18th April 1898.

28. In the great railway, which is being constructed not so much in the interests of trade as in civilisation, he sees nothing but foolish expenditure.—*Lord Curzon's Speech*, quoted in *Times Weekly*, 4th March 1898.

29. The United States railway magnates have settled their own differences by bringing the Trans-Continental lines under the community of interests' plan.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 16th Nov. 1901.

30. Certain other enthusiasts seized on the opportunity, when he was enfeebled mentally by physical ailments, to compel him to alter one of his hymns, so that it might teach, not what he meant, but they desired.—*Church Gazette*, p. 96, 13th May 1899.

31. The recollections of what they (the Anglo-Saxons) had been, and to what they were now reduced, continued, down to the reign of Edward III., to keep open the wounds which the Conquest had inflicted.—*SCOTT'S Ivanhoe*, ch. i.

32. This expenditure does not come out of the £11,000 per annum which is the City's allowance to every Lord Mayor, as the Chief Magistrate bears only half the cost of the show, the other half being equally divided between the two sheriffs.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 12th Feb. 1900.

33. The Divisional Court decided that he was liable for succession with respect to the Blackmoor Estate, Hants.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 22nd Nov. 1901.

34. The Russian casualties were in excess of the 'enemy's, but they were mostly slightly wounded.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 10th July 1900.

35. Does the noble marquis mean, when he was alluding to the question two centuries ago, that he was dealing with the question of licensing boards, which troubled our ancestors remarkably little?—*Ibid.* p. 7, 15th May 1901.

36. There is never wanting a set of evil instruments, who either out of mad zeal, private hatred, or filthy lucre are always ready.—*SWIFT, Sermon on False Witness.*

37. He lamented the fatal mistake the world had been so long in using silkworms.—*Ibid. Voyage to Laputa.*

38. The first project was to shorten discourse by cutting polysyllables into one.—*Ibid.*

39. He sees or hears that neighbours and relatives who have gone to the mines return in a state of anger and disgust, little better in pocket than they went away.—*Spectator*, p. 979, 21st Dec. 1901.

40. He also worked on most important public business, sitting as chairman of the Indian Railways Committee, a long and important investigation.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 252, Feb. 1898.

41. We do not blame, indeed commend, him for scrutinising very narrowly every representation made to him.—*Spectator*, p. 1020, 28th Dec. 1901.

42. Besides Shylock, he (Kean) excelled in Richard III., Othello, Hamlet, and Lear.—*SIDNEY LEE, Life of Shakespeare*, p. 338.

43. It will be said with truth that there is a great deal of difference between using guns with a defensive force and with an attacking force.—*Spectator*, p. 78, 18th Jan. 1902.

44. Mr. Cox gives a list of policies, which may be said to have

run their natural course, by this being meant that the expectation of life is exactly fulfilled.—*Ibid.* p. 95, 18th Jan. 1902.

45. In the first instance the military did not take sufficiently into account the difference between the treatment of women and children and soldiers.—*Ibid.* p. 315, 1st March 1902.

III. Condense the following sentences either by shortening some phrase, or by recasting the whole:—

1. In defiance of all this, they make their selection in favour of the deplorable cheerlessness and dreariness of their own apartment to the airy, spacious, well-warmed wards of a hospital.—ΑΥΤΟΥΝ.

2. To talk to a man of moral corruption to elevate himself by contemplating the abstract conception of holiness, is somewhat a similar absurdity as to ask a man born blind to admire the beauty of colour.—*Contemporary Review*, p. 404, July 1869.

3. The truth of it is, there is nothing in history which is so improving to the reader as those accounts which we meet with of the deaths of eminent persons, and of their behaviour in that dreadful season.—*Spectator*, No. 289.

4. Whatever it can be clearly seen that parents ought to do or forbear for the interests of children, the law is warranted, if it is able, in compelling to be done or forborne, and is generally bound to do so.—J. S. MILL.

5. The results of administrative economy in the eastern Colonies (of Australia) have made themselves felt with satisfactory effect.—*Times Weekly*, 7th Jan. 1898.

6. During our stay in town one young man had his cheek cut open; another his under-lip nearly taken off; a third his scalp cut in two; and a fourth the tip of his nose so thoroughly excised that the end of his nasal organ lay upon the ground.—HENRY MAYHEW.

7. Being himself accustomed to smart business methods, the Colonist finds the circumlocution and fertility of obstructive resources characteristic of English bureaucracy most depressing.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 576, June 1900.

8. On the other hand, many elements are fighting in his favour, and his ultimate triumph is quite within the region of practical politics.—*Daily Express*.

9. The greater number of the works produced by the Pre-Raphaelite brotherhood were not strongly medieval in feeling.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 194, Feb. 1898.

10. A severe and tyrannical exercise of power must become a matter of necessary policy with kings, when their subjects are imbued with such principles as justify and authorise rebellion.

11. Proposals having for their object to secure increased strength and efficiency in the army, and for amending the present conditions of military service, will be submitted to you.—*Queen's Speech*, 8th Feb. 1898.

12. Many of our men are city-born, and England is not a very large country. We went out to a region where the principal number of our enemies were born in a very large country, and it is not untrue to say that practically the vision, the ordinary sight, of our

enemy was two miles at least further than the average sight of the English who were fighting against them." — Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 12th Nov. 1900.

13. By reason of the original diversity of taste, capacity, and constitution observable in the human species, and the still greater variety which habit and fashion have introduced in these particulars, it is impossible to propose any plan of happiness which will succeed with all, or any method of life which is universally eligible or practicable.—PALEY.

14. In 1475 Edward invaded France to prosecute his claim to the French throne. In order to raise money for the expedition the king had recourse to a new plan. Wealthy persons were called upon to subscribe sums of varying amounts. These subscriptions were called Benevolences or good-will gifts. They were, however, far from deserving the name.—*Short History of England*, pp. 170, 171.

15. Further investigations on the subject of homing pigeons have a peculiar interest for students of animal intelligence, who are still uncertain as to the exact part played by education, and on the other hand by the birds' comparatively small brain, in those wonderful feats of travel that still remain unexplained.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 390, March 1900.

16. I know of no evil under the sun so great as the abuse of the understanding, and yet there is no one vice more common. It has diffused itself through both sexes and all qualities of mankind; and there is scarcely any person to be found who is not more concerned for the reputation of wit and sense than of honesty and virtue. But this unhappy affectation of being wise rather than honest, witty than good-natured, is the source of most of the ill habits of life.—STEELE, *Spectator*, No. 6.

17. For this reason Sir Roger was saying last night, that he was of opinion none but men of fine parts deserve to be hanged. The reflections of such men are so delicate upon all occurrences which they are concerned in, that they should be exposed to more than ordinary infamy and punishment, for offending against such quick admonitions as their own souls give them, and blunting the fine edge of their minds in such a manner that they are no more shocked at vice and folly than men of slower capacities.—*Ibid.*

18. In the next place I would recommend this paper to the daily perusal of those gentlemen, whom I cannot but consider as very good brothers and allies; I mean the fraternity of spectators, who live in the world without having anything to do in it, and either by the affluence of their fortunes or laziness of their dispositions have no other business with the rest of mankind but to look upon them.—ADDISON, *Spectator*, No. 10.

19. Avoid disputes as much as possible. In order to appear easy and well-bred in conversation, you may assure yourself that it requires more wit as well as more good-humour to improve than to contradict the notions of another; but if you are at any time obliged to enter into an argument, give your reasons with the utmost coolness and modesty, two things which scarce ever fail of making an impression on the hearers. Besides if you are neither dogmatical, nor show either by your actions or words that you are

full of yourself, all will then more heartily rejoice at your victory. Nay, should you be pinched in your argument, you may make your retreat with a very good grace. You were never positive, and are now glad to be better informed.—*Spectator*, No, 197, 16th Oct. 1711.

CHAPTER V.—IMPRESSIVENESS.

62. Impressiveness described.—Impressiveness is that quality of composition which stimulates the attention of the reader without exacting an effort. Another name given to this quality is “point,” because by a judicious use of language it brings into prominence the main point which the writer desires to establish.

Such an effect is not necessarily produced by perspicuity or by any of the other qualities previously described; nor is it desirable that it should be. Impressiveness should vary with the relative importance of the several parts of which a sentence or paragraph is composed. Some parts are intended only for a temporary purpose; and when that purpose has been served, they can be put aside and forgotten. If the impression that they make is faint and vanishes rapidly from the memory, this is rather a gain than a loss; for the mind is then open to receive a more lasting impression respecting those points to which more importance is attached.

In advertisements and public notices attention is directed to the principal word or words by the size, the prominence, and sometimes the colour, of the print. In oral composition—that is, in conversation or in oratory—attention can be aroused by the modulations of the voice, by greater loudness or distinctness in the utterance of particular words, and sometimes by gestures of the body. In written composition no such helps are available. In this we have to depend solely on the silent power of language,—the forcibleness of the word itself, its position in the sentence, its antithesis with some other word, or any other rhetorical device that can be used for this purpose. To show what these devices are is the object of the present chapter.¹

¹ Other terms used to denote this quality are Emphasis, Energy, Vivacity. “Impressiveness” is the term selected by Bain, “Vivacity” by Campbell, “Energy” by Whately. Blair gives no separate treatment to this quality, and hence he has no particular name for it. “Emphasis” does not denote the quality so much as a means of producing it.

SECTION 1.—EMPHASIS BY CONSTRUCTION.

63. "It is," "it was."—These introductory phrases are much used for giving prominence to the word or words that immediately follow:—

It was only when he wanted to punish the French king for helping the Scots and for receiving David at his court, that he brought forward the claim.—RANSOME'S *Short History of England*, p. 112.

It is the difficulty of the task which compels us to wait with so much anxiety for the result.—*Daily Mail*, p. 4, 8th Feb. 1900.

While the soldiers of the triumphant Allies are looting the capital at large at the expense of the irresponsible and unoffending multitude, *it is* the Secret City, the source and origin of evil, that has been spared.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 4, 27th Aug. 1900.

It was with the approval of Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain that the Secretary of the Local Government Board withdrew from the Money Lending Bill the schedule fixing a maximum rate of interest.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 28th June 1900.

64. **Auxiliary word repeated.**—If in a series of particulars we wish to give equal emphasis to each word, phrase, or clause of which the series is made up, we can do so by repeating the conjunction, article, preposition, or auxiliary verb before each of them instead of mentioning it only once before the first. By this means we separate each term in the series from every other term, and thus give more time for the mind of the reader to dwell upon it:—

Now, brethren, if I come unto you speaking with tongues, what shall I profit you, except I shall speak to you *either by* revelation, *or by* knowledge, *or by* prophesying, *or by* doctrine.—1 Cor. xiv. 6.

This war is either a just and great cause to be supported with all our might, or a stupendous crime to be repudiated root and branch, *in its* origin, *in its* conduct, and *in* the issue upon which the nation, believing in the justice of its cause, is inexorably resolved.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 17th July 1900.

Neither the soldiers nor the public will ever forget the sailors and marines who fought by their side. *They have* marched, *they have* climbed, *they have* fought, *they have* shot with the best of them. *Their* endurance, *their* resourcefulness, *their* cheerful quickness have proved that *neither in* physique, *nor in* nerve, *nor in* handiness, *nor in* keenness are they one whit inferior to the soldiers at their best.—*Chamberlain's Speech*, 9th Nov. 1900.

Granted the constant effort to stifle inquiry, *granted* the frequent occurrence of scandals too rank to be concealed, *granted* such tell-tale facts as the shocking mismanagement which cost the lives of seven thousand poor fellows in Madagascar, *granted* proved extravagance where no fraud is suspected,—is it

unfair to suggest a doubt whether, if it were put to the test, the French army would prove much more sound to-day than it proved in 1870?—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 554, June 1900.

Catholicity should embody all scientific truth and all the religious truths held by all forms of belief, including the beauties and noble precepts of the old Paganism, which were too quickly and carelessly thrown aside.—*Ibid.* p. 482, May 1900.

The energy of the sentence last quoted would be enhanced by repeating the word *too*: “too quickly and too carelessly thrown aside.”

65. “And this,” “and that.”—The use of this phrase gives additional point to the word or words that follow, because it separates them from what has gone before :—

In any event China must wake up, *and that* soon.—*Literature*, p. 312, 21st April 1900.

The Premier credited the late Treasurer with effecting vast economies without impairing the efficiency of the public services.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 8th Aug. 1900.

It will greatly improve the energy of the sentence last quoted if we say “with effecting vast economies, *and this* without impairing the efficiency,” etc. On grounds of euphony alone (to say nothing of the claims of impressiveness) the phrase “with effecting,” etc. should be separated from the phrase “without impairing,” etc.

66. Recapitulation by “these,” “such.”—A series of subjects or clauses can be recapitulated by the use of pronouns like “these” or “such.” This is done partly for the sake of emphasis and partly to prevent the reader from losing the clue :—

Intellect, imagination, power of expression, humour, taste, truth to life, and truth to human nature,—*these* are not the qualities which to-day make a writer popular.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 280, Feb. 1898.

That this set of plants has a square stem, while that is always round in section; that one has pale, and another vivid blossoms,—*such* things have long been known and used for purposes of classification.—*Literature*, p. 439, 19th April 1899.

67. “Even.”—This adverb is used to introduce what is not expected, or what is less expected than something else. When it is used in its right place, it adds much to the energy of the sentence :—

I have made several discoveries, which appear new *even* to those who are versed in critical learning.—ADDISON.

The task of construction, no easy matter in countries where navvies and platelayers are to be found on every hand, was difficult indeed where men of seven different languages were employed in the fitting shops, when every platelayer had to

be taugh his task, when the sun blazed overhead in a sky of fire, and the sand burnt beneath your feet like the ashes of a furnace.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 328, April 1900.

The vigour of the sentence last quoted is impaired by the want of the word *even* in the first line, “no easy matter even in countries,” etc.

68. “Only.”—This adverb, when placed before a conjunction or a preposition, adds much to the force of the words that follow, provided that its presence in such a connection is justified by the sense :—

The nearest approach to acceptance of the Chinese proposal is the permission granted by Russia to M. de Giers to start on the journey, if—and *only if*—he receives a sure guarantee that it will be absolutely without danger.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 4, 13th Aug. 1900.

In the opinion of the reformers the evil has a diversity of causes, and can be remedied *only by* the application of as many cures.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 23rd Feb. 1901.

69. Correlative Conjunctions and Phrases.—Conjunctions and phrases which go in pairs add to the energy of a sentence, because the first keeps the mind in suspense till the second one has been mentioned :—

Either—or	Partly—partly	Not—but
Neither—nor	In the first place—	On the one hand—
Not only—but	in the second place	on the other hand
also	On this side—on	Though—yet
Both—and	that side	As—so
If—then	Here—there	Indeed—but

(1) The use of language is to conceal the thoughts.

To emphasise *conceal* we could say : “The use of language is *not* to express, *but* to conceal the thoughts.”

(2) I regard the prospects of peace with confidence.

To emphasise *confidence* we could say : “I regard the prospects of peace *not only* with hope, *but* with confidence.”

(3) He is both a fool and a knave.

To emphasise *knave* we could say : “He is *not only* a fool, *but also* a knave.”

SECTION 2.—EMPHASIS BY POSITION.

70. Importance of Position.—The placing of words in a sentence resembles in some degree the disposing of figures in a picture. As the principal figure in a picture ought to have that situation which will first catch the eye of the spectator, so the emphatic word in a sentence ought to be so placed that it will catch the attention of the reader on the first perusal of the sentence.

In a language like ours, that has retained very few inflections, the construction, and consequently the sense, depend to a very large extent on the order of the words; and hence we have not much freedom of choice as to where a word should be placed so as to give it greater force. Nevertheless, some freedom still exists, and we have now to consider what is the best use to be made of it for the purpose named.

71. Inversion of Normal Order.—Emphasis may be given to a word by placing it out of the normal order. A word so placed excites surprise, and thereby attracts more attention. But no inversion must be made, if it obscures the meaning or offends the ear.

(1) The Object placed before its verb instead of after it:—

Direct object:—

Among many nations there was no king like Solomon, who was beloved of his God: nevertheless even *him* did outlandish women cause to sin.—Neh. xiii. 26.

The sorrow for the dead is the only sorrow from which we refuse to be divorced. *Every other wound* we seek to heal, *every other affliction* to forget; but *this wound* we consider it a duty to keep open, *this affliction* we cherish and brood over in solitude.—WASHINGTON IRVING.

The *forests* Henry, having the family passion for the chase, refuses to resign.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 58.

A *minister* of his extortion Rufus found in Ranulf Flambard, a clever and knavish priest.—*Ibid.* v. 45.

Indirect Object:—

They held their peace, and glorified God, saying, Then *to the Gentiles also* hath God granted repentance unto life.—Acts xi. 18.

(2) The Complement placed before its verb instead of after it:—

Great is Diana of the Ephesians.—Acts xix. 28.

Dust thou art, and unto dust shalt thou return.—Gen. iii. 19.

An equivocal religion it was; and *equivocal*, though grand, was the character which it formed.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 393.

The next Stuart will not be sensible of the change, nor willing to resign the power, and *hard* in consequence will be his fate.—*Ibid.* i. 467.

Parched are all lips and eyes; for the air is full of dust, yea, even of gravel, which cuts like hail. *Aching* are all right sides; for the sudden chill brings on all manner of liver complaints and indigestions.—KINGSLEY, *Prose Idylls*, p. 195.

Dearer to him is the porcelain image than the human woman.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 28th Feb. 1900.

To this object he devoted himself with all the assiduity and far-sightedness of his character ; and *many* were the experiments, *many* the failures recorded in the early stages of his researches.
—*Ibid.* p. 7, 1st Sept. 1900.

Rare almost as great poets,—rarer perhaps than veritable martyrs and saints,—are consummate men of business.—ARTHUR HELPS.

(3) Adverb or adverbial phrase placed first :—

Not at once was language adequate to receive or take up into itself the ideas that were asking for expression.—JOWETT.

On these two commandments hang all the laws and the prophets.—Matt. xxii. 40.

By the British tar in spite of blundering and jobbery was the country saved. *By his victories* was sustained under all reverses the fortitude of the nation. *Hard* was his life, and *scanty* was his reward.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 270.

(4) The subject placed after its verb. In such cases the verb is introduced by some adverb or phrase :—

From the opposite bank stretched a *wide green level* called the Ham, dotted with pasturing cattle of all sorts.—MRS. CRAIK, *John Halifax Gentleman*, ch. ii.

Thus came into prominence what are called *sacred and profane knowledge* ; thus came into the presence of each other *two opposing parties*, one relying on reason, the other on revelation.—DRAPER.

About this time came noiselessly and almost in disguise a *momentous and auspicious change*.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 114.

(5) Adjective or adjectival phrase placed after its noun, as in “Alfred the Great,” “Pliny the Elder,” “Pliny the Younger.”

I will talk of things *heavenly* or things *earthly* ; things *moral* or things *evangelical* ; things *sacred* or things *profane* ; things *past* or things *to come* ; things *foreign* or things *at home* ; things *essential* or things *circumstantial* ; provided that all be done to our profit.—JOHN BUNYAN.

At last, in defiance of the theories of historic philosophers, the nation accepted the Queen’s view of her own functions and tacitly concluded with her that she ruled, a consecrated monarch, by right *divine*.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 453, May 1901.

The incident seems to Englishmen rather small to provoke such a display of feeling ; but France *humiliated* is France *vengeful*.—*Spectator*, p. 757, 25th May 1901.

72. **Emphatic Positions.**—The middle of a sentence is the weakest of all positions. The most emphatic is either the beginning or the end,—more frequently the end.

(a) *The beginning.*—If we take a word out of its normal order in order to place it first, the emphasis that it acquires arises partly from the surprise excited by its unusual position, and partly from the prominence that naturally belongs to the initial word. This has been exemplified already in § 71.

The subject of a sentence is usually placed first, because that is its normal order. In this position it possesses a certain degree of prominence, because it names the person or thing about which the assertion is made:—

Romulus, according to the ancient legend, founded Rome.

If that degree of prominence, however, happens not to be sufficient, additional emphasis can be given to the subject "Romulus" by placing it last:—

Rome, according to the ancient legend, was founded by Romulus.
The founder of Rome, according to the ancient legend, was Romulus.

(b) *The end.*—The end of a sentence is usually more emphatic than the beginning. This effect is especially felt when the mind is held in suspense till we know the closing circumstance, and our interest is aroused to know what that circumstance is. This is called the PRINCIPLE OF SUSPENSE.

Silver and gold have I *none*.—Acts iii. 6.

A wrong he seldom forgave, an insult *never*.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 59.

Add to your faith *virtue*; and to virtue *knowledge*; and to knowledge *temperance*; and to temperance *patience*; and to patience *godliness*; and to godliness *brotherly kindness*; and to brotherly kindness *charity*.—2 Peter i. 5-7.

In its vast extent of territory only a fringe of it (Western Australia) can be treated agriculturally, and the reason of this is the old hindrance that blights so much of Australia—the *lack of water*.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 26th Sept. 1901.

Fuller in his *Worthies* (1662), attempted the first biographical notice of Shakespeare, *with poor results*.—SIDNEY LEE, *Life of Shakespeare*, p. 361.

Corollary.—If we do not wish a word to be emphatic, we must avoid placing it in an emphatic position:—

That all members of the same household should live together in peace is necessary.

He, deserted by his friends and pursued by his enemies, fled from the country.

The undue emphasis given in one sentence to the word "necessary," and in the other to "he" can be avoided by altering their positions:—

It is necessary that all members of the same household should live together in peace.

Deserted by his friends, and pursued by his enemies, he fled from the country.

73. Weak endings to be avoided.—A weak ending is almost always a fault in composition. We are so accustomed to see some strength in the concluding words, that even when these are not intended to be especially emphatic a weak ending is a disappointment :—

A collision between a bicycle and a cab opposite the Talbot Road on Monday, throwing the cyclist and breaking the wheel of his machine, led to nothing more serious.—*Ealing Guardians*, p. 5, 6th May 1899. (Say “led to nothing more serious than throwing the cyclist and breaking the wheel of his machine.”)

About the same time and in the same walk a Bentham was still treading in the footsteps of a Burton, whose maxims he had adopted *and whose life he had published*.—GIBBON'S *Autobiography*. (The italicised clause besides sounding very feeble destroys the unity of the sentence. It should be cancelled.)

The British empire is one that nobody would venture to raise a finger at.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 5th March 1900. (Say, “at which nobody would venture to raise a finger.” A sentence should not end with such a weak word as a preposition.)

Even the ablest of European princes, as we have said, if bred up to such a position, could hardly hope to make of it a permanent success.—*Spectator*, p. 790, 23rd Nov. 1901. (Colloquially we should say, “make a permanent success of it.” But in written composition it is much better to say “make of it a permanent success.” The words *of it* are too weak to stand at the end of a sentence.)

74. Balance.—The energy of a sentence is sometimes enhanced by balance or rhythm, such as we see exemplified when a word or phrase in one part of a sentence is balanced against and contrasted with some word or phrase in another part. Balance conduces to euphony as well as to impressiveness :—

The soldier possesses the knowledge without the power. The civilian minister has the power without the knowledge.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 5th March 1901.

The great Napoleon once said that an army marches on its belly ; and it certainly might be said that in these days a fleet moves on its coal.—House of Commons, 14th Aug. 1901.

Times numberless had he called attention to the fatal old trick of giving away your friend in the idle hope of conciliating your enemy.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 8th May 1901.

The Earl of Warwick he nicknamed the Black Dog, and the Black Dog vowed that the minion should some day feel his teeth.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 205.

The student will notice the want of balance and with it the loss of power in the last sentence of the following :—

The solemnity of his (Clarendon's) antiquated virtue was oppressive to Charles and to the new morality of his court and harem. Having been Charles's tutor in exile, he had not doffed the tutor.—*Ibid.* ii. p. 26. (Say, "he had not doffed the tutor *when Charles was on the throne.*" The italicised words are needed as a balance to the words "in exile.")

75. Strongest word last in a series.—When two or more words of kindred meaning or purpose are mentioned together in a series, care should be taken, if they differ in strength, to mention them in the order of strength, the weakest being given first, and the strongest last :—

The name of George III. cannot be penned without a *pang*, can hardly be penned without a *curse*; such mischief was he fated to do to the country.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 195. This man (Chief Justice Coke), who had so basely and brutally served the Crown in the trial of Raleigh, was nevertheless proud, intractable, and devoted with a martyr-constancy to his idol, the common law, in the somewhat barbarous learning of which he was a *prodigy*, almost a *monster*.—*Ibid.* i. p. 456. In the case of the third decision, viz., that in favour of a reformed army, it is only possible to adopt an attitude of *hope* and *expectancy*.—*Spectator*, p. 448, 6th Oct. 1900. It required no slight courage, knowledge, forethought, and industry *to have formulated, to have prepared, and to have carried through* the drastic reforms of 1853 and 1860.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 787, May 1901.

The following are examples of inadvertence, where the stronger word has been placed before, instead of after, the weaker :—

It would seem almost superfluous to point out the propriety, *necessity*, and *desirability* of appointing female officers.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 282, Feb. 1898.

They *never* or *seldom* thought about the older books, which somehow were infinitely better.—*Daily Express*, p. 10, 10th July 1900. (We may retain the order of the italicised words, if we say "or at least seldom" for "or seldom." It is better, however, to change the order.)

Religion has *nothing* or *little* to do with the main turning-point of the stars.—*Literature*, p. 300, 14th April 1900.

On enquiry at the offices of the London County Council, it was pointed out that so far from having *approved* or even *encouraged* this scheme, it has as yet given it no official recognition.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 21st Nov. 1901.—(We approve of a thing before we encourage it, and hence the phrase *or even* is misleading. We should say "having approved, much less encouraged"; or, "having encouraged or even approved.")

Sometimes, however, for the sake of introducing an anti-climax, it suits the argument better to place the weakest word last and the strongest first:—

At the Peace Conference at the Hague he was listened to with much respect, but that great meeting dispersed without having made war either *impossible*, or *impracticable*, or *unlikely*.—*Spectator*, p. 38, 11th Jan. 1902.

SECTION 3.—EMPHASIS BY REPETITION.

76. Repetition, not Verbosity.—The kind of repetition here intended must not be confounded with verbosity. Verbosity consists in using a great many words to express what might have been said with equal clearness and more energy in few. "It is certain," says Dr. Campbell, "that of whatever kind the sentiment be—witty, humorous, grave, animated, or sublime—the more briefly it is expressed, the energy is the greater."

It sometimes happens, however, that a simple word or a single short sentence is not sufficient to impress the writer's meaning, especially when the point is one to which he attaches unusual importance. The remedy in such a case lies, not in increasing the number of words in which the sentiment is conveyed and thereby weakening the effect, but in repeating the word or statement in various forms. "If the material is too stubborn to be speedily cleft, we must patiently continue our efforts for a longer time in order to accomplish it: but this is to be done, not by making each blow fall *more slowly*, which would only enfeeble them, but by *often-repeated* blows" (WHATELY).

77. Modes or degrees of Repetition.—Repetition is seen in at least four different modes or degrees:—

(1) The repetition of an auxiliary word, *i.e.* a conjunction, article, preposition, or auxiliary verb. Examples of this have been given already in § 64. I give two more in this place:—

In condition, *in* method, *in* force, *in* the subject to be educated, *in* aim, and *in* content, the education of women and *of* men may be exactly alike; for each is human.—C. THWING, *Forum*, Feb. 1901.

We have not yet known what it is to have suffered and be healed, to have despaired and *to have* recovered hope.—GEORGE ELIOT.

(2) The repetition of the same word or phrase:—

"I *wander*," he was wont to say, "I always *wander*, and *wander* I always will, as long as there is a fresh bit of the world to see."—GEORGE KINGSLEY, *Notes on Sport and Travel*.

If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, I never would lay down my arms—*never, never, never*.—BURKE.

You cannot, sir, take from me anything that I would more willingly part withal, *except my life, except my life, except my life*.—SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.

What then was the duty of Liberals? It was to *protest* and *protest*, to *expose* and *expose*, and above all to close their ranks. Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 16th May 1901.

I have to listen for the hundredth time to these clear delusions, this Utopian dogmatising, that it only required *a little more time, a little more patience, a little more tact, a little more meekness, a little more* of these gentle virtues of which I know that I am so conspicuously devoid, in order to conciliate.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 27th May 1901.

And so we toasted our Australian kinsmen, *kinsmen* by descent, *kinsmen* by act, *kinsmen* united to us now by the ties formed on the bloody battlefields of the southern continent.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 9th May 1901.

An overwhelming majority of its members are determined that the Isthmian Canal shall be wholly and completely American. They wish it to be built by *American* money, controlled by *American* officials, fortified by *American* engineers, and to have its approaches guarded by *American* guns.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 15th Dec. 1900.

Strictly economic, Manchesterian and Liberal, Darwinian and individualist, English civilisation suits England alone; and *because* the world at last begins to feel that, *because* the importations of English habits threaten the European nations in the feeling they have for their own personality, *because* that "superiority" often consists only in the facilities which these habits offer for the development of egoism, England has seen let loose against her the almost unanimous opinion of Europe.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 556, June 1900.

(3) A series of words of equivalent or nearly equivalent meaning. Though there may be no appreciable difference between them, yet the combined effect is stronger than the effect of any one of the words would be standing alone:—

How *weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable*

Seem to me all the uses of this world.—*Hamlet*.

The *spring, the head, the fountain* of your blood

Is stopped, the very *source* of it is stopped.—*Macbeth*.

Her beloved Majesty, who is departed, may and will once more, as her body passes to the tomb, *inspire, encourage, comfort, fortify, and confirm* the lessons of her long reign in this its closing scene.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 25th Jan. 1901.

A Parliament so elected cannot be expected to indulge in those costly experiments which a generation ago were popular under the name of *heroic remedies and drastic measures*.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 11th Feb. 1901.

At the same time, the dissemination of *barefaced and shameless* lies should be severely punished.—*Ibid.* p. 11, Nov. 1900.

“ Ah, my readers, Ireland is not the merry country which people think, which Protestant Irishmen like Lever and Lover have painted it. It is a *sad*, a *gloomy*, a *depressed*, a *joyless* country for the bulk of its peasantry. Hence it is they leave it.” One can almost see the tears between the lines.—Quoted in *Spectator*, p. 458, 5th Oct. 1901.

Let me describe something of the feelings with which I greeted the production. It seemed to me like a new planet which had swum into my ken. It was all *new*, all *fresh*: it was all *fascinating*, all *captivating*.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 83, Jan. 1901.

(4) A succession of two or more sentences equivalent or nearly equivalent in meaning. In the following examples it will be observed that the italicised sentences contain little or nothing more than a restatement in other words of what had been stated already in the previous sentence. Yet we cannot help feeling that what is expressed in the first sentence acquires additional energy from the repetition:—

Surely he hath borne our griefs, and *carried our sorrows*.—*Old Testament*.

Pride goeth before destruction, and a *haughty spirit before a fall*.—*Ibid*.

Christ being raised from the dead dieth no more; *death hath no more dominion over him*.—*New Testament*.

Let me die the death of the righteous, and *let my last end be like his*.—*Old Testament*.

When I asked one long in Government employ if his thirty years in their midst led him to believe that the Chinese could be regenerated, awakened, or galvanised to some semblance of modern life, he exclaimed:—“No, never! It is not possible to regenerate China as China. *It cannot be effected from within by the Chinese. The motive power is not there. They do not want to be regenerated. They do not see that there is anything the matter*.”—*Literature*, p. 64, 28th July, 1900.

78. Reiteration of Subject or previous Clause.—A writer sometimes finds it necessary to suspend the statement of his conclusion by introducing some modifying clause or by enumerating further particulars. In this case it is a relief to the reader and a source of strength to the narrative, if he reiterates or recapitulates the basis of his argument:—

We may conceive a people perfectly exempt from oppression by their government, amply protected by it, both against foreign enemies and against force or fraud as between its own citizens; *we may conceive all this secured*, as far at least as institutions can secure it, and yet the people in an abject state of degradation both physical and mental.—J. S. MILL, *Diss.* i. 27.

79. Abridged restatement.—For the sake of perspicuity a

writer may find it necessary to explain his meaning in a longer sentence, and then for the sake of impressiveness to repeat it in a shorter one. "It is remarked by anatomists that the nutritive quality is not the only requisite in food; that a certain degree of distention of the stomach is required to enable it to act with its full powers; and that it is for this reason hay or straw must be given to horses as well as corn in order to supply the necessary bulk. Something analogous to this takes place with reference to the generality of minds; which are incapable of thoroughly digesting and assimilating what is presented to them, however clearly, in small compass" (WHATELY).

It is important to observe that the order stated above must not be reversed. The longer sentence should be given first; and the abridged repetition, containing the pith of the matter, should follow. The reader will *understand* the first, and *remember* the second. Perspicuity must precede impressiveness:—

The convents objected to inspection because it would interfere with the discipline of the laundries, and not because it would violate their seclusion. They objected, that is, *rather as employers than as religious bodies.*—*Spectator*, p. 906, 17th Aug. 1901.

When you speak of a South African river, be it ever so large, it by no means follows that there is any water there. *The channel is the river, not the stream.*—*Empire Review*, p. 292, April 1901.

A nation is a living organism. Never was attempt so disastrous as that of the pedantic theorists, in what has been called the murderous work of the French Revolution, to treat a state as a formal structure, which could be pulled down by political architects and raised up at will to its former height and strength upon a new design. *Nations are not built to rule and line.* They grow by the inward law of their being, and all that is great in the inspiration of a people must still rise, like the sap of "patrician trees," from their roots.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 29th June 1901.

The function of the statesman is not to decide upon what is theoretically the best in the world, but what is in practice the most feasible method of approaching an ideal goal. In other words, *statesmanship is compromise in action.*—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 15th Oct. 1901.

A great deal of the diminution of expenditure on prisons and pauperism is due to the extension of education amongst the people. *He who opens a school closes a prison.*—*Ibid.* p. 8, 1st June 1900.

SECTION 4.—RHETORICAL DEVICES.

80. **The Figures of Speech.**—I need not repeat or even recapitulate what has been said already about the figures of

speech in chap. i. There are various purposes for which these figures may be used—illustration (as in the case of metaphor and simile), precision (as in the case of antithesis), variety (as in the case of metonymy, synecdoche, and the transferred epithet), brevity (as in the case of metaphor, epigram, and the condensed sentence). But the great aim common to all these figures is impressiveness. This in fact is what is implied in the definition: "A figure of speech is a departure from the simplest form of statement with a view to heightening or specialising the effect" (§ 1).

81. Antithesis of Proper Names.—When the things contrasted are denoted by proper names, much of the effect of the antithesis is lost if one of them is expressed by a proper name and the other by a pronoun or other word of reference. Even though the sense may not be obscured by the use of the pronoun, the impressiveness is weakened:—

The sentiments of Cromwell were widely different. He wished to restore that ancient constitution which the majority of the people had always loved, and for which they now pined. The course afterwards taken by *Monk* was not open to *Cromwell*. The memory of one terrible day separated the great regicide for ever from the house of Stuart.—MACAULAY, *History of England*, i. 133.

The sense would have been equally clear, if *him* had been written for *Cromwell* in the last sentence but one. But the force of the contrast would have been much weakened.

82. Use of Proverbs and familiar Sayings.—It helps to drive an argument home if the conclusion to which it tends can be expressed in the form, or brought within the scope, of a proverb or familiar saying:—

India must learn to cut her coat according to her cloth, but she has the plainest right to ask that she shall not be asked to pay for the coats of other people.—*Pioneer Mail*, p. 3, 19th May 1900.

All that the Legislature can safely do is to formulate certain broad principles, and to put the subordinate bodies in a position to carry them out according to the requirements of the neighbourhood. The boot does not pinch every foot in the same place.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 11th Feb. 1901.

Anticipating no objection, but rather a sort of paternal blessing, they approached Sir H. C.-B. To their dismay and disappointment they found that the after-swell of the storm was still throbbing against the sides of the teacup.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 12th July 1901.

In Russia men were waiting with the keenest anxiety to know what the new Army Reform scheme (in England) was to be.

Almost a shout of relief went up when the mountain delivered itself of its ridiculous mouse.—GAMBIER, *Fortnightly Review*, p. 633, Oct. 1901.

The glories of making the commercial lamb lie down with the military lion have been sung in prose and verse, till we weary a little of the theme.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 832, May 1900.

Another use that is sometimes made of a proverb or familiar saying consists in turning it into some contradictory or unexpected shape,—a method which, besides driving the argument home, imparts a shock of surprise and thereby heightens the impressiveness of the effect.

He was surprised at nothing that came from the permanent officials at the War Office. A recent edict proclaimed that no officers under a certain weight should get into the army. In other words, it was to be the survival, not of *the fittest*, but of *the fattest*.—House of Commons, quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 29th May 1900.

Sir W. H. led the onslaught upon the Government, describing the impost as *the revival of the unfittest*, and declaring that the full burden of it would fall, not upon the foreigner, but upon the miners.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 3rd May 1901.

In the eyes of the Czar, Lord Stratford's way of keeping himself eternally in the right and eternally moderate was the mere contrivance, the inverted Jesuitism, of a man resolved to *do good that evil might come*,—resolved to be forbearing and just for the sake of doing a harm to the Church.—KINGLAKE, *History of the Crimean War*.

83. Surprise.—The attention is aroused if the words are so chosen as to impart a shock of surprise. To impart such a shock, the idea or comparison presented must be one that possesses the character of novelty and remoteness: for the attention is not aroused by what is ordinary, obvious, or new:—

Treason doth never prosper; what's the reason?

For if it prospers, none dare call it treason.

The hero of fiction, who said that he could only think when he spoke, was not so ridiculous as he was considered; for this hero is everybody.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 813, May 1901.

(An interesting and novel way of announcing the important fact that language is an instrument of thought.)

Thus says Mr. R. B., who is looked up to by Socialists as somewhat of a great man. Well: great he is,—great as an advocate of thieving by Act of Parliament.—*Ibid.* p. 53, Oct. 1900.

I will not call this an Herculean labour, because an Herculean labour means a labour that Hercules could accomplish. This I am persuaded he could not.—*Ibid.* p. 792, May 1901.

“An ambassador,” says Wootton, “is a man sent abroad to lie for the service of his country.”—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 307.

On the other side we shall have Swift, strongly combining some of the highest gifts of human genius with the malice as well as the filthiness of the ancestral ape.—*Ibid.* ii. 115.

There is an utter sickness of party politics. In Spain, even more than in the neighbouring Latin nation, men have long since found that the more the Government changes, the more it is the same thing.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 22nd Feb. 1902.

It must be remembered that the longest residents in China can never be sure that in all their study of the native mind they have got much nearer to their object than the man who stood upon a three-legged stool to examine the moon.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 20th July 1900.

In Russia M. de Witte, whom the Emperor trusts and the Conservatives would like to knout, seems to have every financial capacity except that of making a good balance.—*Spectator*, p. 550, 19th October 1901.

We have had all-night sittings and Saturday sittings; yet nothing has passed except the time.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 2nd April 1901.

84. Alternative, Dilemma.—It gives much additional force to a discussion or argument, when the main point in dispute can be summed up in the form of an alternative, one conclusion or the other being shown to be inevitable:—

We shall talk big about withstanding Russia, but as soon as she means business we shall give way, and thus ultimately produce the same result as would be produced by an understanding with Russia, except that in one case we should obtain the goodwill of Russia, and in the other her triumphant enmity.—*Spectator*, p. 127, 25th Jan. 1902.

Here the point in dispute is, "How should we behave towards Russia?" The writer brings the question to a definite issue by showing that if we behave in one way we shall obtain her goodwill, if in the other her triumphant enmity. This is the alternative that he places before us.

An alternative, in which both conclusions are alike to be deprecated, though one or other is inevitable, is called a Dilemma:—

If he believed, in spite of all the evidence to the contrary, that our ministers and our soldiers who served in South Africa had been guilty of barbarous and loathsome practices, he was a fool. If he did not believe it, but was only saying so for partisan purposes, and in order to inflict discredit on this Government, he was a knave.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 25th Nov. 1901.

Exercises on Chapter V.

(a) Give some additional point or impressiveness to the following sentences by a change of order (Section 2):—

1. I will not give my glory to another, neither my praise to graven images.—Isaiah xlii. 8.

2. Tully was the first who observed that friendship improves happiness and abates misery by the doubling of our joy and the dividing of our grief.—ADDISON, *Spectator*, No. 68.

3. Our Berlin correspondent telegraphs that in diplomatic circles there confidence is placed in no reports about the Chinese loan.—*Daily Telegraph*, 8th Feb. 1898.

4. The Dutch of those days were the Batavians, and Civilis was their President. Like the Dutch of South Africa, they were themselves only recent comers into the land which the Romans were paramount over.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 370, April 1901.

5. The power of the pulpit upon all moral questions has gained as much as it has lost upon all theological issues. It is not less powerful in this domain in the Republic than in Scotland, and far more so than in any other English-speaking country.—*North American Review*, March 1899.

6. Though the climate of Newfoundland is dreary and cold from November to June, the weather is delightful from June to October, the months during which the average holiday sportsman is likely to visit the island.—*Empire Review*, p. 305, April 1901. (Adapted.¹)

7. There is a touch of historic irony in the fact that the Czar of Russia, who summoned the Peace Conference at the Hague, should be the recipient of this frank avowal that the real protectors of a country's honour and interests are to be found in efficient armaments.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 19th Sept. 1901. (Adapted.)

8. Now to have it proved that the beneficiaries of the most detested monopoly are men who hold the democratic vote of the State of New York in the hollow of their hands, naturally gives the Republicans a weapon which they have not been slow to avail themselves of.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 60, July 1900.

9. The object of the defending party is not only to annihilate or diminish the striking power arrayed against it in the field, but to obstruct transport and hamper all movements.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 495, Sept. 1900.

10. I, listening carelessly amid my dream, tried to imagine the crossing of these Calabrian hills under a summer sun.—*Ibid.* p. 890, May 1900.

11. Gordon was betrayed to death at Khartoum in the name of chivalry, and the natives of the Soudan abandoned to the bloody despotism of the Mahdi. The Samoans and other South Pacific Islanders were in the name of chivalry set to fight one another in the interests of European powers.—*Empire Review*, p. 498, June 1901. (Adapted.)

12. Emerson asks whether "new London is to be allowed to grow up with as little apparent design as a vegetable, or whether there shall be an imperial, necessary, convenient, healthful, and tasteful

¹ In this and all other examples which are marked *adapted*, it should be understood that I have altered the order as given in the original so as to make it less emphatic. The emphatic order, which the student is asked to produce or rather reproduce, is that given in the original.

plan, properly thought out and laid down beforehand by competent hands.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 6th Nov. 1900.

13. Troubles and doubts, anxiety and apprehensions, are never present, but out of them some of the best and highest of our resolves issue.—*Educational Review* (Madras), p. 79, Feb. 1900. (Adapted.)

14. Men are all level on that plane: the sympathy expressed is keen, and the views expounded as to the policy of government thereto are strong.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 14th July 1900. (Adapted.)

15. The survivors of the Legations owe their safety to force, the relief expedition is surely pressing on by force, and if, unhappily, its nearer approach should provoke a last outburst of mob violence in the capital, we must look to force to prevent a horrible catastrophe and to take signal vengeance for treachery and murder.—*Ibid.* p. 4, 13th Aug. 1900. (Adapted.)

16. A wild, leafy garden, and lower on the slope a large lemon orchard laden with yellow fruit, lay deep beneath the window.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 888, May 1900. (Adapted.)

17. Our ancestors are a very good kind of folk; but they are the last people I should choose to have a visiting acquaintance with.—SHERIDAN, *Rivals*, iv. 1.

18. Then the terrible spectacle of destruction which the telegrams depict must, in that high tableland of South Africa, have gone forward anew.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 24th Feb. 1900. (Adapted.)

19. The declaration of policy made in the Reichstag yesterday by Count von Bülow, in answer to inquiries as to the brusque refusal of the German Emperor to parley with the ex-President, was singularly and cynically outspoken.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 11th Dec. 1900. (Adapted.)

20. The practical universality of the increase of gold production in different parts of the world is a most interesting and important point, which can only be brought out by reference to more detail than is furnished in the above table.—*Ibid.* p. 11, 24th Feb. 1900. (Adapted.)

21. There was enough and to spare of invective, of insinuation, of distortion of simple facts, but there was absolutely no new evidence or substantial reasons for inducing the House of Commons to condemn a committee composed of its own most distinguished members.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 21st Feb. 1900. (Adapted.)

22. At Paris I only found a different view in regard to the South African war in the house of a well-known Parliamentarian and honorary member of the Cobden Club.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 826, Nov. 1899.

23. The present Secretary of State for the Colonies, who has done more than any living man to bind them to the mother-country by bonds of mutual interest, esteem, and affection, stands pre-eminent in this respect.—*Ibid.* p. 477, March 1900. (Adapted.)

24. Our water-supply is merely poisonous. Visitors of a scientific turn have called Johannesburg a death-trap.—*Ibid.* p. 1041, June 1899. (Adapted.)

25. There will be and there can be no political results.—*Standard*, p. 7, 10th June 1901. (Adapted.)

26. If they (Indians of America) remain ethnographically a puzzle,

with their physical resemblances and strange diversities of language, they are politically an increasing difficulty.—*Spectator*, p. 242, 16th Feb. 1901. (Adapted.)

27. George Kingsley, though he was a keen sportsman, did not love to shoot animals from the mere lust of slaughter.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 180, Feb. 1900.

28. Mr. White will not allow their plea of waiting for improvements in marine propulsion on the turbine principle.—*Ibid.* p. 259, Sept. 1900. (Adapted.)

29. The demon resented his expulsion from the body of his victim, and before his final exorcism used her lips to vow a terrible vengeance on the exorcist. He fulfilled this threat to the letter.—*Ibid.* p. 90, Jan. 1901. (Adapted.)

30. The natural tendency to belittle great men and select the most sordid of all possible motives has worked havoc with Dryden's good name.—*Educational Review* (Madras), p. 59, Feb. 1900. (Adapted.)

31. Mr. Stuart announces one discovery, viz. the susceptibility of trout to tuberculosis, which will be read with dismay by anglers in general, though of high interest to the physiologist.—*Literature*, p. 150, 27th Feb. 1900. (Adapted.)

32. Philosophic historians call the Norman Conquest a blessing in disguise. The blessing was certainly disguised to those whose blood dyed the plains of Senlac, or whose lands were taken from them and given to a stranger. It was disguised to the perishing thousands of the ravaged north. It was disguised to the whole of the people, enslaved to foreign masters, and for the time down-trodden and despised.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 21. (Adapted.)

33. The feudal storms that broke over England gathered in Normandy, the connection between the Norman nobles in the two countries still subsisting.—*Ibid.* i. 70. (Adapted.)

34. Machiavelli was his gospel. He had probably no religious convictions. He was wholly devoid of conscience.—*Ibid.* i. 326. (Adapted.)

35. Courage was wanting to him, while he was free from passion and prejudice.—*Ibid.* ii. 39. (Adapted.)

36. Henry found in the Church, which was ready to accept his aid against the heresies of Wycliffe and the Lollards, still more against the attacks on ecclesiastical wealth, a more equivocal ally than the knights of the shire.—*Ibid.* i. 251. (Adapted.)

37. In a word, the City gave itself up to an unrestrained revelry, which none could a few months ago have imagined our national spirit capable of.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 19th May 1900.

38. All that is excellent sense, and shows the speaker in a far more favourable light than he has of late allowed himself to appear in.—*Spectator*, p. 787, 23rd Nov. 1901.

39. Bankruptcy and revolution, the ruin of her (Russia's) French bondholders, the forced industry of her towns, and the necessity of trying to repair all at the expense of the peasantry, taxed to the point of torture, and whom further pressure would make mad,—these might not be the worst evils.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 1037, June 1901.

40. In Lady Mabel Howard's novel, *The Failure of Success*, we have a woman who keeps a fortune that does not belong to her, in order to win a man whom she knows to be in love with the girl the money rightly belongs to.—*Spectator*, p. 950, 14th Dec. 1901.

41. Some little time ago, in trying to set forth the worth of what the Canadians had lately done in verse, I was less able to praise what they had done in fiction, especially the sort we other Americans imagine ourselves to have surpassed the remnant of the Anglo-Saxon world in.—*Literature*, p. 473, 6th May 1899.

(b) Give some additional emphasis to the more important words, or phrases, or clauses in the following sentences, by means of repetition or recapitulation (Section 3):—

1. That paper lies as to our victories, reverses, and motives. There is not a move the Governor makes but it misrepresents it.—*Daily Express*, p. 4, 16th May 1900. (Adapted.)

2. The dawn of the century then ending was a French dawn. French philosophers, lawgivers, writers, painters, soldiers, were the terror, the horror, or the admiration of kings and peoples.—*North American Review*, p. 24, Jan. 1901. (Adapted.)

3. We have had in our past history experience of signal victories and of equal defeats. The record of a great party depends upon the uses it knows how to make of the one and the spirit in which it encounters the other.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 17th Oct. 1900.

4. It needs nothing but the presence of the conquering white man, decked in his shoddy clothes, armed with his gas-pipe gun, his Bible in his hand, schemes of benevolence deep rooted in his heart, his merchandise (that is, his whisky, gin, and cotton cloths) securely stored in his corrugated iron-roofed sheds, and he himself active and persevering as a beaver or red ant, to bring about a sickness which exterminates the people whom he came to benefit, to bless, to rescue from their savagery, and to make them wise, just, beautiful, and as apt to differentiate evil from good as even he himself.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 400, Oct. 1900.

5. The Intelligence Departments of the different countries concerned have hitherto woefully failed as regards China. At present we get nothing but rumours—that the Emperor is a prisoner, that the Empress is dead, that the Court contemplate a further flight, that Prince Tuan and his ally General Tung, fearing for their heads, have broken out in rebellion.—*Spectator*, p. 698, 17th Nov. 1900. (Adapted.)

6. I think the House would commit a grievous injury, affront, insult, and wrong if they departed from that great Act of Parliament which is called the Act of Union.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 667, Oct. 1901. (Adapted.)

7. To arouse the senior partner at the dead of night, and to insist upon his there and then deciding whether or not he would reverse the principles upon which the business had been so far carried on, without giving him even time to examine his balance-sheet or check the accuracy of the figures presented to him, is a method that might commend itself to dishonest cashiers, but could hardly be

regarded as business-like.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 332, Oct. 1900. (Adapted.)

8. In no civilised community in the world is there a right of free insult, slander, or aspersion. Where an individual is calumniated, the law provides redress; against undeserved contumely heaped upon the Fatherland the only protection is refusal to listen.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 24th June 1901. (Adapted.)

9. Against the alleged injury that is intangible, can easily be put the benefit that can be shown by figures—to the working man, the consumer, and the capitalist.—*North American Review*, June 1901. (Adapted.)

10. The war and the land question are test questions. . . . Until the Liberal party takes a firm stand upon such fundamental questions of principle,—until it takes the straight line upon this war and upon the land question,—it is false to the democracy and the humanity of this country.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 481, May 1900. (Adapted.)

11. Great were the hopes and fears which this law excited.—*Spectator*, p. 178, 10th Aug. 1901. (Adapted.)

12. It cannot be too strongly urged that all the high-spirited valour in the world will not avail in our modern war against a cautious enemy better armed, led, and organised.—*Ibid.* p. 614, 3rd Nov. 1900. (Adapted.)

13. The present Secretary of State for the Colonies has done more than any living man to bind them to the mother-country by bonds of mutual interest, esteem, and affection.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 477, March 1900.

14. The man who has lived in Burma is happy. He is happier still who, having read these two books, is able to satisfy the inevitable desire they awaken and start for Rangoon. But even those to whom the strong wings of travel have been denied may, by means of this book, construct a fairly complete picture of Burmese scenery, the various aspects of life there, and the Burman's existence from the cradle to the grave.—*Literature*, p. 13, 7th July 1900. (Adapted.)

15. A sense of common interest and peril may be relied on to induce the whole white population of South Africa to look favourably on the idea of confederation.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 866, May 1900.

16. Let it not be supposed that imperialism in these distant colonies is an affair of press and politicians—that it is of official instigation or of urban residence. True it is that the politicians have done much—that an epoch-making speech, which might have caused the very stones of our city (Dunedin) to rise in protest against the Little Englanders, had they been numerous enough to form a target, was delivered by our well-beloved Justice Williams—that press and pulpit have never wavered in wholesome loyal allegiance to the British throne and constitution. But none of these things have created our imperialism; they have simply voiced it.—*Empire Review*, p. 598, June 1901. (Adapted.)

17. The tie between French Protestants and Catholics was never a very strong one, and therefore the mere fact of French origin in some of the Dutch families in South Africa hardly accounts for an expression of Dutch sympathy on the part of the French populace.—*Empire Review*, p. 320, April 1901.

18. The mission of the Australian delegates, who bring to us at home a vast scheme of union, which will be at once more efficient and economical than the separate existence of the provinces, appeals to all Imperialists with peculiarly sympathetic force.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 27th April 1900.

19. There are various other articles, such as one on Cecil Rhodes, by Professor Martens on China, and by Mr. Neville on the National Defence, which are noticed elsewhere.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 480, Nov. 1900.

20. He secured to that population, and to many others over his great estates, the conditions of a more wholesome, prosperous, and hopeful life than they had previously known.—*Spectator*, p. 79, 18th Jan. 1902. (Adapted).

(c) Give some additional point to the following sentences by a change of words, or by supplying words where they are needed, or by recasting the entire construction :—

1. The point between us is whether we are to have an organisation or muddle through as best we can.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 17th May 1901.

2. Mr. Beveridge, of Indiana, goes a step further, and declares that "the United States needs Cuba for our protection, but Cuba needs the United States for Cuba's salvation."—*Review of Reviews*, p. 320, Oct. 1900.

3. The Tory Johnson pronounced him (Charles II.) a very good king. In a certain sense he was; for had a respectable bigot and absolutist, attentive to business and loyal to the Anglican Church, been in Charles's place, with the tide of loyalty running so high, he might have extinguished the liberties of England.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 3.

4. All that can be said is that there remains a presumption in favour of those conditions of life, in which men appear most cheerful and contented. For though the apparent happiness of mankind be not always a true measure of their real happiness, it is the best measure we have.—PALEY.

5. The grand jury found true bills against them (O'Donnell and his associates); and although they threw every obstacle in the way of the proceedings, they were successfully carried through.—ALISON, *Contemporary History*, ch. xxiii.

6. Fresh attempts should be made to give shelter to a harbour by laying out not a few large, but a large number of small, floating breakwaters.—*Geographical Journal*, May 1898.

7. What is there to hinder the Government from preparing placards to be posted on every wall, and leaflets to be handed in by every postman, setting out the superiority of calf-lymph properly prepared over lymph transmitted from arm to arm, and announcing that it is used in all public vaccinations?—*Spectator*, p. 692, 9th Nov. 1901.

8. Such insufficiency of original and trustworthy materials, as compared with those resources which are thought hardly sufficient for the historian of any modern kingdom, is neither to be concealed

nor extenuated, however much we may have to lament it.—Preface to GROTE'S *History of Greece*.

9. I have a much better opinion of myself than the world at large entertains.—MATHEWS, *Autobiography*, i. 2.

10. Giant cities are destined to such a process of dissection and diffusion as to amount almost to obliteration, so far at least as the blot on the map goes, within a measurable further space of years.—WELLS, *Fortnightly Review*, p. 928, May 1901.

11. It is surmised here that any German action in regard to the conflict has in view the saving of German property in the mines.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 16th April 1900.

12. Let your advocacy be strong in facts and temperate in words; the more strong the facts and the more temperate in words your representations are, they are the more likely to receive the greater attention.—Report of speech delivered in Lucknow, *Educational Review*, p. 98, Feb. 1900.

13. If a boy has been wild, Goddard is appealed to to see whether anything can be done for him. The demands upon his time and patience are innumerable. (Emphasise Goddard and innumerable).—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 742, Nov. 1901.

14. This time he (Gaveston) went to France and then to the Netherlands, but soon returned, and in 1812 the barons succeeded in separating him from the king and forcing him to surrender at Scarborough.—*Short History of England*, p. 107.

15. It took them six months to succeed, but they succeeded.—*Spectator*, p. 962, 29th June 1901.

16. Here we have the historical origin, not of party, which had raged in England under Charles I. and Charles II., but of party government, which has now been accepted as the regular system not only of Great Britain and her Colonies, but of other parliamentary countries.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 106.

17. The Russians are responsible for the repair of this section, but they are not doing anything. Only their inexplicable inaction prevents the early completion of the railway to Peking.—*Ibid.* p. 1, 2nd Nov. 1900.

18. The democratic organisation of modern society fits, when applied to the Anglo-Saxon, like a garment made to order. It often sits elsewhere, like ready-made clothing which has no reference to the contour of the man inside.—GOWEN, in *Review of Reviews*, p. 90, July 1900.

19. For this audacious deed Marmion was punished by the forfeiture of his and his bride's estates to the Crown.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 22nd June 1900.

20. The essential principle of Socialism is to remedy the fatal division of humanity into two distinct classes—the possessors of capital and the instruments of production, and the proletariat who possess only the power to labour.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 79, Jan. 1901.

21. Such a party so led naturally thinks that if wisely guided it may shortly have the whole empire (Austria-Hungary) at its feet. Tradition is entirely with it, and the army, which is nearly as powerful as in Germany, will (it is calculated) always obey the Emperor.—*Spectator*, p. 611, 27th April 1901.

22. That period can be divided into two distinctly well-marked divisions, viz. the period before the year 1886, the year of the first fatal disruption of the Liberal party.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 11th July 1901.

23. After having thus, as he believed, assured the security of his country abroad, the idea never occurred to him to analyse and assuage its internal ills.—BLOWITZ, *North American Review*, p. 29, Jan. 1901.

24. Even as a work of art Kinglake's *Crimean War*, notwithstanding the excess of care and elaboration bestowed upon it, does not rank so high as it might have done if it had been less diffuse and crowded with details.—GRAHAM, *Victorian Literature*, p. 225.

25. One would suppose that the idea of the Troll who was half diabolic, which was so familiar to the Scandinavian, would greatly attract writers weary of ordinary men and their vulgar passions; but it has been seldom used, and still more seldom wisely.—*Spectator*, p. 741, 24th Nov. 1900.

26. A certain number of clergymen, small though it might be, were determined, if they could, to convert the ritual and doctrine of the Church of England to something differing from the ritual of the Church of Rome only upon such questions as the supremacy of the Pope.—Report of Balfour's Speech in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 5, 11th May 1899.

27. The ex-President has no longer his right hand on the throat of the British settler and his left in the latter's pocket.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 741, Nov. 1900.

28. His career is a shining example of the slow triumph of sheer merit, invincible patience, conduct, and character.—*Spectator*, p. 518, 12th Oct. 1901.

29. Anglicanism, hateful to Scotland in itself and because it was English, had been forced upon her.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 135.

30. After courteously affording the prime mover full opportunity of such explanation, we have failed to obtain any from him or from any one.—*Church Gazette*, p. 114, 20th May 1899.

31. Those who have studied the question are aware that, alone, the parochial authorities cannot deal with London's need for increased housing.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 981, Dec. 1900.

32. In Germany the landlords, always poor for their position, which is socially better even than in England, had been heavily hit by falling prices and a rising rate of wages, due chiefly to the swarming towards the towns and emigration.—*Spectator*, p. 789, 23rd Nov. 1901.

33. The renewal by Germany of the commercial treaties which are about to expire is not only a subject of dispute with the Austrian, Russian, and American Governments, but of a furious internal contest between the agrarians and the citizens, who object to further taxes on food.—*Ibid.* p. 789, 23rd Nov. 1901.

34. Some writers hold that the dreams of profound sleep are the most clear, and if any dreams are significant, are the most so.—*Ibid.* p. 803, 23rd Nov. 1901.

35. It is interesting to remind ourselves how singularly Great

Britain has been favoured in the length which the Victorian reign has already attained. Newton made a calculation that the average duration is but nineteen years, while, if we confine ourselves to English sovereigns, we reach only twenty-three and a half years. Victoria's reign is nearly three times as much as the average.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 19th Jan. 1901.

36. But the jury, having given their verdict, surely it must be respected, and we cannot see how the English people can feel affronted by the acquittal of Sipido on the grounds of his lack of "discernment."—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 5, 4th Aug. 1900.

37. There are, he says, three great national reforms which cannot wait—legislation in respect of temperance and the housing of the working classes, and fearless administrative reform, more especially of the War Office.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 24th Sept. 1900.

38. He hoped that the difference of opinion which had led to the break-down of the County Council's project would prove to have been due to some explicable misunderstanding.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 27th March 1901.

39. It is believed that on these points the British and American proposals are not identical, but are substantially the same.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 10th May 1899.

40. If we want to be friends with America, we ought not to stand in America's way where our interests are secondary and hers are supreme.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 570, Oct. 1901.

41. Neither side could place itself in the other's position, and the half-truth, which is all that being reasonable from one's point of view amounts to, does not necessarily dovetail with what another puts faith in from another standpoint.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 197, Jan. 1901.

42. The American statesmen would, it appears, leave the Government of China to punish the authors of the outrages, ask an almost nominal indemnity, and then as far as possible restore the *status quo*, especially not asking any demolition of forts or fortified residences for the Legations.—*Spectator*, p. 733, 24th Nov. 1900.

43. On the other hand, in a market in which and while British coal has a monopoly, the consumer will appear generally to pay the duty.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 1100, June 1901.

44. I have not denied and have no desire to deny that sport is cruel. But the distinction in degree between its cruelties and those of torturing caged animals is so obvious to myself, that I spare the reader's time and assume that it is equally obvious to him.—*Ibid.* p. 391, March 1900.

45. At the annual meeting of the H. Ordnance Company, held in London yesterday, he reminded the shareholders of the strange position of the Company, which had no works in England, and that war material was contraband.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 11th April 1900.

46. He took God to witness that he would tell the truth and the whole truth, and now he admits that he did not do it, and broke his oath, but promises to tell the whole truth for the first time, because now either himself or Dreyfus must be sacrificed.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 11th Aug. 1899.

47. It seems as though the tactics of the Cabinet consisted in

letting the leaders of the Opposition place themselves in a corner by attacking the whole policy of expansion until the moment, a few days hence, when the news will come of the occupation of the Saumun Bay by the Italian squadron.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 2nd May 1899.

48. If the instrument in question was used legitimately, there was no criminal act, even if it was negligently used.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 12th Dec. 1898.

49. Halifax was a man of a very different stamp, a philosophic statesman, an excellent political writer, broad in his views, with a mind only too well balanced, since he could never incline to decisive action.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 39.

50. In connection with the London water inquiry now in progress, the President of the Local Government Board is being urged not to sanction the regulations proposed by the eight companies without the assent of Parliament, having regard to the expense which the regulations would throw upon consumers, and the alarm they have created among the local authorities and the inhabitants.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 23rd Feb. 1901.

51. The Danes who are at present English prisoners of war will be released, but only on condition that they leave South Africa temporarily.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 16th Oct. 1900.

52. She has studied all kinds of authorities, she knows her Rome and loves it with a passion which is real, though disappointing in expression.—*Spectator*, p. 145, 25th Jan. 1902.

53. He charges the Colonial Government with taxing the native twice over, by the ordinary indirect taxation gathered in customs, and by the poll-tax which falls only on Fijians, from which all other inhabitants are exempt.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 64, Jan. 1901.

54. The chief difference between this fleet and that commanded by Sir Charles Napier was, that whereas one division of the latter was composed chiefly of sailing line-of-battle ships, the former was entirely composed of vessels propelled by steam. The latter, too, was without floating batteries and mortar vessels, with which the former was provided. It was followed by a flotilla of gunboats, while Sir Charles Napier's fleet was attended by only one.—MOLESWORTH, *History of England*, iii. 53.

55. In 1254 the Pope, who had been warring in Italy against the descendants of the Emperor Frederiek, who had married Henry III.'s sister, offered the crown of Sicily, which had been part of the dominions of that monarch, to Richard, Henry's brother. He refused it, and it was accepted for Edmund, the king's second son, then nine years old.—RANSOME, *Short History of England*, p. 88.

56. In England itself there was peace for some time after 1572. In 1579, however, a small force landed in Ireland in the name of the Pope, hoping to strike at England most effectually in that quarter. They achieved no success. Next year a number of Italians and Spaniards also landed in Ireland, but these also the English Lord Deputy was able to overthrow. But now the Irish arose under the Earl of Desmond, and the rebellion was not put down until 1583.—*Short History of England*, p. 223.

57. The naturally chivalrous feeling of men towards women is not weakened, but strengthened, by the confidence which such a position

creates, and which must prevent a man of honour taking advantage of it; added to which, though a girl may in reality know less of the darker side of life than in a time of more supervision, the self-reliance which is the result of her independence must enable her better to stand alone and take care of herself.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 637, Oct. 1900.

CHAPTER VI.—EUPHONY

85. Elegance.—Elegance implies two things—(1) “that all homely and coarse words or phrases shall be avoided, even at the expense of brevity; (2) that in respect of the sound of sentences there shall be a smooth and easy flow of words” (WHATELY).

86. Refinement of Diction.—Elegance in the first sense, *i.e.* the avoidance of coarse words and phrases, is secured—(a) sometimes by circumlocution; (b) sometimes by using a less common word, which, though it expresses the same thing, appears to express it in a less offensive form, because it is less common; (c) sometimes by the decent obscurity of a foreign word or phrase, as in example (2):—

- (1) An uglier phrase was now coming on the stage; I mean what is now the national oath of England.
- (2) *Effluvia*, a Latin Plural noun, used to avoid the word “stinks.”

87. Smoothness of Diction: Euphony.—This kind of elegance is generally called euphony,—that quality of style which pleases the ear. The writer himself must have a good ear, if he wishes to know what will please the ear of his readers. A few hints, however, are herewith offered for guidance:—

- (1) Avoid ending a sentence with a short and pointless word:—

The walls of the fortress, battered with guns from the ships and artillery from the shore for a space of eight hours, *fell*.
(Write, “were demolished.”)

- (2) Avoid using two constructions, when it is possible to use one:—

They suspected that he had been bribed and given an unjust sentence. (Here there is an abrupt and misleading transition from the Passive voice to the Active. Write: “They suspected that he had received a bribe and given an unjust sentence.”)

They believe it (republicanism) to be for the healing of all nations, and that civilisation must either advance or retrograde according as its supremacy is extended or curtailed.—

Fortnightly Review, p. 1018, Dec. 1901. (Write: "That republicanism is for the healing of all nations, and that," etc.)
The attendance begins to fall off, on account of the commencement of haying, harvest, hopping, or other such operations.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 20th March 1901. (Write "harvesting" for *harvest*).

(3) Avoid using the same form of participle more than once in the same phrase or in close proximity. This is apt to produce obscurity as well as discord:—

Yesterday the vestry of St. George, Hanover Square, decided to seal the memorial to be presented to the Duke of Devonshire, *praying* for the introduction of a bill in the next session of Parliament *providing* for the creation of metropolitan municipalities.—*Daily Telegraph*, 21st Jan. 1898. (Write, "which should provide for the creation.")

Mr. Garrett, the magistrate in the South-Western District, simply expressed the opinion of all sensible people when *stating* his surprise at the Legislature not *passing* a Bill *forbidding performing* bears in the crowded thoroughfares of London and its suburbs.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 8th May 1901. (Write, "that the Legislature did not pass a Bill which should forbid.")

In Ireland, as we know, the war has *created divided* sympathies.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, Jan. 1900. (Write "a division of sympathies.")

(4) Avoid using the same word twice in a different connection:—

To enable us to make the *necessary* arrangements, it is *necessary* for us to hear not later than noon on Friday, 21st current.—*Daily Telegraph*, 20th Jan. 1898. (Write "requisite" for the first "necessary.")

He said that he had asked the Mayor *if* he would take the chair at a public meeting, *if* it were thought necessary to call one, to discuss the question of the new scheme.—*Ibid.* p. 11, 3rd June, 1901. (Write "whether" for the first "if.")

I do not *for a moment* suppose that Lord Salisbury and the British Government would *for a moment* have failed to prevent that raid if they had not been deceived.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 29th March 1900. (Write "on any account" for the second "for a moment.")

(5) Avoid using the same word twice in different senses:—

He *means* to take advice as to the best *means* of testing the fact. (Write "method" or "mode" for the second "means," or "intends" for the first one.)

We (the writer) will now explain how *we* (men in general) are led into making such a mistake.

When a minister has a Bill to introduce, or an important statement to make, it is evident that his precedence should be absolute *when* questions are disposed of.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 14th May 1901. (Write "*as soon as* questions have been disposed of.")

(6) Avoid using words of nearly the same sound within a short interval, unless the play upon words is intentional :—

The action for libel brought by Miss —, a nurse, against Mr. —, in respect of a *letter* the *latter* had written to a relative, terminated in favour of the defendant.—*Daily Telegraph*, 27th Jan. 1898. (Write “which he” for “the latter.”)

If all local authorities *affected acted* in the same manner, ratepayers might receive some benefit from unity.—*Ibid.* 8th Feb. 1898. (Write “concerned” for “affected.”)

(7) Avoid mixing Present participles too freely with Verbal nouns or Gerunds. The frequent repetition of *-ing* not only has a bad sound, but may lead to some confusion in the mind of the reader :—

The Epistle to the Hebrews, *bearing* in its title a special form of address, is yet universal in its drift, as *designing* to convince all mankind of the necessity of *seeking* for happiness in a future life and *avoiding* all things *leading* men to sin. (Write : “The epistle to the Hebrews, though it bears in its title a special form of address, is yet universal in its drift, as its aim is to convince all mankind of the necessity of seeking for happiness in a future life and avoiding everything that may lead men to sin.”)

(8) Avoid using a string of Relatives in the same sentence :—

The doctrine in question only appears a paradox, because it has usually been so expressed as apparently to contradict these well-known facts ; *which*, however, were equally well known to the authors of the doctrine, *who* therefore could only have adopted from inadvertence any form of expression *which* could to a candid person appear inconsistent with it.—J. S. MILL. (Write “the said facts” for the first “which.”)

Few, indeed, are those who still linger among us who took an active part in the great movement of 1848.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 343, April 1898. (Write “still lingering among us.”)

It is not the lads *who* play, but those *who* “shun delights and live laborious days,” *that* make their own names famous and their country great and prosperous.—*Spectator*, p. 836, 8th Dec. 1900. (Here no change is needed.)

(9) Avoid using adverbs close together for qualifying different words :—

In fact, those who study such matters *closely, already*, I think, perceive the tentative beginnings, etc.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 261, Feb. 1898. (Write, “perceive already, I think.”)

(10) Avoid using verbs in different tenses without necessity :—

The lion *roared* to a false note, and then *rates* the jackals for yelping in unison.—*Daily Telegraph*, 5th Feb. 1898.

(11) Adverbs or adverbial phrases that qualify the same word should be separated by some intervening word, if the construction admits of it:—

He, *at four o'clock p.m., in spite of his contract, obstinately and with some acrimony* declared that he would not work another hour. (Write: "At four o'clock p.m. he, in spite of his contract, declared obstinately and with some acrimony that he would not work another hour.")

After he had previously partly prepared some matter, he was six months in putting this book into form.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 5th May 1899. (Omit *previously*, which is implied in *had*.)

The Dominion House of Commons to-day *practically unanimously* endorsed the Pacific Cable Scheme.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 26th July 1899. (Write "almost unanimously" or "with practical unanimity.")

(12) A noun should not be qualified by a noun-phrase or by a noun and adjective which are connected by *and*:—

The railway magnates of the States have settled their differences by bringing the trans-Continental lines under the *community of interests plan*.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 16th Nov. 1901. (Write, "under the plan of community of interests.")

Wesleyanism is democratic in its *essential and root constitution*.—*Spectator*, p. 346, 14th Sept. 1901. (Write "in its essential and radical constitution." But the words *and radical* are superfluous.)

(13) Avoid mixing up one form of comparison with another in the same sentence, or, if the mixture is unavoidable, put the shortest adjective first:—

He is one of the *most beautiful and sweetest* characters of the Middle Ages. — GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 48. (Say "sweetest and most beautiful.")

(14) Avoid awkward constructions to which the ear is not accustomed:—

Flying visits to settlements of Finns, Poles, Bohemians, and Russians, located along the Northern Pacific, *disclosed them to have attained* a degree of Americanisation, etc.—*Harper's Magazine*, Feb. 1898. (Write, "disclosed the fact that these communities had attained," etc.)

The suspicion has, as was to be expected, crept into many minds that the majority of the judges believed the accused to be not guilty, but that, save two, they had not the courage to acquit him.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 11th Sept. 1899. (Write, "but that only two had the courage," etc.)

The proposal gives four new seats in the first ward and four in the second, *immediately when* the new voters' lists are made out.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 26th July 1899. (Write "as soon as.")

The French fleet at that time was *by far neither so large nor so well prepared* as it is now.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 611, April 1900. (Write, “was not nearly so large nor so well prepared,” etc.)

88. Rhythm (Gr. *rhuthmos*, measured flow or motion) is the “musical flow of language.” This is produced for the most part by a well-balanced recurrence of pauses and accents. Rhythm has nothing to do with rime (misspelt *rhyme*). It is a saying as old as Aristotle that “prose must be rhythmical, but not metrical” (*Rhetoric*, 8, § 3).

I give a few examples of sentences in which the rhythm might be improved:—

As the Spaniard was to the Mexican, so was the Norman with his mailed horsemen and his bowmen to the naked Celt.—*United Kingdom*, i. 102. (The noun “bowmen” requires some epithet, such as “skilful,” “practised,” as a balance to the epithets “mailed” and “naked.”)

That Government should be parliamentary, not by prerogative, the Revolution had decided.—*Ibid.* ii. 156. (For “parliamentary” write “by parliament,” as a balance to “by prerogative.”)

Weakness he (Charles I.) inherited from his father, and it appears, together with his likeness to James, in the portrait of him by Dobson, though not in the somewhat idealised portrait by Van Dyck.—*Ibid.* i. 469. (This ill-balanced sentence requires to be recast altogether.)

As examples of well-balanced sentences we may quote the following from the same author:—

Wealth won by plunder is always curst, and curst in its effects on national character was the wealth which England won by the plunder of France.—*Ibid.* i. 214.

In passing judgment on the policy of a king, we must bear in mind not only the character of the matter with which he had to deal, but that of the instruments with which he had to work.—*Ibid.* i. 80.

In war-power there is usually a political element. British aristocracy showed its constancy in the struggle with France and Napoleon, as Roman aristocracy showed its constancy in the struggle with Carthage and Hannibal.—*Ibid.* ii. 279.

Exercise on Chapter VI.

Improve, where you find it necessary, the euphony of the following sentences:—

1. This huge work is practically a new history of Venice by Mr. W. C. Hazlitt, upon whose wonderful industry we may congratulate him.—*Spectator*, p. 600, 27th April 1901.

2. Much could, and should, be done to bring order into the chaotic state of things which must result from the lack of co-ordination among the productive forces of the Empire, and the realisation of this is the real tendency and the chief merit of M. Witte's policy.—*Contemporary Review*, April 1901.

3. Appearances were so favourable that, when they parted at night, she would have felt almost sure of success if he had not been to leave Hertfordshire so very soon.—JANE AUSTEN, *Pride and Prejudice*, ch. xxii.

4. The disciples, who forbade the irregulars, who cast out devils and did many wonderful works in the name of Christ, because they followed not the officially appointed teachers, set an example not to be followed, but to be avoided.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 292, Sept. 1900.

5. There are thousands of Englishmen who would not mind being told they were no Christians to do so-and-so, who would mind being told they were not gentlemen to do so-and-so, and who would not do wrong if they knew the facts of the case: who would not destroy native independence and institutions if they knew what these things really were.—*Miss Kingsley's Letters to an educated African Native*.

6. As our readers know, we think sugar too important an article of food and too much of a raw material to be taxed, and we would far rather have seen the money required obtained by other means.—*Spectator*, p. 556, 20th April 1901.

7. Lord Curzon labours with much elaboration to show that lieutenant-governors of the Punjab neither know nor have known anything of the trans-Indus frontier.—*Empire Review*, p. 277, April 1901.

8. It may not be easy to get out of deep and long-established ruts, but at any rate it should be recognised that the risk of seriously checking recruiting by making sweeping alterations is no longer present.—*Ibid.* p. 257, April 1901.

9. In other words, in spite of all the calculated gloom of partisan prophets of evil, the Empire is not only magnificent—it is business.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 28th April 1901.

10. The enemy were thus prevented from retreating through and looting Spring Valley.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 18th March 1901.

11. One of my friends informed me to-night that before leaving Kumasi it was resolved that such a dinner as this should be held. I take it the conditions were somewhat different then to many of you to what they are now.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 18th April 1901.

12. It is said that they are anxious to surrender, and that it is only the mercenaries and rebels, who have nothing to lose, who desire the continuation of the struggle.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 22nd Feb. 1901.

13. Mr. A. Davies asked the First Lord of the Treasury if he would state if in the promised inquiry into the conduct of the war would be included the hiring of transports; the price paid; the length of the passages; the food supplied to the troops; and why the fast mail steamers were not requisitioned.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 30th March 1901.

14. I am perfectly certain that in everything he said he was

animated by a perfectly sincere and single-minded desire to benefit his constituents and the country of his adoption.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 22nd Feb. 1901.

15. If one may judge from some remarks made to me to-day by a Bulgarian statesman, the danger can only be averted by the concession by Turkey to Macedonia of the long-promised reforms.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 22nd Feb. 1901.

16. But such a tax would hit the consumer; and free-trade purists, regarding it as the thin end of the wedge, would assuredly work up a strenuous agitation against it, especially with the industrial outlook what it is.—*Daily Express*, p. 1, 27th March 1901.

17. I may remark in conclusion that Professor Masson thinks Milton's blindness led him to dwell most on, and best present, all luminous effects, all contrasts of light and shade.—*School World*, p. 54, Feb. 1901.

18. He preferred the country, she the town. There was absolutely nothing to keep them together. People got into hardly inquiring after Madame de Bragade.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 379, Feb. 1900.

19. There are three measures in particular which are looked askance on by Unionist Governments because they are held to be destructive of majorities.—*Spectator*, p. 412, 23rd March, 1901.

20. The thirst in me showed early, and I was conveniently switched off to a works on the Clyde side.—*Pearson's Magazine*, p. 21, Jan. 1901.

21. I think I have dismissed what I may call the subsidiary garnishings of the right hon. gentleman's speech, and I come to his central criticism, which dealt with a topic which undoubtedly is that which most deeply occupies us at the present time.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 15th Feb. 1901.

22. The portraits of Lord Rosebery number a score. Some day he will have to have a chamber in the National Portrait Gallery all to himself.—*Spectator*, p. 60, 12th Jan. 1901.

23. Surrounded as he has been by pitfalls of all kinds, and the centre of every form of ill-natured gossip, he has done his duty with a devotion of which we may all feel proud.—*Ibid.* p. 338, 9th March 1901.

24. The silver reserve, instead of increasing, has for some time back been again diminishing,—a fact which appears to prove that the supply of rupees has not kept pace with trade requirements, which is somewhat disquieting in view of the near approach of the busy season.—*Pioneer Mail*, p. 13, 16th Nov. 1900.

25. Nay, we may ascribe to a certain extent to circumstance much that appears censurable in that great man's life.—*Ibid.* p. 134, Jan. 1901.

26. Two courses, it was pointed out, were open to an effective journal in discussing questions that have an agitating influence, which admit of diversity of aspect, upon which men feel deeply and think variously.—*Ibid.* p. 105, Jan. 1901.

27. He is perfectly correct in attributing the result of the last general election to distrust in and failure to grasp the policy of the Liberal party.—*Ibid.* p. 37, Jan. 1901.

28. The jury, after considering the matter in private for five minutes, returned a verdict that C. H. died as the result of an

illegal operation, but there was not sufficient evidence to prove by whom it was performed.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 4, 12th Jan. 1901.

29. The enemy, he states, as well as having large stores at Wepener, are working two flour-mills on the Caledon River.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 14th March 1901.

30. This is the attempt that has been overthrown, and which attacked in South Africa the vital principle that prevails in every other part of our political system.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 5th Jan. 1901.

31. While the thorn was planted in our side by others, we had placed the destinies of our country in the hands of a statesman and of a Government who seemed more efficient obstructionists of our chances than our competitors themselves.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 5th Jan. 1901.

32. Arbitration was accepted, but all sorts of impossible conditions were made which made it equivalent to a refusal.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 559, Dec. 1900.

33. In every German railway station and in every German hotel the visitor finds himself buying postcards, some of which are very good, but many of which are very poor, and which he can dispatch to his friends at home as a kind of memorandum as to where he is.—*Ibid.* p. 63, Jan. 1901.

34. The expression of these ideas are anathema to those who belong to the official clique, who look with jealous resentment on any one who ventures to enlarge or ignore the sacred pronouncements of the National Liberal Federation.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 37, Jan. 1901.

35. It conferred security of tenure subject to certain reasonable statutory conditions, and it extended to a certain extent the free sale of the tenants' interest.—*Ibid.* p. 2, Jan. 1901.

36. As regards ethics he rightly holds that the agnostic, though by training and disposition he may be (as most are) an excellent man, has nevertheless no ultimate ground for leading a good life.—*Spectator*, p. 21, 5th Jan. 1901.

37. The way to stop an atmosphere of suspicion growing up is not to encourage a blind and reckless trustfulness, not merely in known men, but in all future holders of office, but instead to have an etiquette as regards high political office which shall banish as far as possible the opportunities and temptations of misconduct.—*Ibid.* p. 928, 22nd Dec. 1900.

38. Yesterday's meeting of the foreign Ministers was a somewhat stormy one, owing to the desire to discover who it is who discloses to the Chinese what every Minister is pledged to keep secret.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 22nd Dec. 1900.

39. However great may be the pro-Consuls who follow, the advent of none can have the peculiar interest which attaches to to-day.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 15th Dec. 1900.

40. I am perfectly certain the noble earl is as incapable of misusing his position as a minister of the Crown as any of those who have occupied that high and honourable position.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 15th Dec. 1900.

41. We should also desire that nothing should be done, if possible, which can aggravate the discontent which I fear exists in parts of our own colony, concerning which I shall be very glad to have

authentic information from the Government.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 7th Dec. 1900.

42. At twenty-four he entered Parliament, but he found his philosophic Whiggism an impossible working creed.—*Spectator*, p. 775, 1st Dec. 1900.

43. We find ourselves compelled to disagree with Mr. T.'s very sweeping statement that "the Gospels, the Epistles, the Apocalypse, are as non-Hellenic as anything could be and be written in Greek."—*Spectator*, p. 841, 8th June 1901.

44. The greatest alteration of all is one that was barely suspected in 1875, and whose possibility would have seemed the wildest and least scientific of dreams to Herschel.—*Ibid.* p. 880, 15th June 1900.

45. Another defect in Mr. Clifton Johnson's method is that it made him acquainted with the peasantry and burgesses alone, and their amiable materialism, so much in evidence, is yet not the only ruling spirit in France to-day.—*Ibid.* p. 752, 24th Nov. 1900.

46. Before all things London is a place to be lived in, and a place to be got about in. Whatever merits it may possess in the former of these respects, it leaves much to be desired in the latter. The congestion of the streets grows worse every year.—*Ibid.* p. 740, 24th Nov. 1900.

47. At the same time I felt it my duty to, and I invariably did, make due representations to the commissioner on the gross neglect of drainage measures.—*Pioneer Mail*, p. 20, 9th Nov. 1900.

48. I lived lately for fifteen years in Suffolk. My labouring men there would not, when I offered it to them when working on a hot day, drink brewers' beer. They brewed their own beer in their cottages.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 11, 28th Nov. 1900.

49. If you ask them if no sanctity attaches to the obligation of an oath, they smile, and repeat the old formula, "they only swore with their lips."—*Ibid.* p. 7, 19th Nov. 1900.

50. The future judgments for deeds done in the body was a later idea which we owe to the development of Greek thought, which, as far as we know, first found expression in Pindar, the most religious of Greek poets, and which was further elaborated by Plato.—*Spectator*, p. 320, 2nd March 1900.

51. It is a merciless, yet perfectly fair, exposure of the blind limitations, the pride, the complete inability to conceive any point of view other than the purely selfish one, the astonishing pressing even of Christianity itself into the service of imperial expansion.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 392, Oct. 1900.

52. There are no third-class lavatories, though the journey third-class takes nearly nineteen hours. This form does not compare very favourably with our magnificent expresses with their really comfortable third-class corridors and dining cars.—*Spectator*, p. 524, 20th Oct. 1900.

53. The railway takes you to Voiron, whence a mountain railway carries you by winding routes to a little town, whence you may walk or drive to the "world-famed" Carthusian home."—*Ibid.* p. 522, 20th Oct. 1900.

54. The year 1899-1900 has proved to be the record year for the New Zealand railways, the business carried on and the revenue

received not only having exceeded that of any previous year, but the increased receipts of the past year over the immediately preceding year have exceeded all former increases.—*Auckland Weekly News*, p. 9, 24th Aug. 1900.

55. It is to be hoped that the scattered remnants of the hostile armies will recognise this fact without the penalty having to be severely exacted.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 3rd Oct. 1900.

56. The Sultan has ordered the execution of Abdullah Hussein, who led the attack on and bombardment of the Government House at Saena, shortly before the Jubilee.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 10th Oct. 1900.

57. In case of another Power making use of the complications in China in order to obtain territorial advantages, the two contracting parties reserve to themselves to come to a preliminary understanding as to the eventual steps to be taken for the protection of their own interests in China.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 22nd Oct. 1900.

58. The fatal woman who seems to have been born to fulfil the old prophecy that one of her sex would bring ruin upon the kingdom, and her satellites are now proved to be steeped to the eyes in a deliberate infamy that has placed them beyond the pale of pardon.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 17th Oct. 1900.

59. By all means devise a means to train the soldier (Neptune himself, as Mr. Brodrick points out, provides sufficient training for the sailor), the lawyer, the teacher, and the farmer.—*Spectator*, p. 465, 6th Oct. 1900.

60. South Africa is a white man's country in which the Englishman can live and bring up his children and found a family, to which he can bequeath ancestral estates, which will enable its scions to take rank in some African Burke's *Landed Gentry*.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 228, Feb. 1901.

61. Milner used to come down to the *Pall Mall* office usually late, invariably accompanied by an umbrella with an extraordinary eagle's head as its handle, with very conspicuous eyes.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 20, July 1899.

62. Mr. W. M. Webb expounds Mr. Flinders Petrie's discoveries concerning "The New Race" whose remains have been found in Upper Egypt, whose date was first put three or four thousand years B.C., but who are relegated to the "pre-historic" era.—*Ibid.* p. 491, Nov. 1899.

63. In Queen Elizabeth's times the processions were forbidden, but it was enjoined that the people should once in the year, at the time accustomed with the rector or vicar of the parish, walk about the parishes, as they were accustomed, and at their return to the church make their common prayer.—*Church Gazette*, p. 75, 6th May 1899.

64. The person about whom gathered almost as much interest as about the prisoner himself, Lizzie's appearance in the witness-box caused a profound sensation.—MRS. LYNN LINTON, *Lizzie Lorton*, iii. 283.

65. With the exception of Sir Edward Grey, no member of the Opposition in either House of Parliament has gained added reputation, and few have maintained the full credit previously possessed.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 8th Aug. 1900.

66. Mr. W. J. amidst tremendous disorder charged the police with partisanship by ejecting Liberals from the building, but the officer in charge denied the truth of the accusation.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 24th Jan. 1901.

67. "Whenever an opportunity occurs when the temporary differences have become unimportant," continued the letter, "I trust that I may have the good fortune of being commissioned by my fellow-citizens to return to the House of Commons."—*Ibid.* p. 6, 31st Aug. 1900.

68. The enemy opened a heavy fire, and men fell thickly as the two companies fell back."—*Ibid.* p. 8, 28th Aug. 1900.

69. There still remain other purposes which all the Powers have in common, which have been referred to in the communications of the Russian *chargé d'affaires*, and which were specifically enumerated in our note to the Powers.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 1st Sept. 1900.

70. From conversations which I have just had with competent authorities, I have derived the impression that they have arrived at the opinion that the South African problem is virtually solved.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 13th Sept. 1900.

71. A sentence three years in excess of this was passed on William H. N., a draper, for carrying on the receiving of stolen goods on a large scale.—*Ibid.* p. 8, 14th Oct. 1901.

72. Mr. Henry Neill, of New Orleans, who had stuck to it through the winter that the cotton crop of 1899 was a bumper harvest of eleven million bales, acknowledged that it had turned out to amount only to about nine millions and a half.—*Spectator*, p. 364, 22nd Sept. 1900.

73. Candles burn and incense is offered on the domestic altar.—DOANE, *Bible Parallels*, p. 317.

74. It must be humiliating reading to those members of the Church who think that intrigue and the odour of sanctity are inconsistent.—*Daily News*, p. 8, 3rd May 1899.

75. To what purpose does he receive so large an income? It is to perform the functions of a bishop, including answering such questions as can only be asked in the House of Lords.—*Church Gazette*, p. 86, 13th May 1899.

76. With few exceptions, his attitudes, temper of mind, and emphasis are invariably truly and firmly placed.—*Westminster Review*, July 1900.

77. I have seen passages in that journal, in which your name appears, which leads me to believe you can give first-hand information on several of these points.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 24th Aug. 1900.

78. The attempt to deprive him of his birthright having failed, had increased his popularity.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, p. 57.

79. When *The Light That Failed* was read by (and delighted) so many thousands years ago, there was hardly one of his critics who had a good word to say for it—as a novel.—*St. James's Gazette*, p. 5, 1st Oct. 1901.

80. Mr. George Alfred Townsend is very little known in this country as a poet, and little more so in America.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 582, June 1900.

81. The experiment of making the Cabinet more representative, and therefore larger, though quite allowable had the time been less brimful of difficulties, has distinctly failed.—*Spectator*, p. 649, 2nd Nov. 1901.

82. I went out in the spring of the year in question, and during which year it was important to have a certain definite length constructed.—*St. James's Gazette*, p. 7, 1st Oct. 1901.

83. How many persons are there who can talk confidently of the peculiarities of Wordsworth, whose acquaintance with his poetry, limited to their own recollections of early childhood, has carried them little further than "Lucy Gray," or "We are Seven" !—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 598, Oct. 1901.

84. Our rooted dislike of all real realism affects our affairs more injuriously than our art.—*Ibid.* p. 295, Aug. 1900.

85. Whether the Government which has been in name at Peking remains so in fact, or whether it be more widely diffused amongst those viceroys who have now in many respects so independent a position, that Government must be, in the first place, by Chinese for the Chinese.—*Spectator*, p. 131, 4th Aug. 1900.

86. Any co-operation in protecting the plants from the ravages of pet dogs and cats is impossible to get.—*Ibid.* p. 143, 4th Aug. 1900.

87. We understand that the so-called delegates, four in number, with a travelling companion, who are at present in London, have no official standing whatever, and that their visit to this country is wholly without importance.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 11th July 1900.

CHAPTER VII.—PICTURESQUENESS.

89. Picturesqueness described.—The quality discussed in this chapter is called "picturesqueness," because it is an attempt to rival, by the inferior instrumentality of language, the effects of a painted picture,—to make the reader see with the mind's eye the objects and events that are put before him in words. Impressiveness (described in chap. v.) appeals chiefly to the understanding; picturesqueness to the imagination. Each in its own way excites attention and takes hold of the memory.

"The various arts contributing to the qualities of Clearness, Simplicity, and Impressiveness are even more necessary in overcoming the difficulties of the Picturesque. Moreover, these arts need to be supplemented by devices specially suited to the case" (BAIN).

90. Graphic Words.—In words the quality most useful for producing the effect desired is their speciality. The more general the term is, the fainter is the picture; the more special the term is, the more vivid the picture. Hence, if a writer desires to make his readers realise as if it were present

the scene or situation that he attempts to represent, he employs words as particular and determinate in sense as the scope of the subject will allow.

Thou didst blow with thy wind, the sea covered them, they *sank* as *lead* in the mighty waters.—Exodus xv. 10. (This is more graphic than to say “they fell as metal.”)

The kiss *snatched* hasty from the *side-long* maid,
On purpose guardless.—THOMSON'S *Winter*.

So far had the fury of religious war abated, that the Regent's minister, Dubois, owed the cardinal's hat, under which his wickedness *grinned*, partly to British influence at Rome.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 174.

Wilkes meanwhile became the idol of the hour, was elected to the highest offices of the city, and touched the civic skies *with his impish head*.—*Ibid.* i. 433.

By systematic reading, he said, they were lifted from the ranks of *chattering* smatterers, than whom, whether men or women, none were more objectionable.—Quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, 19th May 1900.

The Queen passed across London in the morning through *living* leagues of passionate acclamation.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 9th March 1900.

Swimming is one of the most exhilarating exercises in the world. Only a swimmer knows the delicious pleasure which Byron had in memory when he wrote about “laughing from my lip the audacious brine, that kissed it like a wine-cup.” Buoyed up by the clear hyaline of the sea, tossed with its foam and ripples, caressed by its cool and clinging volume, the practised swimmer seems for a time part of the ocean which sustains him, and shares a new pleasure which was before confined to the gulls and the porpoises.—*Ibid.* p. 7, 7th Sept. 1900.

They *pounced* upon Biddle, a Socinian, and would have evidently dealt with him in the spirit of their atrocious enactment, had not the Protector *snatched* him from their *fangs*, and sent him off in *kind confinement* to the Scilly Islands.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 610.

He *crept* into the army through the militia in 1874, when twenty years of age, old for commencing his career anew.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 23rd Oct. 1901.

The hills were *alive* with the enemy when, before dawn, our advance guard moved away from camp towards the southern end of their position.—*Times Weekly*, p. 233, 13th April 1900.

Henry and Anne Boleyn went to York, Wolsey's palace, to *gloat* *with greedy eyes* over their rich spoil. Ipswich was seized by the *royal robber*.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 321.

When it was day, they knew not the land; but they perceived a *certain bay with a beach*, and they took counsel whether they could drive the ship upon it.—Acts xxvii. 39, *Revised Version*. (This is more graphic than “a certain creek with a shore,” *Authorised Version*.)

91. Concrete Similitudes.—A metaphor or simile, which represents some abstract thought under the figure of a concrete image, is of great assistance to the reader. The imagination is more strongly affected by what can be perceived by the senses than by what is conceived by the understanding:—

Labour, capital, and business-ability are the three legs of a three-legged stool; neither is the first, neither is the second, neither is the third; there is no precedence, all being equally necessary. He who would sow discord among the three is the enemy of all.—*Carnegie's Speech at Pittsburg*, quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 345, April 1901.

In the mere present, when cut off from all that has gone before, there is as much uncertainty and illusion as there is in a twilight seen through a window on suddenly awakening. The twilight then seen may be either a joyous herald of the dawn or a foreboding of the approach of night.—CROZIER, *History of Intellectual Development*, vol. iii.

The advance of the public mind resembles the rising of the tide. Each successive wave rushes forward and rolls back; but the great flood is steadily coming up.—BENTHAM.

In all things that are purely social the races can be as separate as the fingers, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress.—WASHINGTON, *Autobiography* (quoted in *Spectator*, p. 60, 13th July 1901).

The real danger of the new spirit does not lie in the loss either of energy or of enterprise, but in placing too much confidence in the capacity and resources of the State. It is not certain that because grandmother can watch the babies to their advantage, therefore she can carry the whole family upstairs.—*Spectator*, p. 181, 10th Aug. 1901.

The inference is, that a sum of forty-five million roubles, which is precisely the amount of M. Witte's sinking fund, has been used to conceal successive deficits. In this case M. Witte's method of paying off debt would be a form of feeding a dog with bits of its own tail.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 1039, June 1901.

Submerged in part for the present by the flood of conquest, the English system of local self-government was destined, when the flood subsided, to reappear.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 30.

92. Characteristic Details.—A description given in general terms, without picturesque touches or the mention of characteristic details, does not help the reader to realise the unseen as if it were seen, or the absent as if it were present.

WINTER EVENING.

Now stir the fire, and close the shutters fast,
Let fall the curtains, wheel the sofa round,
And while the bubbling and loud-hissing urn

Throws up a steamy column, and the cups
That cheer, but not inebriate, wait on each,
So let us welcome peaceful evening in.

COWPER, *The Task*.

THE MAHRATTA TERROR IN INDIA.

Wherever their kettledrums were heard, the peasant threw his bag of rice on his shoulder, tied his small savings in his girdle, and fled with his wife and children to the mountains or the jungles, and the milder neighbourhood of the hyæna and the tiger.—MACAULAY.

THE BURSTING OF A DYKE IN LINCOLNSHIRE.

No one has ever seen a fen-bank break without honouring the stern, quiet temper which there is in these men, when the north-easter is howling above, the spring-tide roaring outside, the brimming tide-way lapping up to the dyke-top, or flying over in sheets of spray; when round the one fatal thread which is trickling over the dyke—or worse, through some forgotten rat's hole in its side—hundreds of men are clustered, without tumult, without complaint, marshalled under their employers, fighting the brute powers of nature, not for their employers' sake alone, but for the sake of their own year's labour and their own year's bread. The sheep have been driven off the land below; the cattle stand ranged shivering on high dykes inland; they will be saved in punts, if the worst befall. But a hundred spades, wielded by practised hands, cannot stop that tiny rat-hole. The trickle becomes a rush, the rush a roaring waterfall. The dyke-top trembles, gives. The men make efforts, desperate, dangerous, as of sailors in a wreck, with faggots, hurdles, sedge, turf: but the bank will break; and slowly they draw off; sullen, but uncomplaining; beaten, but not conquered. A new cry rises among them. Up, to save yonder sluice; that will save yonder lode; that again yonder farm; that again some other lode, some other farm, far back inland, but guessed at instantly by men who have studied from their youth, as the necessity of their existence, the labyrinthine drainage of lands which are all below the water level, and where the inner lands in many cases are lower than those outside.—KINGSLEY, *Prose Idylls*, p. 120.

JAMES I. OF ENGLAND.

James I. of England and VI. of Scotland, set by the chance of hereditary succession to play the part of king at this crisis, is the butt of history as a learned fool fancying himself the Solomon of kingcraft. . . . He was kind-hearted, good-tempered, and as a private man would most likely have shambled through life an amiable, though laughable, pedant. But he was thoroughly weak, and destiny brought him to show his weakness on a throne, where it led him into public acts of folly, sometimes into public crimes. His figure was unkingly, his gait unsteady, his tongue too large for his mouth. His Scotch accent, which now would not be displeasing, then grated on English ears, reminding a proud and prejudiced race that he was a stranger. To his natural grotesque-

ness he added that of a dress ridiculously stuffed and padded. He was awkward and ungainly in all that he did. Devoted to hunting, he had a loose seat on horseback, and we behold him tilted out of his saddle into the New River, with nothing to be seen of him but his boots.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 433.

CAMP HOSPITAL IN SOUTH AFRICA.

A South African sun blazes on the tents, but it is tempered by breezes which sweep down from the mountains. It seems always like a perfect English midsummer day, and amid flowers and climate and scenery Wynberg is a paradise indeed.

Night falls suddenly at sundown—this is no land of twilight. The scene is then almost more picturesque even than by day, as one tramps round the camp between the tents (at imminent peril of falling over the ropes), and strange little glimpses are seen of the tent interiors.

A huge hurricane lantern, with oil-lamp inside, is placed in the middle of each tent on the rough ward table. The convalescents gather round, playing cards or draughts, and a weird half light falls on the beds. Later the tent flies are dropped, the lanterns put out, and all is still in the sleeping camp.

A stillness which is felt by those who wake in pain, and by those who watch. The line-orderly, wrapped in his long coat, parades up and down his line of tents all night. And a sister, still in scarlet and white, and swinging her hurricane lantern, does her night rounds with unerring regularity.

And the Southern Cross looks down from the star-spangled sky.—*Daily Mail*, p. 5, 14th April 1900.

CONFLAGRATION AT OTTAWA.

It was a grand, but awe-inspiring sight, those flames leaping across the Ottawa River, mercilessly attacking the best as well as the poorest houses of the capital city. There was a belt of flame fully four miles in length and at least half a mile wide. A pall of dense dark vapour streamed south-westward from the burning district, yet the sun shone clear and bright, changing the inky blackness to amber, away up in the sky to the appearance of fleecy summer clouds, while beneath it was a long line of flame, fierce, irrepressible.

All night long whole parts of the city were lit up by the glare. The cloud effect was that of a brilliant sunset, but the stars were clear and bright. Beneath were scenes of gloom and sadness—of shattered human hopes, of the destroyed efforts of a lifetime, and of gloomy outlook for the future.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 28th April 1900.

PART II.—ESSAY-WRITING.

CHAPTER VIII.—STRUCTURE OF SENTENCE.

SECTION I.—ORDER OF PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

93. Rule of Proximity.—The great rule regarding the position or juxtaposition of words is that *things which are to be thought of together must be mentioned together, i.e.* as closely together as the context or as the idiom of the language permits (§ 39). This has been called the “Rule of Proximity” (BAIN).

The same principle holds good for the position of qualifying phrases and subordinate clauses. A construction which violates this principle is called by the French *construction louche*, “a squinting construction”; or, to adopt the more homely English saying—“one eye is fixed on the kettle, while the other is looking up the chimney.” A squinting sentence is almost certain to involve a loss of perspicuity, or of energy, or of euphony, and possibly of all three combined.

(a) *Noun-clause.*—A noun-clause must be placed as close as possible to the verb or noun with which it is meant to be connected in sense:—

Original order.—Mr. J. S. Chapple points out in reference to our remark last week, that with the exception of Sir G. Scott no other architect of our time has erected a cathedral, that Mr. W. Burgess erected St. Fin Barré’s Cathedral at Cork in the year 1862.—*Church Times*, 23rd Dec. 1897.

Corrected order.—In reference to our remark last week that with the exception of Sir G. Scott no architect of our time has erected a cathedral, Mr. J. S. Chapple points out that Mr. W. Burgess erected St. Fin Barré’s Cathedral, Cork, in the year 1862.

(b) *Adverb-clause and adverbial phrase.*—An adverb-clause or adverbial phrase must be placed as close as possible to the word that it qualifies:—

Original order.—All this is meant to open the eyes of the Chinese,

and to cause them to accept each and every claim that we make upon them as soon as possible.—*Daily Telegraph*, 3rd Jan. 1898.

Corrected order.—All this is meant to open the eyes of the Chinese, and to cause them to accept as soon as possible each and every claim that we make upon them.

(c) *Adjective - clause.*—The relative pronoun or relative adverb, by which such a clause is introduced, must be placed as close as possible to its antecedent :—

Original order.—No one could doubt how great and critical was the occasion, who observed the keen and breathless interest of Parliament when Mr. Chamberlain rose to speak.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 22nd May 1900.

Corrected order.—No one who observed the keen and breathless interest of Parliament when Mr. Chamberlain rose to speak, could doubt how great and critical was the occasion.

94. Rule of Priority.—The rule of Proximity is supplemented by another—the “Rule of Priority” (BAIN). According to this rule, qualifying phrases and clauses should, as far as idiom or the context allows, precede, and not follow, the clause or words to which they are subordinate.

The principle underlying this rule is that the mind of the reader is by this means *kept in suspense*. His interest is aroused to know what is coming, and when it does come, it comes with the greater force. The principal clause thus receives the emphasis that it ought to have as principal clause, and that it is expected to have from its position at the close of the sentence (§ 72).

- (1) *Ghost.* If ever thou didst thy dear father love,
Hamlet. O heaven!
Ghost. Avenge his foul and most unnatural murder.

Observe how the effect of this dialogue would have been marred, if the order of the clauses had been reversed. Observe, too, how the interest of Hamlet has been awakened by the suspensive influence of the conditional clause. This is shown by the exclamation, “O heaven !”

- (2) Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal.—1 Cor. xiii. 1.

Compare with this well-arranged sentence the following extract from Bacon, in which the limiting clause is awkwardly put last instead of first :—

A crowd is not company, and faces are but a gallery of pictures, where there is no love.

- (3) Although nearly 2000 men have been dispatched from New

South Wales to South Africa, the colony, owing to the large numbers now voluntarily undergoing military training, is stronger for home defence than it was before.—*Daily Graphic*, p. 9, 19th Feb. 1900.

Here the Subordinate clause, "although," etc., rightly precedes the Principal; and the long phrase, "owing," etc., rightly precedes the words "is stronger," which it is intended to qualify. How very awkward and feeble the sentence would have been had the order been different! and yet it would have been quite as grammatical:—

The colony of New South Wales is stronger for home defence than it was before, owing to the large numbers now undergoing voluntary training, although nearly 2000 men have been dispatched to South Africa.

95. Exceptions to the Rule of Priority.—The rule of Proximity, so far as we can see, is without exception: the rule of Priority not always so. It may sometimes conduce to perspicuity or to some other kind of literary merit, if a subordinate clause is placed after, instead of before, the word that it qualifies. Such exceptions, however, depend entirely upon the context, and can be decided only upon the merits of the individual case:—

- (1) The very landlord's agent, who has been giving you all the landlord-side of the question, *when you come to the subject of evictions*, breaks away and becomes an Irishman.—*CAMPBELL, The Irish Land*, p. 102.

The position of the Subordinate clause printed in italics between two verbs, "has been giving" and "breaks away," is somewhat embarrassing, and on first reading it is not quite clear to which of these it belongs. The sentence would be improved if, in violation of the rule of Priority, we place the clause after, instead of before, the verb "breaks away":—

The very landlord's agent, who has been giving you all the landlord-side of the question, breaks away when you come to the subject of evictions, and becomes an Irishman.

- (2) Mr. Brodrick informed Mr. H. that the recently announced Russian loan to Persia was concluded between Russia and Persia without the knowledge of Her Majesty's Government.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 28th Feb. 1900.

The sentence would be spoilt if, in compliance with the rule of Priority, we rearranged it thus:—

Mr. Brodrick informed Mr. H. that the recently announced Russian loan to Persia was without the knowledge of Her Majesty's Government concluded between Russia and Persia.

The point of the sentence turns upon the phrase *without the knowledge of Her Majesty's Government*, and therefore it must be placed last,—the most emphatic position.

SECTION 2.—SENTENCES PERIODIC AND LOOSE.

96. Whately's Explanation of "Periodic" and "Loose."

—The following is the account given by Whately of the difference between a Periodic sentence (or Period, as it is sometimes called) and a Loose sentence. If these definitions are correct (which approximately they are), Periods to a large extent depend upon the observance of the rule of Priority, while Loose sentences are produced by violating it.

“By a Period is to be understood any sentence, whether Simple or Complex, which is so framed that the grammatical construction will not admit of a close, before the end of it; in which, in short, the meaning remains suspended, as it were, till the whole is finished.”

“A Loose sentence, on the contrary, is any that is not a Period;—any, whose construction will allow of a stop, so as to form a perfect sentence, at one or more places before we arrive at the end” (WHATELY'S *Rhetoric*, p. 205, ed. 1894).

N.B.—Among the examples quoted below, the first four are given by Whately himself to illustrate his own definitions. In the sentences placed on the left side of the column, the double stroke shows where each sentence could have stopped without being grammatically incomplete. Up to that point the sentence is Periodic. In the examples given on the right side of the column, the clause or phrase, by which “the meaning remains suspended” and the sentence is thereby converted from Loose to Periodic, is indicated by Italics:—

Loose.

(1) We came to our journey's end at last, || with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads and in bad weather.

(2) The vines afforded a refreshing shade || and a delicious fruit.

(3) The world is not eternal, || nor is it the result of chance.

(4) The Romans consider religion a part of virtue, || the Jews consider virtue a part of religion.

(5) The essence of all art is to produce an effect on the feelings and the imagination, || not to in-

Periodic.

(1) At last, with no small difficulty and after much fatigue, we came, through deep roads and in bad weather, to our journey's end.

(2) The vines afforded *both* a refreshing shade and a delicious fruit.

(3) The world is *neither* eternal nor the result of chance.

(4) *While* the Romans consider religion a part of virtue, the Jews consider virtue a part of religion.

(5) The essence of all art is *not* to inform the intellect nor to produce something practically useful,

form the intellect nor to produce something practically useful.

(6) We do not implicitly accept all his propositions, || though there is much that is sensible in his arguments.

(7) A message from Lord R., bearing Saturday's date, breaks the silence, which has seemed so long and so difficult to bear || to the general public keenly anxious to know the fate of C.

(8) The Elector was an outcast, and Mansfield, the vaunted champion of protestantism, on whom aid had been wasted, lost the cause, || and disgraced it with his vagabond host.

but to produce an effect on the feelings and the imagination.—*Literature*, p. 160, 24th Feb. 1900.

(6) *Though* there is much that is sensible in his arguments, we do not implicitly accept all his propositions.—*Ibid.* p. 152, 17th Feb. 1900.

(7) A message from Lord R., bearing Saturday's date, breaks the silence, which to the general public, keenly anxious to know the fate of C., has seemed so long and so difficult to bear.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 26th Feb. 1900.

(8) The Elector was an outcast, and Mansfield, the vaunted champion of protestantism, on whom aid had been wasted, *not only* lost, *but* with his vagabond host disgraced, the cause.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 472.

97. Advantages of the Period.—In point of energy the Period has in most cases the advantage over Loose sentences. When we meet with qualifying phrases or clauses, our tendency is to look forwards rather than backwards. Our interest is thus roused to know what is coming. A Loose sentence is less stimulating and often disappointing. "An unexpected continuance of a sentence, which the reader had supposed to be concluded, is apt to produce in the mind a sensation of being disagreeably balked, analogous to the unpleasant jar which is felt, when, in ascending or descending a flight of stairs, we meet with one step more than we had expected" (WHATELY).

While Bedford lived, though his energies were wasted in the war, he was able by his influence to keep the council, into whose hands the Government fell, for the most part in the right path.
—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 264.

This is a perfect Period. Now see how feeble and scattered the sentence becomes, when it is made Loose :—

Bedford was able by his influence to keep the council, into whose hands the Government fell, for the most part in the right path, while he lived, though his energies were wasted in the war.

98. Occasional Inconvenience of the Period.—On the other hand, the Loose sentence, though its name implies something of reproach, is at times very useful, and some sentences

would be spoilt rather than improved by an attempt to coerce them into Periods :—

- (1) As the sun at this time of the year sets as early as four o'clock, we had better start at once, if we are to get to our journey's end in daylight.

Here the rhythm is improved by placing the principal clause between the two subordinate clauses that qualify it. Moreover, the first subordinate clause does not give a full explanation of the reason for starting at once, and hence the second one does not come as "a disagreeable surprise."

- (2) Through great, low-lying fields of golden grain, over which the evening breezes swept with impetuous speed, blending the radiant yellow of the corn and the bright blood-red of the poppies in a glorious arabesque of gold and green and scarlet, the river stole.—CARPENTER'S *Rhetoric*, p. 103.

This sentence exemplifies the abuse of the Periodic style. The sentence would be greatly improved by commencing with "the river stole." Undue emphasis is given to the word "stole" by placing it last.

A Period may be so clumsily constructed that, in spite of the Periodic character being sustained to the very close, the reader's attention is never once roused. The following is an example :—

The reflections of such men are so delicate upon all occurrences which they are concerned in, that they should be exposed to more than ordinary infamy and punishment for offending against such quick admonitions as their own souls give them and blunting the fine edge of their minds in such a manner that they are no more shocked at vice and folly than men of slower capacities.—STEELE, *Spectator*, No. 6, para. 2.

Lastly, in comparing the advantages and disadvantages of the Loose sentence and the Period, we may say that a constant succession of either to the exclusion of the other is monotonous and wearisome, and should therefore be avoided. To secure variety both kinds of sentences should be judiciously mixed. A Loose sentence does not look slovenly if it is not used too often. A constant succession of Periods would inflict a too constant strain on the attention; for in reading a Period one has to keep everything on one's mind, till the concluding word, phrase, or clause gives the key to all that has gone before.

99. Main Test of a Period.—The main characteristic of a Period is not, as Whately has said, that the sentence is grammatically complete until the last word has been given, but that *the mind of the reader is held in suspense and his interest not allowed to flag to the very last.* However complete the

grammatical construction may be at some point before the close, a sentence does not deserve the opprobrious epithet of "Loose," so long as the superadded clause does not produce in the mind "a sensation of being disagreeably balked."

- (1) I venture to express the conviction, which I hold very strongly, that we shall emerge from this war far stronger as a military power than when we went into it,—stronger in numbers, in armaments, and in the knowledge that we can count upon the co-operation of our Colonies, and stronger above all in experience.—Speech quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 8 21st Feb. 1900.

The sentence becomes grammatically complete with the words "went into it." Is it therefore Loose, because a great deal more has been added? Certainly not. What follows is explanatory of what has gone before. Far from causing "a sensation of being disagreeably balked," it supplies a fine example of climax (§ 13), in which the mind ascends from one step in the argument to another.

- (2) Perhaps the discussion last night will have served its purpose, if it disposes for ever of the farrago of falsehood, innuendo, and insinuation of which we are heartily sick, constructed out of sheer malignity against a responsible minister of the Crown.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 21st Feb. 1900.

The sentence becomes grammatically complete with the words *served its purpose*. But the reader who has read thus far does not by any means feel that he has come to the logical end of the sentence. His curiosity is aroused to know, "why will this discussion have served its purpose?" This question is answered by the clauses that follow. Again, however, the sentence becomes grammatically complete with the words *heartily sick*. And again the curiosity of the reader is aroused to know "why are we heartily sick of it?" The answer is furnished by the long participial phrase commencing with *constructed*. The sentence, though Loose in form, is Periodic in fact, because the interest of the reader is sustained to the very end.

SECTION 3.—UNITY OF SENTENCE.

100. The Rule of Unity.—A sentence should deal with one main thought at a time, and not with more than one. Hence no phrase or clause should be introduced, unless it is relevant to the main point. This is known as the rule of Unity.

101. Violations of Unity.—The chief ways, in which the

rule of Unity is liable to be broken, are shown in the following examples :—

(a) A single sentence, which, though one in form, contains more than one leading thought. Such a sentence should be broken up into as many units as there are leading thoughts.

A small detached house known as Menton Villa, on whose site the Cottage Hospital now stands, was taken on lease, and a provident dispensary was opened and carried on there, for about a year and a half, with (as one of the founders has expressed it) “only small success.”—*Ealing Guardian*, p. 5, 6th May 1899.

In this sentence two leading facts are expressed—(1) the establishment of a dispensary on the site named; (2) the small success with which this dispensary was carried on. We therefore subdivide it into two sentences :—

A small detached house known as Menton Villa, on whose site the Cottage Hospital now stands, was taken on lease, and a provident dispensary was opened there. This was carried on for about a year and a half, but (as one of the founders has expressed it) “with only small success.”

(b) A series of little Periods coming one after another, as if each was of equal importance and each represented an isolated fact. Such periods should be grouped to the extent required by the rule of Unity, and when this has been done, the mind of the reader experiences a sense of relief :—

For some days Edward's death was kept a secret. Then Queen Jane was proclaimed. But the proclamation was received in silence. The people were unwilling to see the rightful heir excluded.—*Short History of England*, p. 111.

The four full stops imply that there are four leading thoughts; whereas in reality there are only two,—the proclamation of Jane as Queen, the silence with which the proclamation was received. The four sentences should therefore be grouped into two :—

A few days after Edward's death, which was kept secret for a time, Jane was proclaimed Queen. But, as the people were unwilling to see the rightful heir excluded, the proclamation was received with silence.

(c) A long parenthesis wedged into the middle of a sentence constitutes a violation of Unity.¹ A short parenthesis is admissible, because the violation is too slight to be felt :—

¹ A method is now coming into vogue, by which a parenthesis that would break the unity of the sentence, if it were wedged into the middle of it, is placed outside the sentence and enclosed in brackets. The following is an example :—

He has been persuaded to come back and resume the kingly office, in

This ill-favoured fraternity consists of a president and twelve fellows, the choice of which (*sic*) is not confined by patent to any particular foundation (as St. John's men would have the world believe, and have therefore created a separate society within themselves), but liberty is left to elect from any school in Great Britain, provided the candidates be within the rules of the club as set forth in a table entitled the Act of Deformity, a clause or two of which I shall transmit to you.—STEELE, *Spectator*, No. 17, para. 3.

There is no harm in the parenthesis as far as the word *believe*. The rest should be cancelled, as there is no need of it. *Which* should be changed to *whom*, since by the rule of Proximity (§ 93) the Relative should be as close as possible to its antecedent. The antecedent therefore is *fellows*, not *fraternity*.

(d) An irrelevant phrase or clause, which ought either to have been left out altogether, or, if mentioned at all, placed in a parenthesis, but which has been attached to the main thread of the sentence, as if it were part of the theme:—

On looking back at the House of Commons as it was thirty or forty years ago, I do think that in the past, in spite of angry controversy, there was not the vulgar personality which is now sometimes heard *with regret*.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 250, Feb. 1898.

The Unity of this sentence is marred by the last two words. The sentence should have ended with *heard*. The regret expressed is irrelevant. But if the writer wished to give expression to this sentiment, he should have used a parenthesis instead of placing the words in the emphatic position at the close of the sentence. This position renders the sentence ambiguous; for the sentence might mean that vulgar personality is not always, but only sometimes, to be regretted. Or it might mean that the angry controversies of a former day were not to be regretted, only the vulgar personality of the present day. There would be no breach of Unity and no consequent ambiguity, if the last clause were reworded thus:—"which, we regret to say, is now sometimes heard."

102. Length of a Sentence.—The length of a sentence, like the size of a box, must be determined by the amount of matter to be put into it. So no rule can be laid down that

the hope that the daily occupations and distractions of government will restore him to his right mind. (The exposition of the above state of things at the beginning of the Act by the king's chief counsellor, physician, and sister seems certainly too long and not quite consistent with itself.)—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 183, Jan. 1901.

sentences must be short or at least must not exceed a certain length. If the sense permits, it is safer to use short sentences than long ones, since long sentences are apt to become involved. But unity should not be sacrificed to shortness.

The accents of the Hebrew tongue, however harsh they might have sounded when uttered by another, had, coming from the beautiful Rebecca, the romantic and pleasing effect, which fancy ascribes to the charms pronounced by some beneficent fairy, unintelligible indeed to the ear, but from the sweetness of utterance and benignity of aspect which accompanied them, touching and affecting to the heart.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*, ch. xxviii. para. 30.

Here is a *long* sentence, in which the unity of thought is as perfect as the rhythm of the words. How different is the effect, when the sentence is broken up and its unity destroyed!

The accents of the Hebrew tongue might have sounded harsh when uttered by another. Coming from the beautiful Rebecca, they had a romantic and pleasing effect. Fancy ascribes such effect to the charms pronounced by some beneficent fairy. Those accents were unintelligible to the ear, but touching and affecting to the heart. A sweetness of utterance and benignity of aspect accompanied them.

In the following example the length of the sentence is indefensible; for the sentence is not merely long, but involved, obscure, and containing (so far as we can make out its meaning) at least two leading thoughts:—

But now we must admit the shortcomings, the fallacies, the defects, as no less essential elements in forming a sound judgment as to whether the seer and artist were so united in him as to justify the claim first put in by himself and afterwards maintained by his sect to a place beside the few great poets, who exalt men's minds and give a right direction and safe outlet to the passions through the imagination, while insensibly helping them towards balance of character and serenity of judgment by stimulating their sense of proportion, form, and the nice adjustment of means to ends.—LOWELL, *Among my Books* (2nd series, 1876), p. 202.

In all this jungle of words there seem to be at least two leading questions:—(1) What are the claims of some one to be ranked among the few great poets? (2) What are the characteristics of a great poet? If this supposition is correct, there ought to be two sentences at least, which might be stated as follows:—

If we wish to form a sound judgment as to whether the seer and (the) artist were so united in him as to justify the claim, first put in by himself and afterwards maintained by his sect, to a

place among the few great poets of our nation, we must take into account his shortcomings, fallacies, and defects no less than his merits. By "great poets" we mean those men of exceptional genius who exalt men's minds and give a right direction and safe outlet to the passions through the imagination, while insensibly helping, etc., of means to ends.

Even now the second sentence is very ungainly. The first one is guilty of the omission of "the" before "artist." We have inserted "the" to save the sentence from being ungrammatical.

Exercises on Chapter VIII.

(a) *Correct, where necessary, the order of phrases or clauses and convert the sentence from Loose to Periodic:—*

1. The present crisis, anxious though not grave, as it certainly is, is by no means unique in our history.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 12th Feb. 1900.

2. I endeavoured to match the spectacles agreeably to her commission, during my stay in London.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*, *Dedicatory Epistle*, last para.

3. The master of the ship continued his course at full speed in thick weather, when he must have known that his vessel was in the immediate neighbourhood of the headlands, without taking any steps to verify his position.—Finding of Court, quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 12th May 1899.

4. There is a curious similarity between the yachts *Shamrock* and *Columbia*, the competitors for the America cup, in all the main points, which go to make up a good racing craft, although the designers have been working independently and in different hemispheres.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 15th May 1899.

5. The Government undertakes to prevent death, and to relieve misery, from famine in British India at the cost of the Indian treasury, so far as organisation and effort can accomplish these ends.—Quoted in *Times Weekly*, p. 4, 13th April 1900.

6. A man does not rise to the position occupied by Mr. Balfour, with the universal approval of the country, without exciting one spark of jealousy amongst his supporters, without arousing a trace of irritation even amongst his opponents, without some very exceptional qualities.—Report of Mr. Chamberlain's Speech, *Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, 17th May 1900.

7. In France the whole system of "reading" (*i.e.* giving a MS. to some one to read and criticise) is absent, and yet the average French publisher will not publish any rubbish submitted to him, provided the author bear the cost, as is sometimes done in England.—*Literature*, p. 164, 24th Feb. 1900.

8. The friendly reception given to our troops by the people of Bloemfontein has gone a great way to convince those Radicals who were opposed to annexation on the ground of the trouble in which it would involve this country in governing the conquered states, of the groundlessness of their fears.—*The Globe*, p. 4, 17th March 1900.

9. A certain amount of practice (in shooting) is essential, even when the larder is not empty, in order that the unaccustomed hand may not fail when meat is needed.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 385, March 1900.

10. Mr. G. replied that the Government could not see their way to devoting a ship for Antarctic discovery, because there was not a plethora of able officers in the navy.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 9th March 1900.

11. An opposition called the country party had been formed with Shaftesbury, Holles, and Essex for leaders in the Lords, with Russell and others for leaders in the Commons, and animated by the reviving spirit of the Commonwealth.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, ii. 36.

12. The announcement is such as to, if it were possible, still more confirm us in our resolve to do our full duty in the present emergency.—Premier's Speech, quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 22nd Feb. 1900.

13. Only a few weeks ago we called the attention of the clergy and others who have to do with savings banks, or are trustees for parochial funds invested in consols, to this matter.—*Church Gazette*, p. 45, 28th April 1899.

14. The somewhat remarkable speech made yesterday by Prince Hohenlohe is regarded in political circles as an interesting exposition, being directed against France more than against Alsace-Lorraine, of Germany's actual policy, and in particular her policy towards England.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 23rd Feb. 1900.

15. Lord Salisbury made a statement in the House of Lords yesterday, which, though it only shot a canard on the wing, was of much importance.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 23rd Feb. 1900.

16. In Prussia nothing goes down with the public—that is to say, there is no independence of action or thought, unless the Crown or the Government leads the way.—*Ibid.* 28th Jan. 1898.

17. England may be proud of the valour of her troops, of her generals, and lastly, of herself, as she has known, with patience and calmness after defeat, how to wait for the hour of success.—*Ibid.* p. 10, 24th Feb. 1900.

18. The history of street-cleansing becomes quite interesting in Mr. Robinson's pages, though too long to deal with here.—*Spectator*, p. 563, 19th Oct. 1901.

19. There were very few deeply read and widely travelled thinkers who did not regard the change in the basis of the Constitution, when the franchise was finally thrown open in 1885, with distrust, and even with dread.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, 9th May 1901.

20. Two thousand Australian and Canadian troops yesterday received the valedictions of Cape Town, spoken by the Mayor, prior to embarking for their homes.—*Ibid.* p. 6, 14th Dec. 1900.

21. We should believe that Europe, bewildered by the absence of an objective, weary of expenditure without result, and at heart ashamed of a slaughter which advances her nowhither, would acquiesce in this result, accepting the *status quo ante* without demur, but for one serious doubt.—*Spectator*, p. 792, 1st Dec. 1900.

22. Of the late Lord Russell in his legal capacity it is my intention to say but little. Much has been written already on this aspect of

his many-sided character by lawyers of eminence, who speak with an authority to which I can lay no claim.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 577, Oct. 1900.

23. As the Spaniard was to the Mexican, so was the Norman, with his mailed horsemen and his bowmen, to the naked Celt, though the Dane made a better stand.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 102. (Invasion of Ireland under Henry II.)

24. Mrs. Jennings entered the drawing-room, where Elinor was sitting by herself, with an air of such hurrying importance as prepared her to hear something wonderful.—JANE AUSTEN.

25. As a man must have no slavish fears and apprehensions hanging upon his mind, who will indulge the flights of fancy or speculation and push his researches into the obscure corners of truth, so it is necessary for him to have about him a competency of all the necessities of life.—ADDISON, *Spectator*, No. 287.

26. To the future of the agricultural labourer he looks forward with confidence, if the labourer will only be true to himself.—*Times Weekly*, 21st Dec. 1898.

27. Neither I nor they should wear handcuffs and see the inside of a jail, if I could help it.—JOSEPH ARCH, quoted in *Review of Reviews*.

28. The German Emperor made a remarkable speech on the principles and purposes of art (which "should educate the people and offer an ideal to the lower classes after their hard toil") at a banquet held on Wednesday to celebrate the completion of the rows of statuary in the Siegesallee, Berlin.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, 20th Dec. 1901.

29. Sir Henry traces our decline in trade to the present method of education in his article, of which the following is an abstract.—*Daily Express*, p. 3, 1st Feb. 1901.

30. There is nothing more contemptible in the arguments advanced against the proposal to modify our present fiscal system, so as to secure an imperial preferential arrangement, than the suggestion that we should incur grave risks by rousing the implacable hatred of foreign rivals.—E. SALMON, *Fortnightly Review*, p. 1031, June 1902.

31. I shall beg leave to quote from a very ancient author, whose book would be regarded by our modern wits as one of the most shining tracts of morality extant, if it appeared under the name of Confucius or of any celebrated Grecian philosopher.—ADDISON, *Spectator*, No. 68, para. 2.

32. The working of democratic institutions means one long training in enlightened altruism, one continual weighing of those larger experiences on which all successful conduct of social life depends, not of the advantage of the particular act to the particular individual at the particular moment.—WEBB, *Studies in Democracy*.

(b) *Subdivide, where necessary, the following, so as to give a separate sentence to each leading thought:—*

1. Though the times were hard for all, the country was moving along the road marked out for it by the wisdom of William the Conqueror, and as long as Archbishop Lanfranc lived, the young king

(Rufus) followed his advice, and adopted the old plan of playing off the English against the Barons. — RANSOME'S *Short History of England*, p. 48, ed. 1897.

2. He (Edward III.) invaded France, but Philip wisely declined a pitched battle, and having exhausted his energy and loaded himself with debt, Edward returned the next year to England. — *Ibid.* p. 114.

3. The French fleet was formed in four lines, but Edward arranged that each ship of men-at-arms should be supported in its attack on a French ship by two vessels filled with archers, who shot down the Frenchmen on the deck; the men-at-arms then boarded, and in this way line after line was defeated, and the ships either sunk or taken prisoners. — *Ibid.* p. 114.

4. During the insurrection the rebels had shown great hostility to John of Gaunt, who continued, however, to have much influence till 1385; but in that year Roger Mortimer, grandson of the Duke of Clarence, was declared heir to the throne, which destroyed his hopes of the succession, and the next year he made an expedition to Spain to prosecute his right to the throne of Castile, which he claimed through his second wife, the elder daughter of Pedro the Cruel, and remained there till 1389. — *Ibid.* p. 129.

5. The steeds of these attendants were of Saracen origin, and consequently of Arabian descent, and their fine slender limbs, small fetlocks, their manes, and easy springing motion, formed a marked contrast with the large-jointed, heavy horses, of which the race was cultivated in Flanders and in Normandy, for mounting the men-at-arms of the period in all the panoply of plate and mail; and which, placed by the side of these Eastern coursers, might have passed for a personification of substance and shadow. — SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*, ch. ii. para. 8.

6. The spirit of the suffering people of France found its embodiment in Joan of Arc, whose execution left a dark stain on the English escutcheon, though her trial took place at the instance of the University of Paris, and almost all concerned in it were Frenchmen of the Burgundian party, while the belief in sorcery was the superstition of the age, and Joan owed to it her victories as well as her cruel death. — GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 261.

7. In furnishing the new hotel, which has been erected in red brick relieved with light terra-cotta dressings from the designs of Colonel E——s, comfort has not been sacrificed to splendour, but on the contrary there would seem to be a judicious blend of both. — *Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, 7th June 1899.

8. To cut a long story short, I pulled the labouring oar for a few years, and saw every class of business, and earned money enough to keep me, till I found myself man enough to sail my own ship, and I stayed in Parliament Street for forty years. — *Fortnightly Review*, p. 240, Feb. 1898.

9. It is also pleasant to have heard Lord Lyndhurst, when ninety years of age, the son of Copley Fielding, who was born at Boston, U.S.A., an English subject before the Independence of America, speaking on a Canadian question, and his voice ringing clearly as a bell. — *Ibid.* p. 250.

10. In this uneasy state both of his public and private life Cicero

was oppressed by a new and cruel affliction, the death of his beloved daughter, Tullia, which happened soon after her divorce from Dabella, whose manners and humours were entirely disagreeable to her.—MIDDLETON'S *Life of Cicero*.

11. Close upon two-thirds of the present work are devoted to the writer's earlier career in the northern hemisphere, and of the remainder two chapters tell us of his visits to Europe during his colonial career, although his public life in Europe extended only from 1836 to 1855, while his colonial career occupied close upon a quarter of a century. But the proportion is not perhaps ill-adjusted.—*Times Weekly*, p. 92, 11th Feb. 1898.

12. Sir W. White, the chief naval constructor to the Admiralty, has ceased to hold that post, to which Mr. Phillip Watts, of the great Elswick firm on the Tyne, has been appointed.—*Daily Express*, p. 1, 22nd May 1900.

13. The present generation have nearly forgotten this extraordinary man (William Cobbett), who in the beginning of the nineteenth century, and particularly during the period that elapsed between the battle of Waterloo and the introduction of the Reform Bill, exercised a most powerful influence over the minds of the working classes in England, especially in reference to the question of reform, which, by his writings and lectures, he had done more than any man in England to promote, though the extreme violence of his language had made many enemies both to himself and to the cause which he advocated.—MOLESWORTH, *History of England*, i. 138.

14. Fulgentius holds something like a position in the history of allegory, being not infrequently breveted with the rank of go-between, or the place of fresh starting-point, between the last development of the purely classical allegory in Claudian, and the thick-coming allegoric fancies of the early Christian homilists and commentators, which were to thicken ever and spread till the full blossoming of allegory in the *Romance of the Rose* and its busy decadence thenceforward.—SAINTSBURY, *History of Literary Criticism*, pp. 392, 393.

15. Alfred having been dead a thousand years or so (the correct way of spelling him is Allfred, pronounced as in Whitechapel to this day, but this is only mentioned as a guarantee of good faith), a movement was begun three years ago for the erection of a statue of him as a national memorial.—*Daily Express*, p. 5, 11th Sept. 1901.

16. In the reception of the Duke of Cornwall at Cape Town, one remarkable feature was the appearance of more than one hundred native chiefs from all parts of South Africa, whose picturesqueness was destroyed by European clothing, in which black men always look like valets, but who expressed themselves in most loyal terms.—*Spectator*, p. 237, 24th Aug. 1901.

17. The importance of this work—in its embryo stage it obtained the Green Moral Philosophy Prize in the University of Oxford for the year 1899, when the topic proposed to the competitors was "The Reciprocal Relations between Ethics and Metaphysics"—seems to us to consist in the fact that it bears evidence to a change now visibly in progress in the tendencies of thought in this country.—*Ibid.* p. 979, 29th June 1901.

18. That is the leading, and from our point of view the unhappy, fact of the situation, and though we know that it cannot last, for English Liberalism, rooted as it is in the very natures of at least half our people, cannot die, we wish we could see any immediate prospect of an alteration.—*Ibid.* p. 960, 29th June 1901.

19. There was by no means a large gathering of shareholders, several ladies being among those present.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 4, 8th May 1901.

20. The plaintiffs have won the day; the jury have mulcted the offending newspapers in damages which will surprise many people by reason of their lightness; and a very wholesome corrective has been administered to furious partisanship.—*Ibid.* p. 9, 27th March 1901.

21. Free thought in modern France is a political banner and not a matter of conviction, for most of its leaders send their children to seminaries and convents for their education, which is not surprising, for the results of a godless education are only too apparent in the revival of the worst forms of neo-paganism, the visible effects of which have led many to consider France more decadent and decrepit than she really is.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 276, Aug. 1900.

22. The Queen will, with her own gracious hands, lay the foundation stone of the new buildings, which, under the name of the "Victoria and Albert Museum," and together with the "Science College" to be simultaneously constructed, are destined to complete the magnificent idea which the Prince Consort cherished in establishing at South Kensington the centre of the artistic life of the kingdom.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, 17th May 1899.

23. He returned to England in 1839, and next year he was persuaded to enter Parliament, but he soon lost his seat, and then he retired, and resumed his literary studies, and died in 1849.—*Fortnightly Review*, Feb. 1898.

24. Archbishop Tillotson was exceedingly beloved by both King William and Queen Mary, who nominated Dr. Tennison to succeed him.—Quoted in BLAIR'S *Rhetoric*.

25. And after the king's blessed return to England, he had frequent conferences with many of those who had acted several parts towards the escape; whereof some were of the Chancellor's newest alliance, and others his most intimate friends; towards whom his Majesty always made many gracious expressions of his acknowledgment; so that there is nothing in this short relation, the verity whereof can justly be suspected, though, as is said before, it is a great pity that there could be no diary made, indeed, no exact account of every hour's adventure from the coming out of Worcester, in that dismal confusion, to the hour of his embarkation at Bright-Hemsted, in which there was such a concurrence of good-nature, charity, and generosity in persons of the meanest and lowest extractions and conditions, who did not know the value of the precious jewel that was in their custody, yet all knew him to be escaped from such an action as would make the discovery and delivery of him to those who governed over and amongst them of great benefit and present advantage to them, and in those who did know him, of such courage, loyalty, and activity, that all may reasonably look upon the whole

as the inspiration and conduct of God Almighty as a manifestation of His power and glory, and for the conviction of the whole party which had sinned so grievously; and if it hath not wrought that effect in them, it hath rendered them the more inexcusable.—CLARENDON, *The Great Rebellion*.

CHAPTER IX.—STRUCTURE OF PARAGRAPH.

103. Theme of Paragraph.—The unit of composition next above a sentence is the paragraph. A paragraph consists of a series of sentences all bearing upon some main fact, and connected with one another in various ways by unity of purpose. The main fact thus explained, illustrated, or commented on is called the **theme**.

104. Unity of Paragraph.—Unity is as necessary in a paragraph as in a sentence, and has practically the same meaning for the one as for the other. It means that the paragraph must deal *with one subject at a time*. It “implies a sustained purpose, and forbids digressions and irrelevant matter” (BAIN).

The unity of a paragraph is or ought to be protected by the theme; for the paragraph ought not to go beyond what the scope of the theme allows. The sentence embodying the theme holds the same kind of relation to the other sentences of the paragraph, that the principal clause of a complex sentence holds to the subordinate clauses. As the several clauses of a complex sentence are combined together in construction by conjunctions and relative pronouns, so it frequently happens that the several sentences of which a paragraph is composed are combined together in sense (though they are separated in construction) by words of reference, demonstrative phrases, collateral allusions, and the various other devices of sentence-arrangement.

Note.—In the paragraphs quoted below the words of reference, by which the sentences are linked together, are printed in *Italics*.

105. Length of Paragraph.—What has been said about the length of a sentence (§ 102) applies no less to the length of a paragraph. No rule can be laid down for determining how long or how short a paragraph should be. The length of a paragraph, like that of a sentence, depends upon the amount of matter to be put into it; and the amount of matter depends chiefly upon the breadth of scope permitted by the theme, or at least by the mode of stating the theme.

It rests with the writer himself to make the scope of the theme as broad or as narrow as he thinks fit in any particular case. "The only general principle that can be laid down is to make the divisions at the larger breaks; and so there may be sometimes a doubt in the application of the rule. But when a paragraph is allowed to become much protracted, the reader loses the sense of any unity of purpose in it, and the break, when it comes, is of little use. More rarely, the opposite extreme is met with—the custom of writing in short paragraphs of one, two, or three sentences. The object in this case is to give a look of greater importance to each individual remark; the effect, however, is to produce a disjointed style, and largely to nullify the paragraph-division by reducing it nearly to the level of the sentence" (BAIN).

Note.—What has been quoted from Bain is true as a general rule, and may be safely acted on in ordinary cases. Sometimes, however, there is a distinct advantage in placing a single sentence in a paragraph of its own. For example, in Expository essays a single-sentence-paragraph, expressing some comprehensive fact or principle, on which a great deal of future comment or explanation depends, makes more impression and is more easily remembered than a longer paragraph would be. No writer has employed this device more frequently or with greater success than Bain himself. In Narrative composition, too, the same device, if rarely resorted to, produces a great rhetorical effect. In a paragraph of 22 lines and 11 sentences Goldwin Smith (*United Kingdom*, ch. i. p. 15) dilates upon the weakness of England at the time when Harold, the son of Godwin, was raised to the throne. Then follows a telling paragraph consisting of only six words: "The weakness tempted a mighty robber." This short paragraph is all that the author gives by way of introducing the subject of the conquest of England by William, Duke of Normandy.

106. Positions of the Theme.—There is no strict rule as to what the position of the theme should be: it might be at the beginning of the paragraph, or somewhere in the middle, or at the close. A theme given in the first sentence can be repeated in other words in the last or elsewhere, if such repetition is found useful for driving a point home, or for summing up what has gone before, or for any other rhetorical purpose.

(a) The beginning of the paragraph is the most natural position for the theme, and in point of fact this is the position more commonly assigned than any other. The opening sentence, standing as it does at the head of all the rest, is the first to arrest the reader's attention; and from the prominent place that it holds, it is expected to furnish a clue to what is to

follow. "The opening sentence," says Bain, "unless obviously preparatory, is expected to indicate the scope of the paragraph."¹

- (1) * Scarcely had the English kingdom been founded, when upon it swooped the Dane. (2) Kinsman to the Saxon, *he* was, like *him* in his early estate, a sea-rover, a heathen, a marauder; his raven was the bird of slaughter and rapine. (3) *He* had a wild Scandinavian religion of warfare and destruction, with a paradise of alternate combat and wassail in Odin's hall. (4) *His* heathen rage was specially directed against the church and monastery. (5) Christianity, *on the other hand*, in the absence of a strong feeling of patriotism, was the bond and rallying cry of national defence. (6) *In this way* it made up for anything it might have done by its asceticism or quietism to enervate or disarm, etc. — GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, i. 11.

Enough has been quoted to show that the first sentence, which contains the theme—"the swooping of the Dane on the Saxon"—stamps its character on all the sentences that follow. Sentences (2), (3), (4) show what kind of man the Dane was. Sentences (5) and (6) show what kind of moral force (distinct from patriotism) the Saxon could bring to bear against him.

(b) Sometimes the theme is not given till towards the middle or even at the close of the paragraph. In this case the previous sentences are merely preparatory, leading up to the theme by degrees. Several purposes may be served by this arrangement. The intention of the writer may be to keep the reader's interest in suspense, or it may be his desire to lead the reader's mind by degrees to some conclusion, the full force of which could not have been perceived without some indication of the preparatory stages. An example of this latter process occurs in the following:—

- (1) The king cannot be blamed for determining that Monmouth should suffer death. (2) Every man who heads a rebellion against an established government stakes his life on the event. (3) *He* had declared against *his uncle* a war without quarter. (4) In the manifesto put forth at Lyme, James had been held up to execration as an incendiary, as an assassin who had strangled one innocent man and cut the throat of another, and lastly as the poisoner of his own brother. (5) To spare an enemy, who had not scrupled to resort to such extremities, would have been an act of rare, perhaps of blamable, generosity. (6) *But* to see him and not to spare

¹ In this and the following examples the sentence containing the theme is indicated by an asterisk, and words of reference or allusion by italics. To facilitate comment each sentence has been numbered.

him was an outrage on humanity and decency. (7) * *This outrage* the king resolved to commit. (8) The arms of the prisoner were bound behind him with a silken cord ; and thus secured *he* was ushered into the presence of the implacable *kinsman* whom he had wronged.—MACAULAY, *History of England*, ch. v.

The theme of the paragraph—"the outrage on humanity and decency" committed by James—is reserved for sentence (7), the last but one in the paragraph. Sentence (8) is in continuation of sentence (7), and adds a great deal to its force by mentioning one or two particulars as to the manner in which the outrage was perpetrated. All the sentences that precede sentence (7) are intended to lead the mind of the reader step by step to a just appreciation of "the outrage which the king resolved to commit." Sentence (1), which heads the paragraph, stands (as it should do in such a case) next in importance to sentence (7): it lays down the proposition that James cannot be blamed for determining that Monmouth should die,—an admission which appears to concede a great point in James's favour, and thus convinces the reader that the author's estimate of James is not dictated by prejudice. Sentences (2), (3), (4) enlarge upon this proposition, giving one after another the different reasons for which, in the opinion of the writer, Monmouth deserved to die. Sentence (5) goes a step further, and asserts that, far from blaming James for sentencing Monmouth to death, we should be rather inclined to blame him if he had spared his life. Then comes the climax expressed in sentence (6), "but to see him, and not to spare him, was an outrage on humanity." By this time the reader's mind is fully prepared for the theme announced in sentence (7)—"this outrage the king resolved to commit."

Theme usually placed in the opening Sentence.—This is a point of some importance, and deserves more than a passing notice. "In the majority of cases," says Bain, "the paragraphs open with some broad statement that indicates the general nature of what follows." So much importance does he attach to the principle of stating the theme in the opening sentence, that he calls it a "Paragraph Law" (*Rhetoric and Composition*, Part I. p. 110). He takes as his example the introduction to Macaulay's *History of England*. On this he writes a copious comment, of which the following is the drift:—

The opening sentence of the *first* paragraph is this:—"I purpose to write the history of England from the accession of King James the Second down to a time which is within the memory of men still living." This (as it happens) is too wide a theme for the sentences that follow: it is the theme of the entire work, and for expository

purposes could well have been placed in a paragraph by itself at the head of the volume. The sentences that follow are chiefly a summary of the steps that led to the consolidation and extension of England's power; and these could well have been placed in a paragraph of their own under the heading of a theme less comprehensive than that quoted.

The opening sentence of the *second* paragraph runs thus:—"Nor will it be less my duty faithfully to record disasters mingled with triumphs, and great national crimes and follies far more humiliating than any disaster." Under the heading of this theme the historian very appropriately gives a broad sketch of the disasters and crimes which it will be his duty to describe in the course of his work.

The opening sentence of the *third* paragraph runs thus:—"Yet, unless I greatly deceive myself, the general effect of this chequered narrative will be to excite thankfulness in all religions minds and hope in the hearts of all patriots."—A very fitting introduction to what follows, where the author shows by a series of illustrations that the nation has progressed much more than it has declined.

The opening sentence of the *fourth* paragraph runs thus:—"I should very imperfectly execute the task which I have undertaken if I were merely to treat of battles and sieges, of the rise and fall of administrations, of intrigues in the palace, and of debates in the parliament."—A suitable introduction to the remarks that follow, in which he says that an essential part of his task will be to describe the condition of the people and the changes in their thoughts and mode of life.

The opening sentence of the *fifth* and last paragraph in the introduction is this:—"The events which I propose to relate form only a single act of a great and eventful drama extending through ages, and must be very imperfectly understood, unless the plot of the preceding acts be well known." This is fitly followed by two sentences showing how he proposes to deal with that period of our history which preceded the accession of James the Second.

This method of making the opening sentence indicate the general nature of the contents of the paragraph has, I find, been widely practised by the best writers. I open at random *Prose Idylls*, by Charles Kingsley, at p. 190, and read as follows:—(1) "At Toulouse—or rather on leaving it to go eastward—you become aware that you have passed into a fresh region." Then comes a series of sentences describing the change. (2) "The peculiarity of the district is its gorgeous colouring." This peculiarity is set forth by a series of sentences that follow. (3) "As for their industry, it is hereditary." The reasons why the industry of the inhabitants has become hereditary are given in the succeeding sentences. (4) "The special culture of the country—more and more special as we run eastward—is that of the mulberry, the almond, and the olive." All that follows in the same paragraph exemplifies this general statement.

This "paragraph law," as Bain terms it, is not uniformly observed throughout the essay from which I have quoted, but uniformly enough to show that those who make the best authors their models will do well to bear it in mind.

107. Unity of Sentence containing Theme.—If the opening sentence is the one usually adopted for expressing the theme, it is obviously of great importance that this sentence should possess the merit of unity : otherwise the paragraph itself will appear to lack unity, even if it does not lack it in fact, and will seem more disjointed than it ought either to seem or to be.

Some such defect as this occurs in the following paragraph, the first sentence of which contains two leading thoughts besides the theme itself. In fact, the theme as there given is so buried in extraneous matter, that until it has been pulled out and explicitly stated in a sentence of its own, we hardly perceive on first reading that it is there :—

- (1), (2), (3). * He rode, not a mule, like his companion, but a strong hackney for the road, to save his gallant war-horse, which a squire led behind, fully accoutred for battle, with a chamfron or plaited head-piece upon his head, having a short spike projecting from the front. (4) On one side of the saddle hung a short battle-axe richly inlaid with Damascene carving ; on the other the rider's plumed head-piece and hood of mail, with a long two-handed sword used by the chivalry of the period. (5) A second squire held aloft his master's lance, from the extremity of which fluttered a small banderole or streamer, bearing a cross of the same form as that embroidered upon his cloak. (6) He also carried his small triangular shield, broad enough at the top to protect the breast, and from thence diminishing to a point. (7) It was covered with a scarlet cloth, which prevented the device from being seen.—SCOTT'S *Ivanhoe*, ch. ii. para. 6.

The first part of the paragraph might be rewritten thus :—

- (1) * To save his war-horse he rode, not a mule, *like his companion*, but a strong hackney, and was attended on the road by two squires, to each of whom a separate service had been assigned. (2) *The first* led the war-horse behind its master. (3) The gallant steed was fully accoutred for battle, with a chamfron or plaited head-piece upon its head, that had a short spike projecting from the front. (4) On one side of the saddle hung a short battle-axe richly inlaid with Damascene carving ; on the other the master's plumed head-piece and hood of mail, with a long two-handed sword used by the chivalry of the period. (5) *The second* squire held aloft his master's lance, etc.

The paragraph as thus revised may be analysed thus. The theme in sentence (1) is expressed in the form of a compound sentence, the first clause of which connects the paragraph with the one preceding it by the words of reference *like his companion*, while the second clause expresses the main point (which is only implied in the original), that the knight was accompanied

on the road by two squires, each of whom had a special work to do. After this the analysis is clear. Sentence (2) shows the nature of the function assigned to one of the squires, viz. the leading of the war-horse. Sentences (3) and (4) give details as to the manner in which the war-horse was accoutred. Section (5) shows the nature of the function assigned to the other squire—how he held aloft his master's lance. Sentence (6) shows how he carried his master's small triangular shield. Sentence (7) gives some further description of the shield.

108. Theme not always expressed.—If the theme is implied rather than expressed, it does not follow that the paragraph is deficient in unity. The following is an example:—

- (1) The companion of the church dignitary was a man past forty—thin, tall, strong, and muscular; an athletic figure, to which long fatigue and constant exercise seemed to have left none of the softer parts of the human form. (2) *His* head was covered with a scarlet cap, faced with fur—of that kind which the French call *mortier* from its resemblance to the shape of an inverted mortar. (3) The expression of *his* face was calculated to impress a degree of awe, if not of fear, upon strangers. (4) High features, naturally strong and powerfully expressive, had been burnt almost into Negro blackness by constant exposure to the tropical sun, and might in their ordinary state be said to slumber after the storm of passion had passed away; but the projection of the veins of the forehead, the readiness with which the upper lip quivered upon the slightest emotion, plainly intimated that the tempest might be again and easily awakened. (5) *His* keen, piercing dark eyes told in every glance of difficulties subdued and dangers dared, and seemed to challenge opposition to *his* wishes.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*, ch. ii. para. 4.

Where then (it will be asked) is the theme of such a paragraph? The answer is, the theme is implied, not expressed. The theme is a description of "the companion of a certain church dignitary," and this is implied in the collection of sentences, in which the different items of description are conveyed. The first sentence is about the man's age, stature, and general appearance; the second about his head-dress; the third about the expression of his face; the fourth about his complexion; the fifth about his eyes, etc. Not only is there unity in every sentence, but unity in the paragraph as a whole.

109. The Concluding Sentence.—It was shown in § 106 that the opening sentence is the most natural position for the theme; and that what is stated in the opening sentence is

sometimes restated in other words in the concluding sentence. Even when no such restatement is made, it adds to the energy of the paragraph if the concluding sentence is made to contain some brief comment on what has gone before—or a summing up of the paragraph as a whole—or something that will make the reader feel that the paragraph is closed.

- (1) *Turgenev was a writer of sorrows ; almost without exception his stories are sad reading. (2) We cannot be surprised. (3) For years he lived in exile, watching hope after hope sink in the gloom. (4) Failure was stamped on every phase of Russian existence. (5) The emancipation of the serfs failed to accomplish his desires, the progressives failed to fulfil his hopes. (6) He was misunderstood and reviled by friend and foe. (7) Like the hero of Gogol's *Dead Souls*, harsh was his destiny and bitterly did he feel his loneliness. (8) Towards the end of his life he suffered, too, the most exquisite of physical agonies. (9) It was then that he wrote those remarkable *Poems in Prose*, which are unlike anything in Russian literature, and also *The Song of Triumphant Love, Clara Miltch, Phantoms*, and *The Dream*, those weird and wonderful stories of anguish and horror. (10) His swan song was penned in June 1882. "In days of doubt, in days of dreary musings on my country's fate, thou alone art my stay and support—mighty, true, free Russian speech ! But for thee, how not fall into despair seeing all that is done at Rome ? But who can think that such a tongue is not the gift of a great people ?" (11) It was, at least, the gift of a very great writer.—*Literature*, p. 255, 31st March 1900.

The theme is contained in sentence (1), "Turgenev was a writer of sorrows." All the sentences that follow, except the last, exemplify this leading fact. The last sentence does not repeat the theme, but it contains a comment on all the intermediate sentences as well as on the theme itself. The reader feels in perusing it that the paragraph is closed, and that a new subject may be taken up in the paragraph that is to follow.

110. Parallel Construction.—Lastly, we must allude briefly to what has been called "the Rule of Parallel Construction." The rule has been stated thus :—

"When several consecutive sentences iterate or illustrate the same idea, they should, as far as possible, be formed alike" (BAIN).

- (1) *This old practice (the levying of ship-money) it was now determined, after a long interval, not only to revive, but to extend. (2) Former princes had raised ship-money only in time of war ; it was now exacted in a time of profound peace. (3) Former princes, even in the most perilous wars,

had raised ship-money only along the coasts ; it was now exacted from the inland shires. (4) Former kings had raised ship-money only for the maritime defence of the country ; it was now exacted by the admission of the Royalists themselves, not with the object of maintaining a navy, but of furnishing the king with supplies, which might be increased at his discretion to any amount and expended at his discretion for any purpose.—MACAULAY.

Sentence (1) contains the theme,—the king's determination to revive and extend the levying of ship-money. Then comes a series of parallel sentences, all bearing upon the theme. Each sentence expresses a telling contrast,—the first between the occasions on which the tax was levied (sentence 2), the second between the parts of the country to which it was applied (sentence 3), and the third between the objects for which it was levied (sentence 4). The three sentences are formed alike, the principal subject and the principal predicate having in each sentence a similar place allotted to it.

In the following example the rule of parallel construction is observed in all but sentence (4), where the contrast expressed by the writer puts the subject in the wrong place :—

- (1) *The most striking characteristic of the poetry of Milton is the extreme remoteness of the associations by means of which it acts on the reader. (2) *Its* effect on the reader is produced not so much by the ideas which it directly conveys, as by other ideas which are connected with them. (3) *He* electrifies the mind through conductors. (4) The most unimaginative man must understand the *Iliad* ; Homer gives him no choice, but takes the whole on himself, and sets his images in so clear a light that it is impossible to be blind to them. (5) *Milton* does not give a finished picture, a play for a mere passive listener. (6) *He* sketches and leaves others to fill up the outline ; *he* strikes the key-note. and expects his hearers to make out the melody.—MACAULAY.

To make the parallelism perfect, we might rewrite sentence (4) as follows :—“The *Iliad* must be understood by the most unimaginative man : Homer gives him no choice,” etc. In this way *Iliad* is made the subject of its sentence and placed in a parallel position with *Homer*. Sentence (1) contains the theme. Sentence (2) reiterates the theme in other words. Sentence (3) illustrates the theme by a metaphor. Sentence (4) enforces the theme by a contrast. Sentences (5) and (6) illustrate the theme by metaphors drawn from painting and music.

I give one more example, selected from Mr. Jerome's recent book of humour, called *Three Men on the Bummel* :—

- (1) Shakespeare and Milton may have done their little best to spread acquaintance with the English tongue among the less favoured inhabitants of Europe. (2) Newton and Darwin may have rendered their language a necessity among educated and thoughtful foreigners. (3) Dickens and Ouida may have helped still further to popularise it. (4) *But the man who has spread the knowledge of English from Cape St. Vincent to the Ural Mountains is the Englishman who, unable or unwilling to learn a single word of any language but his own, travels, purse in hand, into every corner of the Continent. (5) One may be shocked at his ignorance, annoyed at his stupidity, angry at his presumption. (6) *But the practical fact remains; he it is that is anglicising Europe. (7) For him the Swiss peasant tramps through the snow on winter evenings to attend the English class open in every village. (8) For him the coachman and the guard, the chambermaid and the laundress, pore over their English grammars and colloquial phrase-books. (9) For him the foreign shopkeeper and merchant send their sons and daughters in their thousands to study in every English town. (10) For him it is that every foreign hotel and restaurant keeper adds to his advertisement: "Only those with a fair knowledge of English need apply."

Two sets of parallel constructions, the first consisting of sentences (1), (2), (3), (4), and the second of sentences (7), (8), (9), (10), are here presented in the same paragraph. The theme of the paragraph is first given in sentence (4), describing the character of the man who is spreading the English language throughout Europe. It is not poets like Shakespeare and Milton who are doing this (sentence 1), nor men of science like Newton and Darwin (sentence 2), nor novelists like Dickens and Ouida (sentence 3), but the common English tourist who knows no language except his own, but pays his way and pays liberally (sentence 4, the theme). In all these four sentences the parallelism of construction is admirably preserved. After the contrast expressed in sentence (4), we have a temporary break in the continuity of the argument, and with it, as we might justly expect, a break in the rhythm of the construction (sentence 5). Then (to strike the point home) the theme is repeated once more in sentence (6): "he it is that is anglicising Europe." From this point we have a second series of sentences (consisting of 7, 8, 9, 10), in all of which the parallelism, though in a different form, is as admirably preserved as in the first series. In this paragraph the author proves himself to be as great a master of style as he is of humour.

CHAPTER X.—ESSAY-WRITING.

SECTION I.—ESSAY-WRITING IN GENERAL

111. **What an Essay is and what it is not.**—The word “essay” (Fr. *essai*, Late Lat. *exagium*) literally means “a trial” or “attempt.” Francis Bacon was the first to use the word in a literary sense. In publishing his own *Essays* (1597) he described them in the following terms:—“To write just treatises requireth leisure in the writer and leisure in the reader . . . which is the cause that hath made me choose to write certain brief notes set down rather significantly than curiously, which I have called *Essays*. The word is late, but the thing is ancient.” The same author in another place says:—“Seneca’s Epistles to Lucilius, if one mark them well, are but *Essays*—that is, dispersed meditations, though conveyed in the form of epistles.” Proceeding on the same lines Johnson defines an essay as “a loose sally of the mind; an irregular and indigested piece; not a regular and orderly composition.” Possibly, in saying this, he was guided not only by the definition given by Lord Bacon, but by the example of Steele, Addison, and their successors, whose discursive and sometimes fragmentary articles contributed, in the form of anecdote, discussion, or letter, to the *Spectator* and other literary journals, were much in vogue in Johnson’s time and were imitated by Johnson himself in the *Rambler*.

These definitions have been quoted for the purpose of showing that an essay, in our present use of the term, is the very opposite to what these definitions assert. An essay, if the writing of one is to be regarded as a mental discipline, a training in the art of arranging and expressing one’s thoughts, far from being “a loose sally of the mind” or “an irregular and indigested piece,” is a regular and well-ordered kind of composition. In its own way it is as much a work of art as a picture is. Like a picture it must have unity of design, proportion of parts, and consistency of colouring. If it does not possess the character of artistic unity, it is not a true essay.

112. **What the Unity of an Essay consists in.**—An essay, it has just been said, must possess the character of “artistic unity.” “Artistic unity” implies three things at least,—Relevancy, Proportion, and Arrangement.

Relevancy.—How is relevancy to be secured? The student must note carefully the wording of the subject, and before he

begins to write convince himself that he has understood its scope, making it neither too narrow nor too broad, nor allowing his thoughts to wander away from the point.¹ If the subject, for example, is "The Uses of Athletic Sports," he will take note of the qualifying word "athletic," and in his treatment of the subject he will keep clear of those pastimes, which are sports, but not athletic ones. He will observe, too, that the title of the subject, "The *Uses* of Athletic Sports," does not permit him to digress into a lengthy or detailed description of their abuses, though it does not debar him from alluding briefly to these by way of qualification or contrast. Digressions, though allowable to some extent in a long essay or in a chapter of a book, are inadmissible in a short essay, theme, or monograph, such as a student is expected to write on the subject given.

Proportion.—The observance of proportion is as necessary to an essay as to a picture. It consists in giving to each part of the essay as much prominence as is due to its comparative importance. I have spoken of relevancy already. But there are degrees of relevancy, as there are of irrelevancy. If the essay is not to cover more than three or four pages of foolscap, the writer must give the most space to those points that are most relevant, *i.e.* have the most direct bearing on the subject, and less space to those that are less relevant, or (if there is no space available) he must dismiss them altogether. To take the same example once more, supposing the subject to be "The Uses of Athletic Sports," it would be a breach of proportion if the writer, in describing the uses, gave three-quarters of his space to the bodily benefits derived from such sports and only one quarter to the mental. The latter are quite as relevant to the subject as the former, and are perhaps the more important of the two.

Arrangement.—An essay consists of paragraphs, to each of which, as the student is aware, there is one central thought, that is called the theme (§ 103). The paragraphs of an essay, or rather the themes which distinguish these from one another, must be arranged in some kind of order, so that when the reader has finished one paragraph, his mind will be carried forward by an easy transition to the next paragraph. What the order should be depends on the nature of the subject, *i.e.*

¹ The duty here imposed upon the student of taking careful note of the wording of the subject, imposes upon the teacher or examiner the similar duty of being equally careful how he words the subject, especially in respect of clearness or freedom from ambiguity.

on the character of the essay to be written. The same kind of order that suits an historical or biographical sketch is not likely to suit a description of some object or place of interest: the same order that suits an expository essay on a given subject might not suit an argumentative one on the same subject. Much, too, would depend on the point of view taken by the individual writer. The only rule that can be given is that the paragraphs should follow one another in some rational order of sequence, and that thoughts pertaining to the theme of one paragraph should not be mixed up with those pertaining to the theme of another. If we revert once more to the subject, "The Uses of Athletic Sports," and if we suppose again that the writer discusses the subject under two main headings,—the benefits to body and the benefits to mind or character,—it would be opposed to all propriety of arrangement if the writer first enlarged on some of the former, then wrote all that he had to say on the latter, and then finally went back to the former to complete what he had left unsaid.

One more point remains to be mentioned regarding arrangement. In the description given above (§ 99) of a Periodic sentence, it was pointed out that the main characteristic of a Period as distinct from a Loose sentence is that "the mind of the reader is held in suspense and his interest not allowed to flag to the very last." The same principle (which has been called the Principle of Suspense) should be observed as far as possible in arranging the contents of an essay. Try to keep up the reader's interest. Avoid placing the most important fact in the first paragraph or near the beginning of the essay. Reserve your strength for the later paragraphs. The mind of the reader, as of the writer, should ascend from the lower rungs of the ladder to the higher, and not descend from the higher to the lower. Reverting once more (and now for the last time) to the subject of "The Uses of Athletic Sports," the benefits to the mind may be considered higher and more important than those of the body, and should therefore be mentioned last. Even among the benefits to the mind we might find some differences of rank. To a student who works hard at his studies, one benefit to be derived from athletic sports is the rest and recreation that they give to his brain. Great as this benefit is, we should place in a still higher rank, and therefore reserve for later mention the sense of manliness and fair play engendered by a healthy competition between one player and another.

113. Classification of Essays.—It is not at all important how essays are classified. The most convenient method, according to my own experience, is the following:—

I. <i>Narrative.</i>	{	History.
		Biography.
		A legend or story.
		Any current event.
II. <i>Descriptive.</i>		Some natural object, animate or inanimate.
III. <i>Reflective.</i>	{	Some country, place, or object of interest— as a library, a fort, a ship, etc.
IV. <i>Expository.</i>		Political, historical, moral, social, or prudential questions of any kind; literary
V. <i>Argumentative.</i>		criticisms or problems.

Narration, description, and reflection are often combined in the same essay: for in the course of a narrative on some event a writer may have occasion to describe some object or express some comments of his own. Even when they are not combined, the student is under no necessity to affect one style for one kind of essay and another for another. Whatever the subject may be, let the writer be true to himself, expressing his genuine thoughts in the clearest language that he can command. Among the greatest writers we do not find that a difference of subject, though it necessarily involves some difference of vocabulary, involves any appreciable difference of style. Macaulay is still Macaulay, whether he is writing history or reviewing a book, or discussing some social, political, or literary problem. The same style, with the same peculiarities of manner, diction, and method, runs through all his writings.

Note on Section I.

Correcting and giving back the Essay.—I refer to this matter because, though it belongs to the province of the teacher, it concerns the pupil also. The pupil, if he has taken pains with his composition, likes to be told his faults, and to have his essay returned to him while the impression is still fresh. The teacher, on the other hand, may not find time, if the class is a large one, to write minute corrections or criticisms on each of the numerous essays shown up to him. The following suggestions are offered:—

(1) Let a system of signs be used for marking errors. A misspelling might be enclosed in a rectangle or circle, a grammatical error might be shown by an asterisk (*), an unsuitable word by a (?), a wrong stop by a line drawn under the stop.

(2) Let the student be directed to leave a quarter margin on one

side of every page that he writes on. The teacher will then have space for writing against a sentence any remark or symbol that may be called for; against one that is wanting in perspicuity he can write *obs.* (for "obscure") or *amb.* (for "ambiguous"); against one wanting in brevity or containing superfluous verbiage he can write *diff.* (for "diffuse"); against one that is wanting in impressiveness or point (supposing the quality to be needed at this place) he can write *fee.* (for "feeble"); against one that is wanting in smoothness or euphony he can write *awk.* (for "awkward"); against one containing a statement that is not founded on fact he can write *false*; against one containing a statement that has little or no connection with the subject he can write *irr.* (for "irrelevant").

(3) At the close of the essay the teacher can write in few words his opinion of its merits as a whole; as "well arranged" or "badly arranged," "well argued" or "confused," "well expressed" or "badly expressed," or any other form of short criticism that may be appropriate to the essay.

(4) Let the student be asked to make the corrections and amendments called for by the marking, and after making them show up his essay a second time. The width of margin left on one side of each page will give him space enough for rewriting the sentences that have been condemned, or substituting suitable words for those that have been marked as wrong.

(5) The teacher can read out to the class any essay or essays that he considers better than the average or fit to serve as models. This will be a great encouragement to the authors. But if he raises a laugh against a student by reading out anything that is open to ridicule, or by making a joke of it at the student's expense, he will defeat his own object; for no student will have the inclination or courage after this to express his sentiments to him again.

SECTION 2.—ESSAYS FOR REPRODUCTION.

114. Two Modes of Reproduction.—That the student may be spared at first the labour of research, and be able to give his whole attention to the composition, he is furnished in this section with a series of essays printed in full, which he can be asked to reproduce. If he does not need such preliminary practice, he can leave this section and pass on at once to the next. But if he prefers to have some lessons in reproduction before he begins to originate, there are two kinds of uses to which the following essays can be put.

Firstly.—After reading through one essay and mastering its contents, he can be told to reproduce its substance in his own words, *observing the same order of paragraphs.*¹ On no account

¹ This is what Mr. Hartog, in his valuable article on the "Teaching of Style in Schools" (see *Fortnightly Review*, June 1902), describes as teaching "the architecture of style." "It is surprising," he says, "how rapidly boys taught in this way acquire a sense of the architecture of

should he refer to the original in the course of the reproduction. If some of the essays seem to be too long to be reproduced in a single lesson, he can take half an essay at a time. The reason why he should observe the same order of paragraphs is that he may be thoroughly versed in what has been well called "the architecture" of composition, the paragraphs following one another in their logical order, and each paragraph confining itself to one theme at a time. To help the student to master the essay before he begins to rewrite it, the theme of each paragraph is shown at the top.

Secondly.—He can be told to rewrite the entire essay in half the original space or less, reconstituting and arranging the paragraphs entirely on a plan of his own. He should do this from recollection of the contents, and after once closing the book he should not refer to the original again. It is hoped that two very useful arts will be acquired by this kind of practice,—the art of condensation and the art of proportion. Condensation does not consist in merely leaving out a certain amount of matter and retaining the rest, but in making a selection of the main points and giving to each point that has been selected its due proportion of space.

115. Narrative Essays.—In narrative essays it is easier perhaps than in any other kind to collect the facts, arrange them in a certain order, and subdivide into paragraphs. The order of paragraphs naturally follows the order of time; and if it is necessary to comment on some fact or event in passing, no uncertainty can be felt as to the place where such comment should come.

I give two examples of narrative essays: the first on the Baronial Rising in the reign of King John; the second on the Life of Ælfred the Great. The first is purely historical; the second combines biography with history.

style." I make no pretension to teaching "style"; for style is a thing that cannot be taught. Every individual who practises composition at all and seeks to acquire the art in some degree of excellence, forms his own style: it comes to him instinctively. What Mr. Hartog means by "the architecture of style" is that the essay-composer, like the house-builder, must at first have some plan set before him to work upon, and that eventually, after he has had sufficient practice, he will be able to originate his own plan. This is the method which (he says) has produced such excellent results in French schools. It is the method which, before I had seen Mr. Hartog's article, I had planned in my own mind in preparing essays for reproduction.

I. THE BARONIAL RISING IN THE REIGN OF JOHN.

(See Goldwin Smith's *United Kingdom*, vol. i., and Green's *Short History of the English People*.)

The rising sprang from a little incident, but a great cause.

Revolutions arise out of little incidents, but great causes. The baronial rising in the reign of John, though ostensibly nothing more than an insurrection, of which English history furnishes many other examples, was in fact a great national movement which gave us the Great Charter and laid the foundation of English liberties. The little incident, the provocation that set the movement going, was the king's demand for the attendance of his barons on an expedition into France, and the refusal of the barons to comply with the demand. The cause, which lay behind the incident and carried the movement to a much wider issue, was the growth of a national and patriotic spirit within the island-kingdom,—a spirit that had been first aroused by the grinding exactions of Richard, and then intensified by the tyranny of his successor, the reigning monarch. This spirit was about to stamp itself on the provisions of the Great Charter, that the king would shortly be compelled to sign.

Archbishop Langton encourages the barons to resist the king.

As regards the expedition to France it is enough to say, that after losing the great battle of Bouvines, which was the saving of France, John returned to his country disgraced by defeat, but determined to take vengeance on the barons, whose presence on the battlefield might have turned defeat into victory. He was preparing to attack their castles one by one, when he was met by Stephen Langton, the archbishop, who produced a charter granted by Henry I. in A.D. 1100, and warned him that under the terms of that charter the barons, before they were punished, had a right to be tried by their peers. As Anselm had withstood the exactions of Rufus, and Theobald the lawlessness of Stephen, so now Langton, the third great archbishop in the series, undertook the task of resisting the despotism of John. After having recently surrendered his kingdom to the pope, the king dared not neglect the warning of a primate, who, as he knew, was the pope's representative in England and had been appointed by the pope himself. Stephen Langton, though a churchman and holding a commission from Rome, was before everything else an Englishman. He had seen enough of John's character to know

how unscrupulous he was; and he now came forward as guide and consecrator of the resistance which the barons were determined to make. Meetings were held to concert measures for the defence of liberty and right. At one of these the archbishop produced a copy of the charter of Henry I. The barons accepted it with acclamation. Assembling under cover of a pilgrimage at St. Edmundsburg, they took an oath one by one at the high altar to withdraw their allegiance to the king if he should attempt to override their chartered rights.

Civil war between the king and the barons ensued.

Early in January 1215 the struggle between the king and the barons began, and with one very brief interval of rest it continued till the end of his reign in October 1216. The barons presented themselves before him in arms, and demanded the observance of the laws of Edward the Confessor and the charter of Henry I., thus pressing upon him the combined claims of both races,—proof that the distinction between Englishman and Norman had been merged in a common patriotism, which made them one nation. In the few months that followed, John used all the force that he could muster, but found that resistance by arms was useless. Nobles and churchmen were alike arrayed against him. Bishops, barons, and reeves of towns, all of whom had in the earlier years of his reign been victims of his exactions, made common cause against him, and took council for common action. The forces of the barons were organised by Robert Fitzwalter, who took the title of “Marshal of the army of God and Holy Church.” London opened her gates to them. The example of the capital was followed by Exeter and Lincoln. Promises of aid came from Scotland and Wales. The barons of the north of England marched hastily to join their comrades in the south. There was a moment when John found himself with only seven knights at his back, and before him a nation in arms. He had summoned mercenaries from abroad and appealed to his liege lord, the pope; but summons and appeal were alike too late. Nursing wrath in his heart, but seeing the danger that he was in, the tyrant bowed to necessity, and called the barons to a conference at Runnymede.

John signs Magna Charta at Runnymede.

An island in the Thames, between Staines and Windsor, had been chosen as the place of conference. The king, with

his mercenary captains and the few English barons who adhered to him, encamped on one bank, while the patriot-barons headed by Archbishop Langton covered the marshy flat, still known by the name of Runnymede, on the other. Their delegates met in the island between them. But the negotiations were a mere cloak to cover John's purpose of unconditional surrender. The Great Charter was discussed, agreed to, and signed in a single day. The signature was witnessed by the chief men of the realm, lay and clerical, A.D. 1215.

The main provisions of the Charter.

This is that Great Charter which was again and again renewed in subsequent reigns and invoked by successive generations as the palladium of national rights. The rights which the barons claimed for themselves—the rights to unbought justice, to security of person and property, and to good government—they claimed with equal firmness for the nation at large. The poorest labourers were not to be deprived of the tools and implements on which their livelihood depended. The farmers or under-tenants were protected against lawless exactions by their landlords, precisely as the barons themselves were protected against lawless exactions by the Crown. Towns were protected in their municipal rights, and freedom of trade was secured to foreign as well as to home merchants.

Its place in the world's history.

Such then was the Great Charter, which the barons, led by Robert Fitzwalter and guided by Archbishop Langton, compelled the king to sign. Of this charter, the other great documents in the archives of English liberty, the Renunciation of Tallage, the Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus, and the Bill of Rights, were complements or reassertions. Its name is sacred in all lands to which British institutions have spread, and wherever the English language is spoken or taught. It served as the watchword of patriotism in the American Revolution, as well as in the struggles against the tyranny of Plantagenets and Stuarts, and was invoked in 1865 for the protection of the black peasantry in the British dependency of Jamaica. One copy of it still remains in the British Museum, injured by age and fire, but with the royal seal still hanging from the brown shrivelled parchment. The Englishman, if he visits London, from whatever part of the empire he may have come, looks at it with as much reverence as a Moslem gazes upon the Black Stone of the

Kaaba in Mecca. It may be seen only through the glass lid of a case that is kept constantly locked in the inside of a room that is carefully guarded.

Means for binding the king to observe the Charter.

There still remained one question, and that the most difficult of all, How was the charter to be upheld? How was the king, if he disregarded it, as it was certain that he would, to be coerced into observing it? In these days of constitutional government it would be done by Parliament cutting off the annual supplies. In those days, when no Parliament existed, it could be done only by force: but even then the barons, with admirable foresight, determined that the force to be applied should be, not lawless or irregular, but invested with legal sanction under the authority of the king himself. A council of twenty-five barons was chosen from the general body, to act as conservators of the charter; and the king was compelled to sign a condition authorising them, "in common with the whole country," in case of his default or contumacy, to resort to force, take his castles, and make war upon him, till he consented to act up to the terms of the Great Charter which he had signed. The phrase "in common with the whole country" denotes the thoroughly national character of the movement, proclaims the conscious unity of the nation, and shows that the sentiment of race had finally given way to that of country. "The Great Charter," says Bishop Stubbs, "is the act of the united nation, —the Church, the Barons, and the Commons being, for the first time, thoroughly at one." It was published through the whole realm, and all freemen were sworn to its observance.

The barons offer the crown to Louis of France.

The remainder of this troubled reign, which lasted only one year longer, was spent by John in attempts to throw off the shackles in which the charter had bound him, and by the barons in a determination to keep him to his word. With the sanction and help of his liege lord, the pope, John was able to import bands of trained mercenaries from France, with whom the undisciplined bands of the barons were unable to cope. The barons in despair turned their eyes to the King of France and offered the crown to his son Louis, as at a later period the British patriots, with a view to expelling the Stuart tyrant, turned their eyes to Holland and offered the crown to William of Orange. In spite of Pope Innocent's warning, that John

was not to be molested, Philip at once accepted the offer, and Louis landed in Kent with a large French force, as at a later day William landed with his Dutch army in Devonshire.

The landing of Louis, followed by the defeat and death of John.

With the landing of Louis the whole aspect of affairs was suddenly changed. As the barons foresaw, the French mercenaries under John refused to fight against the son of the French king. Deserted by the bulk of his foreign troops, and knowing that he was hated by his own people, he fell rapidly back upon the Welsh marches, while his rival entered London and received the submission of the greater part of England. Louis would have been at once crowned king, as William of Orange was crowned at a later day under similar circumstances. But John, as it happened, had taken the crown away with him, being eager to retain the symbol of royalty, after he had lost, for a time as he still hoped, the reality. The king was hunted from one part of the kingdom to another. While crossing the Wash, his army was surprised by the tide: his luggage, the royal treasures, and the crown itself, on which he set so much value, but of which he had made such a bad use, were swept away and lost. The uncrowned king, now a helpless fugitive, took refuge in the castle of Newark, Lincolnshire, where he died very soon afterwards of an attack of fever aggravated by a gluttonous debauch.

The boy Henry III. is crowned king, and Louis departs.

Ten days after the death of John, his son Henry, a child nine years of age, was crowned king by the Bishop of Winchester, with a plain gold circlet (for the crown could not be found), and to mark the commencement of the new reign the Great Charter was republished throughout the kingdom, A.D. 1216. The barons, who at a time of emergency, for which they were not to blame, had invited Prince Louis to accept the crown, readily declared their allegiance to the native heir. After making several attempts by cajolery or force to retain his hold on the kingdom which had been offered him, Louis agreed to accept a sum of money and go. The island-kingdom was thus saved the continental entanglements in which it would certainly have become involved had a French king been placed on the throne. The result was the complete triumph of those principles for which the patriot-barons had so manfully laboured; and with this triumph one of the most momentous crises in English history was closed.

II. THE LIFE OF ÆLFRED THE GREAT.

(See *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 9th edition, under ALFRED; Green's *Short History of the English People*; *School World*, p. 414, Nov. 1901.)

The birth and boyhood of Ælfred.

Ælfred was the youngest son of Æthelwulf, and the grandson of the great Egbert, who had united the kingdoms of northern, central, and southern England under a single sceptre. He was born at Wantage, in Berkshire, A.D. 849. From a very early age he gave signs of those great virtues and powers which have made his name famous. He studied with delight the ballads and war-songs of his country, and as a child he used to repeat them to his mother. According to tradition, he was taken by his father to Rome, then the centre of religion and learning, where he acquired the knowledge of Latin, of which he afterwards made such valuable use. We hear of his having fought, while he was still a youth, in the army of his brother, Æthelred, then King of England.

England overrun by the heathen Danes.

He was himself called to the throne at the early age of twenty-two, at a time when the kingdom was threatened with destruction from end to end by roving hands of sea-robbers known as Northmen, Danes, or Vikings, *i.e.*, dwellers in creeks. His brother Æthelred had died in the midst of the struggle, and when Ælfred was proclaimed king, the prospect seemed to be almost desperate. The Danes were heathen, as the Saxons and Angles, when they first came over to Britain, had been before them. Pirates by sea and robbers by land, they spared nothing. Christian priests were again slain at the altar by the worshippers of Woden. Letters, arts, religion, government, were struck down before them. Their love of heathen rites was so deeply rooted, that Edmund, the king of East Anglia, had been tied to a tree and shot to death with arrows, because he refused to give up the Christian faith. Having overrun and taken possession of East Anglia they poured into Wessex, the headquarters of the kingdom of Ælfred, A.D. 871.

The first seven years of Ælfred's reign.

This was the very year in which Ælfred came to the throne. The first seven years of his reign were spent in constant, but

fruitless, endeavours to repel the invaders. At last, in 877, he was no longer able to keep the field, and all hope of resistance seemed to be lost. Never before had the fortunes of the young king fallen so low.

Loss and recovery of his kingdom.

If Ælfred had acted as his kinsman, the King of Mercia, had done four years before at a similar crisis,—if he had left his people in the hour of need and fled to Rome, to end his days in the safe shelter of a monastery,—the cause of England would have been lost, a new race would have become masters of the country, and the name of Englishman might have been seen no more in the page of history. But the lower the fortunes of his country fell, the higher did his courage and resourcefulness rise. Like the Roman consul after the crushing defeat at Cannæ, he never despaired of his country. With a small band of followers he threw himself into a fort hastily constructed on the Isle of Athelney, and lay concealed for the rest of the winter among the marshes of the Parret in Somersetshire, from which, with the help of scouts, he could watch closely the movements of his enemies. With the first opening of spring he called the thanes of Somerset to his standard, and gathering fresh troops on his way, all of whom he inspired with his own enthusiasm, he marched as silently as he could through Wiltshire towards the main body of the Danes. Finding them encamped in large force at Edington, he attacked them unawares, defeated them in a great battle, and after a siege of fourteen days forced the whole body to surrender. Their leader Guthrum was compelled to sue for peace and own himself vanquished. By the treaty of Wedmore, he bound himself to abstain from further incursions into Wessex, and agreed, with thirty of his chiefs, to receive Christian baptism.

The Peace of Wedmore.

In form, the peace of Wedmore seemed a surrender of the bulk of Britain to its invaders: in fact, it was the saving of England. Watling Street, the old road running from London to Chester, was made the boundary between the Saxons and the Danes. Thus all Northumbria, all East Anglia, Essex, and the eastern half of Mercia, were left subject to the northmen. All that remained to Ælfred of the once great kingdom of united England was his own Wessex (which included Kent), with the

upper part of the valley of the Thames, the whole valley of the Severn, and the plains of the Mersey and the Dee. Thus the peace of Wedmore saved little more than Wessex itself: but in saving Wessex it saved England.

The kingdom put in a state of defence.

The spell of terror having at last been broken, Ælfred was free to turn his attention to the internal affairs of his kingdom. But the first thing that he did was to put the country in a complete state of defence by land and by sea; for the peace of Wedmore was not binding for more than ten years, and fresh hordes of Danes might at any time come over from the creeks and peninsulas of Northern Europe. Old fortifications were repaired and new ones raised. The country was divided into military districts; every area of five hides was bound to send an armed man at the king's summons, and to provide him with food and pay, so long as his services might be required. The most urgent need, however, was to provide the means of meeting the Danes on their own element, the sea. To win the sea was a harder task than to win the land. The task that lay before Ælfred was not to organise or strengthen, but to create, a fleet. In this he succeeded so well, that during his own lifetime the pirates dared not meet him on the water; and during the reign of his son a fleet of a hundred English ships held command of the English Channel.

Issuing of a code of laws.

Now began the work of reconstruction and internal reform. His first act was to issue a code of laws compiled, with as few changes as possible, from those hitherto in force. "Among those things which I met with," he tells us, "either of the days of Ine my kinsman, or of Offa, King of the Mercians, or of Æthelberht, who first among the English race received baptism, whatever seemed to me best, these I have singled out, and rejected the others." He abstained as far as he could from making alterations; being afraid, as he said, that if the laws were much changed, "they might not be acceptable to his people or to their posterity." To the rank of lawgiver he made no pretensions. But unpretending as his work might seem, its utility—the only thing worth considering—was unquestionable. With the laws of Ælfred began the establishment of a national code; and the separate tribal codes of Wessex, Mercia, and Kent gradually fell into disuse.

Restoration and reform of the Church.

His next great act was to restore the Church, whose services had been dishonoured and whose monasteries and chapels had been to a large extent dismantled by the heathen Danes. Finding that almost all scholars had been driven out of England, he strove to revive in Wessex the learning which, about a hundred years before, had been carried to a high pitch of excellence in Northumbria by Bede and Alcuin. Under Ælfred's directions, and partly by the hand of Ælfred himself, the Pastoral of Pope Gregory was translated into English; and a copy of it was sent to every bishop and abbot of the kingdom. "Formerly," the king writes with bitterness, referring to the times of Charlemagne, who had invited Alcuin to his court, "men came hither for instruction; and now, when we desire it, we can only obtain it from abroad." Out of gratitude for his deliverance from the Danes he built and endowed a monastery in the marshes of Athelney, and founded an abbey in Winchester, the capital of his kingdom.

Foundation of English prose-literature.

Not the least among the great works to be placed to the credit of Alfred is that of having founded English prose-literature. Before this time England possessed the poems of Cædmon and his fellow-singers and a train of ballads and battle-songs. Prose she had none. Knowledge could be had only from books written in Latin, and such books could he read only by priests. He took the best-known books of his day, Orosius's *History of the World*, and Boethius's *Consolations of Philosophy*, and translated them into the language of the people. "Do not blame me," he writes with manly simplicity and candour, "if any know Latin better than I; for every man must say what he says and do what he does according to his ability." Into the history of Orosius he introduced a sketch of the new regions lately discovered in the Baltic, thus bringing the work up to date. He was the first to write a history of his own country. The meagre lists of kings and bishops preserved in the *Chronicle*, which had been commenced in an earlier age, were expanded into something like a national history by insertions from Bede. When the *Chronicle* reaches the age of Ælfred himself it suddenly rises into a vigorous narrative that marks the gift of a new power to the English tongue. It was continued by his successors up to A.D. 1154.

Though it varies from reign to reign in historic value, it remains the most venerable monument of original Teutonic prose, and the first vernacular history of any Teutonic people.

Fresh troubles with the Danes.

Twice since the treaty of Wedmore the peace of England was disturbed by fresh incursions of Danes, and on each occasion the Danes of Northumbria and East Anglia rose in great numbers to aid their kinsmen, the invaders. But Ælfred was well prepared to meet them. The result of the first conflict was that the West-Saxon frontier was pushed many miles forward into the realm of Guthrum, and London and half of Essex were released from the grasp of the Danes. The second invasion was more formidable and lasted for a longer time, but thanks to the strong fleet which Ælfred had built, the result was still more decisive: the Danes were beaten out of the English seas, and did not return within the lifetime of Ælfred and his son. Thus more firmly than ever was laid the foundation of a national monarchy,—a monarchy which in the hands of Ælfred's son, Edward the Elder, not only regained from the Danes all that had been lost, but extended its influence over Wales and Scotland.

Death and character of Alfred.

At the age of fifty-two, after a reign of thirty years, the great king died at Winchester, A.D. 901, and was buried in the cathedral. "So long as I have lived," he wrote in the later years of his life, "I have striven to live worthily and to leave to the men that come after a remembrance of me in good works." The hope in which he lived and toiled was fulfilled. One hundred and sixty-five years after his death, when the people were groaning under Norman tyranny, they fondly called him to mind as the "Darling of the English," and looked back with reverence to the memory of the man, to whom they ascribed all the rights and blessings that they had lost under their new masters.

The millenary commemoration in 1901.

The millenary festival, celebrated at Winchester in September 1901, shows that time does but add to his praises. The memory of his great name was powerful enough to draw together from the four corners of the earth representatives of

every branch of the Anglo-Saxon race to join in commemorating a career, which stands for all that is fairest in national character, loftiest in kingship, and noblest in manhood. Nothing was more conspicuous than the enthusiasm with which both colonials and Americans claimed their share in Ælfred, unless it was the warmth of the welcome with which the claim was admitted by citizens of the mother-country. In the bronze statue—the unveiling of which formed the central function of the festival—he stands fully equipped for war—erect, alert, majestic in the vigour of mature manhood and in the confidence of strength. But his attitude is peaceful, his shield rests on the ground, and his sword is sheathed. It is the figure of a king who is armed for defence, not for aggression; the watchful guardian of his people, not the ambitious adventurer burning for military fame. It thus symbolises what is now the policy of the great empire of Britain, which has grown up by slow degrees out of the little kingdom of Wessex founded one thousand years ago by Ælfred the Great.

116. Descriptive Essays.—I give three examples of descriptive essays: the first on the Indian Buffalo and its Wanderings; the second on the river Nile; the third on the Suez Canal. The first two are purely descriptive; the second contains some allusions to history.

I. THE INDIAN BUFFALO AND ITS WANDERINGS.

(See *Spectator*, 31st August 1901.¹)

The wild buffalo.

The buffalo is one of the few domesticated animals which are still found in their original wild state, with forms and habits scarcely altered. The wild buffalo is among the most dangerous and formidable of the big game of India, never hesitating to charge when wounded, and noted for the persistency with which it seeks to destroy the person who has injured it. Apparently its original home is the grass-grown jungles and swamps of Northern India, Nepal, and Assam. It is a huge black beast, with scarcely any hair, a skin like black gutta-percha, immense horns sometimes measuring more than twelve

¹ I am much indebted to the Editor of the *Spectator* for his having allowed me to make free use of the admirable essays published in his journal. The present essay is an adaptation and abridgment of one that appeared in August 1901.

feet along the curve. A bull stands six feet high at the shoulder. Its bulk is enormous, and its great spreading feet are well adapted for walking in the swamps. By choice it is semi-aquatic. A herd will lie for hours in a pool or river, with the eyes, horns, and great snub noses just above water.

The domesticated buffalo.

This enormously powerful and fierce animal has been so completely domesticated by the Hindoos, that in the northern districts of India the tame herds are regularly driven out to feed in the same jungles as those in which wild buffaloes live. The bulls of the wild herds will often come down from the sub-Himalayan slopes, and, after giving battle to the tame bulls, appropriate the cows for a time and keep them in the jungle. The chief mark of difference between the tame and the wild buffalo is that the horns of the former do not grow to the size of the latter, and have a different curve and pitch. Another effect of domestication is that the tame buffalo is not quite so large as the wild.

Late domestication of the buffalo.

Traces of the late date of their apprenticeship to the service of man are seen in their power of self-defence and combination, when threatened with attack by tigers or leopards, by their mating with the wild stock, and by the uncertainty of their temper, especially towards white-skinned strangers. In countries inhabited by Oriental races, these outbreaks of hereditary savageness occur whenever the white man happens to come in their way. Yet they are generally taken out to pasture by some small boy, who is their keeper and master; and if a tiger approaches, they will protect their little master no less eagerly than their calves and themselves. Those who have lived in Northern India have noticed that the tame buffalo is more inclined to exhibit signs of its savage ancestry in those districts which are nearest to the haunts of the wild buffalo than in those which are farther removed from them.

Its usefulness as a beast of draught.

As a beast of draught the buffalo has astonishing powers of hauling heavy traffic over bad roads. It can plough in mud as deep as its hocks. It can tow barges along canals and streams, sometimes walking in the shallow water by the banks, as barge-

horses did in the lower courses of the Thames before the towpath was made. The rice-fields, which feed so large a percentage of the population of Eastern Asia, could scarcely be cultivated without its aid. On hard dry roads it has learnt to be equally docile and useful, and will drag heavily laden carts for miles with the same passive endurance as the ox and with much greater strength. It asks for only one indulgence—a good hour's swim or mud-bath in the middle of the day.

Its usefulness as a dairy animal.

As a dairy-animal it is so valuable that the percentage of butter in its milk equals that of the best breeds of English dairy cattle, though the flavour is considered inferior by those who are not accustomed to it. Notwithstanding the abundance and richness of the milk that it yields, it will subsist and even thrive upon pasture which would be avoided with disgust by dairy cattle in Europe. The result is that it has become an equal favourite with the Hindoo, the Arab, and the Chinaman, and the various tribes inhabiting the swamps of the Lower Nile valley.

Wide extent of its wanderings.

The great distance at which we now find the buffalo established away from India, its original home, is evidence that the animal has a history of an exceedingly adventurous kind, were it possible to trace the story of its travels. Starting from the Indian jungles and swamps at the foot of the Himalayas, and then domesticated in the Indian plains, this useful animal has been taken to Egypt, Palestine, Southern Italy, and the Campagna, the south and east of Spain, Hungary, and Turkey. By some unknown route it has reached the west coast of Africa, and as a beast of draught and cultivation is established on the Niger. From Egypt it has travelled up the Nile, and is likely to go further; for in the great swamps of the Soudan, lying south of Fashoda, it would find a congenial home, and its services would be invaluable to the indigenous tribes. In the Far East the Chinaman has made it his peculiar pet, having, it is believed, first learnt its value in the rice-grounds of the south. It has been taken to Japan, where it now works in the rice-fields, to the Philippines, and to the islands of the Malay Archipelago; and there is no doubt it would be useful in British Guiana, if it were taken there.

Probably not known in ancient Egypt.

How or when the Indian buffalo found its way to Egypt is not at present known; but there is reason to think that its introduction does not go back to very ancient history. In Egypt there exists a pictorial record on the tombs and other monuments, covering some thousands of years, in which pictures of animals play an important part. Nowhere in the long picture-galleries of ancient Egypt does the Indian water-buffalo appear. The African buffalo is seen there, but this is of a different type. This is negative, yet rather convincing, testimony that the Indian buffalo was not known in Egypt in ancient times.

How carried to east and west of India.

Arab dhows have for ages done a regular trade in carrying horses from the west coast of India to the Persian Gulf. The dhow is one of the oldest forms of shipping that ever existed, and the Arab sailors who now ship horses in this kind of craft may have shipped buffaloes in an earlier age. It is also probable that in the era of Hindoo maritime enterprise these animals were taken to the Far East and to the east coast of Africa. Those that were landed at the head of the Persian Gulf would find a congenial habitat along the whole length of the Euphrates valley, from the northern extremities of which they could easily have been taken down the Jordan valley and thence into Egypt.

II. THE RIVER NILE.

(See Winwood Reade's *Martyrdom of Man*, ch. i.; Herodotus, bk. ii.; *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 9th edition, under NILE; *School World*, p. 22, January 1899.)

The Nile the chief natural feature of Egypt.

The Nile is the chief natural feature of Egypt. The valley through which it takes its course is bounded on each side by a range of bare rocky hills, one of which fringes the desert facing the Red Sea, and the other the Libyan desert that merges into the Sahara. In Lower Egypt these ranges widen and disappear, leaving a wide marshy plain called the Delta, which begins at Cairo and ends with the Mediterranean. In Upper Egypt, at the First Cataract—the southern extremity of Egypt proper—they approach each other so closely that they almost touch. Through the mountain-gate thus formed the Nile leaps down

over a long series of rocks, and after entering the valley below, runs due north with but few windings towards the Mediterranean. In Homer the name *Ægyptus* stands both for the river and for the country; but by the country he means only the strip of alluvial land formed by the mud-deposits of the river. To the same effect Herodotus points out that the "Egypt to which the Greeks go in their ships is an acquired country, the gift of the Nile."

The yearly inundation.

In winter and spring the Nile is a languid stream flowing almost silently through a dry and dusty plain. But at about the time of the summer solstice an extraordinary change takes place. The river rises many feet higher, becomes turbid and swift, and assumes a dark muddy colour. It continues to rise, until in an ordinarily good year it gains an additional height of about 40 feet at the First Cataract, about 36 at Thebes, about 25 at Cairo, and about 4 in the Delta. It attains its greatest height at or not long after the autumnal equinox. The whole valley is overspread with water, from which the villages, built on artificial mounds, rise like islands dotted about on the surface of a large inland lake. Egypt is by nature a rainless desert, which the Nile, and the Nile only, converts into a garden once a year.

The mystery of the Nile.

What the causes of this extraordinary change might be was a puzzle not only to the Egyptians themselves, but to the Greeks who in ancient times visited the country. It was one of the great problems of antiquity, and various modes of solving it were conjectured. The phenomenon ran counter to all experience, and seemed like a contradiction of nature. In the hottest months of the year, when the river, passing as it did through a rainless land, might have been expected to become lower than usual, if not to dry up altogether, it suddenly rose; and what added to the mystery, the further south the traveller went, the higher became the flood and the hotter and drier the air. Herodotus, who visited Egypt about 450 B.C., tells us that "concerning the nature of the river he could get no information either from the priests or from any one else; they could not tell him what special virtue the Nile had which made it so opposite in its nature to all other streams."

Three main points to be explained.

There are three main points to be explained regarding this wonderful river. Firstly, what and where are its sources? Secondly, what are the causes of the yearly inundation? Thirdly, why, when the river is in flood, does it become turbid and muddy; and why, when the flood subsides, does it revert to its normal aspect of clearness?

The source of the river.

As regards the sources of the Nile, the mystery has been cleared up by the explorations made within the last fifty years. Far away in the distant regions of the south, in the deep heart of Africa, there is a vast inland fresh-water sea, to which has been given the name of Victoria Nyanza, *i.e.* the Victoria Lake, borrowed from the name of the great queen in whose reign it was discovered. The line of the Equator passes through the northern waters of this lake; and it is crossed by 33° and 34° of east longitude. The lake measures 230 miles from north to south, and 220 from east to west. Its coast-line, which is very irregular, cannot be less than 2000 miles in length; its water-area is estimated at 27,000 square miles, and its very islands have an aggregate area of 1400 miles. This immense lake, whose watershed (including that of the Albert Nyanza) stands entirely apart from that of all other lakes of equatorial Africa, is fed by a large number of rivers flowing into it on all sides from the surrounding mountains, the rivers themselves being fed by the equatorial rains, which fall at irregular intervals in almost every month of the year. The rainfall in this part of Africa is not excessive, but it has no long breaks of drought, and on account of the coolness of the air and the prevalence of cloud the evaporation is slight. As the rainfall is received by a large number of streams, all of which flow into the lake, very little water is lost, and none of it falls into the ocean. The surface of the lake stands at an elevation of nearly 4000 feet—a higher elevation than that of any other lake in Africa, with the exception of two small lakes in the Abyssinian highlands. There is one, and only one, outflow from this great lake, *viz.* that of the “Ripon Falls” at the most northern point. These falls, having a breadth of from 400 to 500 feet, are the beginning of the river Nile, which, flowing northwards from

higher to lower ground, falls at last into the Mediterranean, after a course of about 3370 miles.

The cause of the yearly inundation.

The existence of the Nile, then, is due to the immense accumulation and constant renewal of water in the Victoria Nyanza. But for the inundation of the river, which converts rainless and dusty Egypt into a garden once a year, we must look for an entirely different cause. In the middle of the broad tract of country situated between the Nile and the mouth of the Arabian Gulf, lies the great highland region of Abyssinia, rising many thousand feet above the level of the sea, and intercepting the rain-clouds of the Indian Ocean in their flight towards the north. In Abyssinia, as in India, the natural division of the year is into a cold, a hot, and a rainy season. The cold season extends from October to February; the hot from the beginning of March to the middle of June; and the wet or monsoon period from this time to about the end of September. The rain that falls during the season last named not only keeps up the water-supply of Abyssinia itself, but is the cause of the annual overflow of the distant Nile. From the Abyssinian highlands, as soon as the monsoon or periodic rains have set in, two great rivers come pouring down their dried up or shrinking beds, and find their way at last to the still greater river, the Nile. The larger tributary, called the Blue Nile, issuing from Lake Tzana, situated in the heart of the highlands, takes a circuitous course round the southern fringe of Abyssinia; then turning north and following the general declivity of the African continent, falls into the main stream of the Nile at a point near Khartoum, after a course of about a thousand miles. This is the great eastern branch of the Nile, and by one or two explorers was considered, though wrongly, the main stream of the river. The other tributary, the Atbara, rising near Lake Tzana, but from a different watershed, takes a direct north-westerly route, and after a course of about eight hundred miles falls into the Nile two or three hundred miles below Khartoum, not far from Berber. The main stream, recruited by these great tributaries, suddenly rises in volume and is forced impetuously along. In the Nubian desert, through which it winds, its waters are held in between walls of rock and form a succession of cataracts. As soon as it has penetrated the gorge of the First Cataract (which

is really the last of six, but is called the First, because it is the one first seen from Egypt), it falls upon the low-lying plain and overwhelms its banks on either side with the vast body of water. This, then, is the cause of the yearly inundation of Egypt.

Cause of the change of colour.

As regards the change of colour from clear to muddy,—the third point to be explained,—this, too, is caused by the Abyssinian tributaries, the larger of which is called the Blue Nile, from the dark blue and almost black colour of its waters. The main stream, before the Blue Nile enters it at Khartoum, is called the White Nile from its clearness; and after the inundation has subsided, this clearness is restored to it. But the Blue Nile and the Atbara, when they are in flood, bring down from their native land a black or dark-blue silt, which the flood strews over the whole valley of Egypt as a kind of top-dressing or manure. On that fertile deposit, as soon as the waters have retired, the village peasantry cast their seed, as their ancestors did thousands of years ago. When the seed is cast, their labours are completed. Sunshine only is required to fulfil the crop, and in Egypt the sun is never obstructed by a cloud.

Sections of the Nile.

The basin of the Nile may be divided into three different regions,—the Equatorial from 3° S. to 4° N., the Riverine from 4° to 10°, and the Rainless region from 10° to the Mediterranean. (a) The Equatorial region, which includes the great lake and the two smaller lakes, the Albert Edward and the Albert, is much the highest of the three and has the greatest rainfall. Here the Nile has for the most part the character of a mountain-stream running swiftly along a rocky channel, and broken by picturesque islands and countless rapids. Within this region stands the fine table-land of Uganda. (b) The Riverine region is so called from the number of streams that flow from all sides into the hollow of the basin lying between Lado and Fashoda. Here the dark and ill-smelling water shows no signs of motion; mosquitoes and other swamp flies swarm in myriads; and navigation is sometimes blocked by the papyrus and other tall grasses that rise 20 or 30 feet above the water. In the Riverine region the rainfall is about half that in the Equatorial. (c) The Rainless region

contains, first, the straight river-course from Fashoda to Khartoum, where the Blue Nile from Abyssinia enters the White Nile,—then the winding river-course marked by the junction of the Atbara and the occurrence of the Six Cataracts, the highest of which is seen a little above Khartoum, and the lowest (called the First), a little above Assouan, the site of the great barrage,—and finally, the long alluvial valley of Egypt extending from the First Cataract to the Mediterranean. The Nile enters the Mediterranean by seven different mouths, the two principal ones being the Damietta and the Rosetta. At the apex of the Delta stands Cairo, the historic capital of modern Egypt.

Recapitulation.

Such then is the history of the Nile, the second largest river on the earth, surpassed only by the Amazon of South America. Owing to the immense reservoir of the great equatorial lake, from which it rises and by which it is unceasingly fed through all seasons of the year, it is able to cross a vast and burning desert till it reaches the Mediterranean. Were it not for the existence of this mighty river, the two great Abyssinian streams would be drunk up by the Nubian desert and never reach the sea: as it is, both of them become almost dry before the Abyssinian monsoon sets in. Again, were it not for the yearly flood of Abyssinian tributaries and the fertilising mud that they bring down with them, Egypt would be a dusty and barren plain, unable to support human life. Thus Egypt, one of the richest gardens of the world, the cradle of ancient civilisation, the battlefield of nations, the home of great cities, and the seat of great monarchies, owes her fertility, her fame, and even her existence to the bounty of the Nile.

III. THE SUEZ CANAL

(See *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 9th edition, under CANAL.)

Two kinds of ship-canals.

We may distinguish ship-canals into two different kinds. Firstly, there is that kind of canal which enables ships to pass direct from the sea to some town situated at some distance from the coast. Examples of this are the Manchester ship-canal, which connects the Atlantic Ocean (*via* the Irish Sea and the Mersey estuary) with the great manufacturing city of Man-

chester; and the canal in Holland, about fifty miles long, by which ships are conveyed direct from the North Sea to the great commercial city of Amsterdam. Secondly, there is that kind which joins one sea with another, such as the Caledonian Canal in Scotland, which, with the help of locks and of natural lakes, carries ships across districts standing higher than the sea-level, and joins the North Sea with the Atlantic. The Suez Canal belongs to the class last named: it joins the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, but as there is no rising ground on the way, it does so without the help of locks.

Antiquity of the Suez Canal project.

The idea of forming this water-link between sea and sea, though carried out only in recent times, dates back to an unknown antiquity. While the present canal was being dug, some traces were found of an old canal that had long been abandoned and had become so filled with sand as to be scarcely distinguishable. The project of opening out a water-channel to connect the two seas was formed by Julius Cæsar, but frustrated by his assassination in the Roman Senate. The idea, though not taken up by any of Cæsar's successors in the Roman Empire, was revived by Napoleon Buonaparte, who, during his short reign in Egypt, where he embraced the creed of Islam, and but for the destruction of his fleet by Nelson, would have established a great eastern empire to be ruled by himself as Sultan or Caliph, obtained a report from a French engineer, which was favourable to the scheme. It remained for M. de Lesseps, about forty years after Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo, to realise by the excavation of the canal what were thought to be the dreams of commercial speculators. The possibility of carrying out this work and the benefits that would result from it, are alluded to by Marlowe, who preceded Shakespeare, in the following lines:—

And here, not far from Alexandria,
Whereat the Tyrrhene and the Red Sea meet,
Being distant less than full a hundred leagues,
I meant to cut a channel to them both,
That men might quickly sail to India.

Tamburlaine the Great, pt. ii. act v. sc. 5.

The canal useful only for steamers.

The postponement of the scheme, as it turned out, was, from a commercial point of view, fortunate. Sailing-vessels were the

only kind of ships known in Napoleon's time ; and the masters of such ships would have preferred the free sea-way of the Cape of Good Hope, in spite of its length and liability to storms, to threading their way through an intricate inland passage, involving risks of rocks and shoals, protracted calms, and contrary winds. But by the time that Lesseps' canal was ready, screw-steamers had come into use ; and this mode of navigation made a radical change in the choice of navigable routes. Screw-steamers were independent of the wind for their propulsion, and could be steered with the most delicate precision through narrow straits and passages. By taking the canal route in preference to the route by the Cape, they effected a saving of nearly four thousand miles.

Time taken and means employed for its construction.

It took about nine years to make the canal. The credit of making it belongs to De Lesseps, the originator, to the French company who supported him, to the Khedive or Viceroy of Egypt (Said Pasha), who granted very liberal terms and supplied about 30,000 Egyptian labourers able to work under the heat of an Egyptian sun, and to the late Emperor of the French (Napoleon III.), who undertook the cost of its completion, when Ismail, the brother and successor of Said, withdrew. The credit might have belonged to England, which had a far greater interest in seeing the canal made than any other power ; but De Lesseps' overtures were declined by the short-sightedness of Lord Palmerston and the bad advice of English engineers. The canal was commenced in 1860. By the end of 1868 it was very nearly completed. In February 1869 the water was let in from the Mediterranean, and in July of the same year from the Red Sea. By the beginning of October, what had hitherto been a parched and arid plain, could be navigated by ships of the largest size then built. On the 20th November 1869 the canal was formally opened.

Its length and other particulars.

The total length of the canal from end to end, including the lakes that have been formed on the route, is 88 miles. Of this distance 66 miles were made by cuttings ; 14 by dredging through the cavities which had become lakes when the water was let in : the remaining 8 miles required no deepening, the natural depth being equal to that of the canal. The

course was admirably chosen. It passed through five large cavities or basins, which are now small inland seas. On the western shore of the most central of these (Lake Timsah) stands the new and flourishing town of Ismaila, called after the Khedive in whose time the canal was opened. At the Mediterranean end stands Port Said, called after the Khedive in whose time the canal was begun. At the Red Sea end stands Suez with its fine jetty built out into deep water.

First impressions of the traveller from Europe.

The rocks that first meet the eye of the traveller, as he approaches the canal from the Mediterranean, are part of the great breakwater that extends out to sea for two miles on either side of the channel through which the canal is entered. The visitor from Europe, who goes ashore at Port Said, will carry away lively remembrances of unattractive sandy streets, bad smells, myriads of flies, and the babel of clamouring boatmen and vendors of fruits, perfumes, and ostrich feathers. If this is his first visit to the East, he will here for the first time feel that he has landed in a new world and left Europe completely behind him. He will here get his first glimpses of Oriental life and customs,—the peculiar Egyptian dress, women with veiled faces, the eyes peering out of holes in the mask or overlooking it. Here he will probably see his first camel; and here probably, unless he is an enthusiast for novelty, he may feel some desire to turn back to Europe.

Recent improvements in the canal.

The canal has been much enlarged and improved since it was first made. The original width was about 300 feet at the surface and about 72 feet at the bottom, and the original depth 26 feet. It was impossible for one ship to pass another, but at every five or six miles there was a siding to enable large vessels to moor for the night or to allow other vessels to pass. Since those days the canal has been both deepened and widened. In 1886 a consultative commission was formed, when it was decided to increase the depth of the canal from 26 feet to 27 feet 10 inches, and the width from 72 feet to 121 feet 4 inches. Owing to constant interruptions by the traffic on the canal, this work was not completed till December 1898. The dredging on the canal is still being continued, and it is expected that a depth of 31 feet at least will be reached ere long. Nine

additional sidings have been provided; and any ship which carries an electric light may continue its voyage through the night.

Purchase of the Khedive's shares by England.

Though originally constructed, as we have seen, by French enterprise and skill, the Suez Canal has passed more and more into the financial ownership as well as under the political protection of England. In 1875, six years after the opening, when the Khedive's shares were in the market, the British Government seized the opportunity of buying them, at a cost of about £4,000,000. Egypt itself has since then passed under the protection of England, and this has greatly strengthened England's hold upon the canal also.

Importance of ship-canal.

The construction of a great oceanic highway, severing continents before united, and connecting seas before separated by thousands of miles of circuitous navigation, stirs up a great deal of international jealousy, when such a project is first started. But whatever the initial difficulties may be, we may be certain that wherever the perils, delays, and expenses of ocean-traffic can be lessened by forming canals, these valuable helps to navigation will at all hazards be carried out. Utility, like truth, will prevail.

117. Reflective Essays.—A Reflective essay is one in which, from the nature of the subject set, the writer is called upon to express his thoughts on some subject of a general or abstract nature. It is therefore quite distinct from a Narrative or Descriptive essay, which deals with some person, object, or event that is necessarily concrete. I give three examples,—the first on Practical Wisdom, the second on Stamp-collecting, the third on the Influence of Newspapers.

I. PRACTICAL WISDOM.

(Based on an essay by Helps, the author of *Essays written in the Intervals of Business.*)

Its regulative force.

Practical wisdom acts in the mental world as gravitation does in the material. It combines things that would otherwise disperse, keeps them in their places, and maintains a mutual dependence amongst the various parts of our system. It is for

ever reminding us where we are and what we can do, not in fancy, but in real life. It does not permit us to wait for contingent or far-fetched duties, pleasant to the imagination, but insists upon our doing those that are before us. It is always inclined to make much of what it possesses; and is not given to ponder over those schemes which might have been carried on, if what is irrevocable had been other than what it is. It does not suffer us to waste our energies in vain regrets. In journeying with it we go towards the sun, and leave the shadow of our burden to fall behind us.

Its choice of means.

In bringing anything to completion, the means which it looks for are not the shortest, nor the neatest, nor the readiest that can be imagined. They have, however, this advantage, that they are within reach. Means that are not within reach, however short, neat, or otherwise desirable they may be, are discarded as not worth considering.

Harmony amongst all the faculties and emotions.

It consists not in any one predominant faculty or disposition, but rather in a certain harmony among all the faculties and emotions of the mind. Where this harmony exists, there are likely to be well-chosen ends, and means judiciously adapted to secure these ends. When we see instances, as we sometimes do, of men who are possessed of great abilities and yet accomplish nothing, we are apt to form our views of practical wisdom from the particular failings of these men, and to conclude that it consists in having a definite purpose, and being constant to it. But this view is false. A deeply selfish person will be constant enough to his purpose, and the purpose will be a definite one; yet we could hardly hold up a selfish man as a model of practical wisdom, especially when we find that such men are sometimes the least successful in the world. A selfish man can see nothing above, or beyond, or beside himself. Hence there can be no harmony among his faculties and affections; and without such harmony there can be no practical wisdom.

Aided by imagination.

It is sometimes supposed that practical wisdom is not likely to be found in imaginative persons. If by "imaginative persons" you mean those that have an excess of imagination,

this is admitted; for in the mind, as in the body, general dwarfishness is often accompanied by a disproportionate size of some part or member, as when the large hands and large feet of a dwarf seem to have stunted his stature. But if it is meant that imagination is in its nature inconsistent with practical wisdom, we deny the statement. Few men have done great things in the world who have not had a large power of imagination,—the power of realising a situation before it has come, of anticipating in what light one's plans will be regarded by other men no less interested in the upshot than ourselves nor less competent to judge, and how the said plans will work when brought to the test of experience.

No shirking of difficulties.

It is a common error to suppose that practical wisdom is something epicurean in its nature,—something which shirks difficulties, takes things as they come, and takes them easily, seeks to get rid of work rather than accomplish it, to avoid troubles rather than conquer them. From a false notion of this kind many persons are considered visionary, speculative, and in short unpractical, because they look below the surface and beyond the present, and are not satisfied with small expedients and devices that serve to conceal the ills which cannot at once be cured, or, if curable at all, cannot be cured entirely. If to be practical is to put off the evil day, to do things in such a way as to leave a great deal for other people to do or undo at some future time not far distant, then certainly men of this careful, scrutinising, far-seeing, painstaking sort are not practical; for it is their nature to prefer an open visible rent to a time-serving patch. If such persons find it necessary to resort to patching as a temporary convenience, they will not permit themselves to fancy that they have done a thing, when they have only hit upon some expedient for putting off the doing.

Has no tinge of baseness.

It is supposed by some men that practical wisdom has a tinge of baseness in it. They fancy that high moral aims and great principles are not intended for daily use, and that there is no room for them in the ordinary affairs of life. This is an extreme delusion. How is the world to be made better? Not by mean little schemes which some men fondly call matters of common sense, not by setting one evil thing to balance or

counteract another, but by putting into practice those principles, which are looked upon at first as theories, but are at last recognised and acted upon as the indispensable guides of life. The men who first introduce these principles are in the highest sense of the term practical men, though the practices which their policy creates may not come into vogue in the lifetime of their founders.

II. STAMP-COLLECTING.

(Mainly an abridgment of a very clear and interesting essay in *School World*, August 1901, by Rev. A. Thompson.)

Stamp-collecting popular among all classes.

All classes of society, not excluding crowned heads, have become infected with what is called the craze of stamp-collecting. His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, ever since the beginning of his midshipman days on the *Thrush*, when he travelled much and had special opportunities, collected stamps wherever he went; and he made several important additions to his collection during his tour among the Colonies of the empire on board the *Ophir*. Many gentlemen now living, who as schoolboys started collections some forty or fifty years ago, have now in their possession some of the world's rarest stamps. The march of time has not rendered the hobby less popular. Friends and relatives are as much pressed as ever by the younger generation to collect stamps for them. Seniors in yielding to the request, and juniors in making it, are guided by a wise instinct.

A mark of intelligence and industry amongst the young.

If a comparison is made between those who do and those who do not make a pastime of this pursuit, the comparison will in most cases be favourable to the former. It will be found that the collectors as a rule are intelligent, thoughtful, and methodical, and that they rarely come under the class of skulker, loungeur, or mischief-worker of any kind. No one will suggest that coin-collecting or egg-collecting or butterfly-collecting does not possess an improving and instructive value. Why then should not a similar value attach to stamp-collecting? As a matter of fact such advantage does attach to it. Nothing that helps to fix the attention, regulate pursuit, or sustain interest, can be without some direct or indirect advantage to those who engage in it.

An aid to the study of general geography.

A stamp from a far country comes to the collector like a seasoned traveller, with its own tale to tell. Hence the first and most obvious value of stamp-collecting is the geographical. To-day one new specimen is added, to-morrow another, the next day a third; and as the countries are usually arranged in an album under their respective continents, a rough idea of the chief political units in different parts of the world is formed without any conscious effort on the part of the learner. Similarly the situation of many an obscure territory or remote island is fixed in the memory. Charmed with the pleasing designs of stamps hailing from such lands as Borneo, Hayti, Hawaii, etc., the collector pays special heed to the names and locations of countries whose position might otherwise escape him. In this way facts imperceptibly soak into the mind, which, without such pursuit, could be acquired only through books and by an effort.

Throws light on the political and physical characteristics of countries.

From the different designs of his stamps the collector will probably learn something of the political or physical characteristics of the different countries which they represent. Not always, but generally, he will get a king's or a queen's head on the stamps of monarchical states, while republics are almost sure to declare themselves in bold type. Colonial stamps invariably bear the hall-mark of the central power to which they belong, while each colony is likely to have some distinguishing mark of its own. Sometimes the figure of a volcano, a palm-tree, a leopard, a llama, a tiger, or some other natural feature impressed on the stamp will disclose the characteristics of the country concerned. On the other hand a turbaned head will suggest the territory of an Indian or East African prince; a ship or a sea-view will suggest an island; a pyramid, Egypt; a crescent and star some portion of Turkish territory; strange characters that look like hieroglyphics will suggest some land in the Far East such as Japan or China. These significant symbols serve to impress the imagination, to bring home to the mind of the learner the reality of places and countries which he is never likely to visit, and to connect with his notion of places not only a name, but "a local habitation."

A stimulus to the study of history.

Let us now turn to the historical value attaching to the practice of stamp-collecting. One of the first discoveries made by the collector is that stamps fall into two natural divisions—the obsolete and the current, of which the former are necessarily more rare, and therefore more prized. It will often be found that the political history of modern kingdoms is the history of their postage stamps.

Current stamps teach contemporary history.

From the study of current stamps, if he is at all of an inquiring mind, he picks up a quantity of miscellaneous information relating to the current or recent history of the countries to which the stamps belong. He learns, or has the chance of learning, something of reigning monarchs and of the events of their reigns. He learns, for instance, that the Emperor William has for some time past been sovereign in Germany, and is nearly related by blood to the royal family of England; that Nicholas II. of Russia came to the imperial throne at a more recent date, and is also very nearly related to our own royal family; that the Queen of Holland is the youngest but one of the monarchs of Europe; that the kings of Denmark and Greece are among our oldest and best friends; that the Mikado of Japan has become our ally in the Far East. This and such-like knowledge may not be very profound nor very valuable, but it enlarges the mental horizon of the young stamp-collector, and makes him take some interest in the affairs of the outside world; and such knowledge comes to him through constant intercourse with his stamps and catalogues. Jubilees, centenaries, and other commemorative events are impressed upon his mind by contemporaneous stamp issues.

Obsolete stamps teach past history.

From obsolete stamps he learns still more history than from current ones. He asks, How is it that they have become obsolete? and he obtains replies which reveal particular reasons for the supersession of old issues. Thus he learns that new issues are the result of improved international postal arrangements, or of the inevitable successions of new sovereigns, or of revolutions in government. Thus from an obsolete postage stamp of Brazil he will learn that the people of that extensive

country some twenty-five years ago deposed their emperor and set up a republican government in place of the imperial. He learns that the great states are swallowing up the small ones. In Europe alone he finds that numerous states are, like their stamps, obsolete : and he prizes more than ever the stamps of the many small states of Germany, which have been swallowed up by the kingdom of Prussia ; whilst he wonders how long Bavaria and Bosnia and Herzegovina will retain control of separate postal systems. The kingdom of Italy is a splendid fact in our late nineteenth century, but the stamp-collector cannot forget that it took from him the stamps of Modena, Parma, and Tuscany. In the obsolete stamps of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick we read an interesting page of the annals of our empire, when in 1867 these were merged with Ontario and Quebec in the great Dominion of Canada.

Stamps have preserved many historic portraits.

Postage stamps have preserved for us many historic portraits, some of them telling of experiments in government, others of political catastrophes : such are the portraits of Dom Pedro of Brazil ; of the ill-fated Maximilian of Mexico ; of the late Shah of Persia ; and of the late-lamented King Humbert of Italy. On the stamps of the United States we have portraits of Garfield, Grant, and Lincoln ; while Franklin, Washington, and Columbus have been called out of the past to add lustre to the gallery. The head of Rajah Brooke on the stamps of Sarawak brings to mind a remarkable personality and a unique story of British pluck and enterprise.

Stamp-collecting gives some training in design.

There is an artistic value in stamp-collecting besides the geographical and the historical values already described. It is almost impossible for a thoughtful collector to be constantly handling stamps without becoming interested in design. Heads, emblems, landscapes, figure-groups—each has its peculiar charm. Connoisseurs delight in the exquisite line-engravings and colourings of the early British and Colonial stamps, and are struck with their superiority to most of the products of modern processes. The stamp-collector finds many occasions for the study of slight differences. When he realises that a distinction, however trifling, gives him an extra stamp—possibly a rare one—he is keen to scrutinise every specimen which comes into

his possession. Not only does he look for differences which will give him new stamps, but he tests each specimen against those he already possesses, so that every stamp retained in his collection may be as nearly perfect a specimen as he can obtain. In turn he will consider the paper, the watermark, the ink, the die. He will count dots and lines and perforations, and balance the claims of tints and definitions.

CONCLUSION.—Stamp-collecting should not be undervalued because it is a pastime.

The same zeal, it will be said, expended on botany, geology, or astronomy would have helped to make him a proficient in one of these sciences. So perhaps it would. But our assumption is that he is collecting stamps as a pastime, and not as a difficult study to be pursued as a duty during the working hours of the day. To a hard-worked brain there is nothing, next to physical exercise or sport, that gives so much recreation as a hobby out of school hours. Our point is, that one whose choice of a hobby has fallen on the collection of stamps, is not playing in a barren field; that he is picking up, in an easy and interesting way, ideas on geography, history, and design; that he is learning to take note of slight differences; in short, that he is cultivating order, precision, and judgment,—qualities which no one can afford to despise, and which are more likely to be engraved on the character when they are acquired unconsciously in the course of an agreeable and instructive pursuit.

III. THE INFLUENCE OF NEWSPAPERS.

What a newspaper is.

A newspaper, if the word is to be taken in its literal sense, is a paper which gives news; and this was all that the first newspapers undertook or attempted to do. But the daily press is now used for many other purposes. Besides giving news it gives advice, criticism, praise, or blame, and in several other respects has gone far beyond its original functions. Newspapers, as we now know them, are the organs of public opinion on all kinds of news, local, provincial, national, imperial, and foreign, and on all kinds of subjects, social, political, legal, industrial, scientific, literary. The definition here given is a wide one, but anything less wide would not cover the ground.

The phrase "organ of public opinion" presupposes that the press is free,—subject to no censorship, and allowed, so long as it keeps itself honest, unbribed, and unlibellous, to run its course unimpeded in any channel or channels that it may select. In countries where the press is not free, newspapers do not express the feeling of the nation, but merely the will of the sovereign or of those who exercise the power of a sovereign. Of such newspapers no account will be taken in the present essay.

Newspapers can be put to a wrong use.

There is nothing under the sun but has its evil side,—its powers of mischief when a wrong use is made of it. Newspapers are no exception. The press is an evil, when those who are responsible for its management take bribes to support a bad cause, or to palliate public or private misdeeds. It is an evil, when it lends its columns to attacking individuals from motives of personal malice, or from race-jealousy; when it gives out false or unsupported news as true to ensure a large and ready sale; when it panders to a morbid taste by publishing repulsive details of cruelty or vice; when it stirs up bad blood between one class and another, between employers and employed, or between nations that might be friendly; when it is used, as it sometimes is, without the knowledge of editors, for publishing fraudulent advertisements or laying traps to catch the unwary.

Newspapers are a check upon one another.

There are many ways then in which the press, if it is dishonestly or incautiously managed, can be productive of mischief. But the remedy for such mischief is to a large extent supplied by newspapers themselves. They are a constant check upon one another: for they cannot get rid of competition, and competition provokes comparison. When the public has to decide between conflicting views or contradictory statements, the paper which has proved to be inferior to its rivals in accuracy of statement, or in honesty of intention, loses credit with its readers and does injury to itself. In this way a healthy public opinion is formed. In the editing of newspapers, as in everything else, truth and honesty is the best policy. The press, then, is the best safeguard against its own misuse.

A cheap daily press is a popular educator.

A free press, in a free country like our own, supplements the educational machinery provided by the Government for the benefit of the nation. It supplements, as nothing else could, the work done by the Education Act of 1870, under which attendance at school up to a certain age has been made compulsory for the son or daughter of even the poorest citizen. If there were no cheap literature such as is furnished by the daily newspaper at the cost of one penny or even one half-penny, there would be nothing for the masses to read on weekdays. A working man, even if he had the means to buy books, would have no leisure to read them. Without the help of newspapers, he would soon forget through sheer disuse the elementary knowledge that he acquired at school, and become almost as illiterate as if he had never attended one. The daily press, therefore, is one of the great educators of the people.

It qualifies a man for citizenship.

Granted that newspapers give the working man something to read, it may still be asked, "What good can they do him? What can they teach him?" The answer is, that the newspaper can not only give him an intelligent interest in the passing events of his neighbourhood or his country, but can help, among other influences, to engender in his mind a due sense of his rights as a citizen, and of the duties involved in such rights. In this free country of England there are at least two electoral bodies for which every citizen, whatever his station in life may be, is asked to use his judgment and to give his vote. He has to choose some one to represent him in the supreme ruling body of the nation, *i.e.* in the House of Commons. He has also to choose some one to represent him in the local body controlling the town or county in which he lives. It is only by reading the daily or weekly newspaper that he can become qualified to discharge such duties,—duties with which the law of the land has entrusted him, and in which the country has a claim to his co-operation. In a free self-governing community a man owes his civic life to the place and country in which he lives, as he owes his physical life to his family. The greatness of a country depends on its possessing citizens of this fibre,—men who feel that they belong to a great nation and are proud of belonging to it.

There is nothing more likely to produce such men than a healthy public opinion, stimulated and sustained by a healthy daily press.

A free press is the champion of political freedom.

The vitality of the daily press, the degree of confidence which it inspires, and the amount of wholesome influence that it may exercise on the public mind depend, as was stated, upon its being absolutely free; and hence the press in self-defence, if for no higher motive, has ever been the champion of political freedom. In time of war it may be necessary to place a distant correspondent under the restraint of a military censorship for some reason that may be justified by the exigencies of the hour. But in time of peace, when no such exigencies can be pleaded, the press will be content with nothing short of entire independence. In England, whenever it fought for its own freedom, it was fighting at the same time for the liberties of the nation. The perfect freedom that it now enjoys is only about a century old. Under the Tudors and the Stuarts, when the liberties of the nation were at the lowest, it had to submit to a censorship, and no one was allowed to print without a license. From the time of Queen Anne till 1855, it was taxed by a Stamp Act and a paper duty, and by no sovereign was it so heavily taxed as by George III. From the days of the *North Briton* to those of the *Times* every action taken by the Government against the freedom of the press gave tenfold currency to the doctrines proclaimed by the press and assailed by the king. One great point established by the press in the reign of George III. was the right of reporters to attend the debates in Parliament and publish details of the proceedings. In securing this right for itself, the press secured a great constitutional right for the nation. The privilege of secret legislation, which sovereigns had hitherto claimed, could be maintained no longer.

It fosters a sense of brotherhood within the nation.

It is by means of newspapers that the different sections of a nation are bound together in sympathy with great causes and noble ideals. All great discoveries and inventions, as soon as they are made, are announced in the press, and thus become known to millions, who without the help of newspapers would never hear of them. The purity of justice is maintained by

the reports of proceedings in law courts. No misuse of power, no miscarriage of justice, can long remain undetected or unredressed. All great questions are brought to the bar of public opinion. All legislation is discussed, while it is in progress, from every point of view that can be brought to bear upon it by intelligent readers. All the best books that are published, whatever the subject may be, are reviewed and criticised in the daily or weekly press, so that the reader may keep himself abreast with the main currents of contemporary science and literature.

It fosters a sense of brotherhood with other nations.

Lastly, it is the function of a newspaper to teach a nation not merely to understand itself, but to understand other nations, and thus furnish a link through which all nations may be bound together by the ties of common hopes and common ideals. As a form of literature a newspaper lacks, it is true, the element of permanence: but the ideas with which it seeks to inspire its readers produce an effect that is lasting. It is the only kind of reading that is almost universal. No one is so occupied with the business of his calling but he finds time to read the daily newspaper, though he may not find time to read a book. If the idea of the universal brotherhood of man is ever to be realised, as the best men have hoped and some of the wisest men have believed, the result will be largely due to the influence of newspapers.

The unity of man,
One spirit over ignorance and vice
Predominant, in good and evil hearts,
One sense for moral judgments, as one eye
For the sun's light.

WORDSWORTH, *Prelude* viii.

118. Expository Essays.—An Expository essay is one in which, from the nature of the subject set, the writer is called upon to explain or expound something. Being concerned with facts rather than thoughts, with results rather than opinions, an Expository essay is of a less abstract character than a Reflective one, or deals with a reflective subject in a less abstract way.

I give three examples: the first on "Mountains as Rain-Producers" (a question of physical geography); the second on the "Causes that have led to the Growth of the Daily Press" (a subject partly industrial and partly political); the third on the "Cabinet" (a subject partly political and partly historical).

I. MOUNTAINS AS RAIN-PRODUCERS.

(*School World*, p. 347, September 1901 ; Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography*, Lesson X.).

Mountains do not produce rain by squeezing the air.

That mountains and mountainous tracts are much more exposed to rain than lowlands is a fact familiar to the most careless observer. What then is the relation between rainfall and mountains? An opinion that we often hear expressed is that the atmosphere acts like a sponge, and that when the moisture-laden air is pressed by wind against the side or top of a mountain, the rain is squeezed out of the air as moisture is squeezed from a sponge. This is a complete misconception of the part played by mountains in the production of rainfall. The air may be correctly likened to a sponge, so far as its power of taking up more moisture depends upon the amount of moisture already present, just as the ability of a sponge to absorb more water depends upon the amount of water that is in it already. But here the analogy ceases. An illustration which is so fruitful of misconception, if its limitations are not properly understood, had better be abandoned altogether.

Aqueous vapour is a constant ingredient in air.

The question arises, How does the water which comes to us in the form of rain find its way into the atmosphere at all? Aqueous vapour is one of the gases that form a constant ingredient in the air. It is given off in an invisible form as a gas from the surface of every sea, lake, river, and spring, and even from ice and snow. The air is constantly endeavouring to absorb this vapour. When it has taken in all it can hold and can receive no more, it is said to be saturated or to have reached its point of saturation. Then evaporation ceases. This limit varies according to temperature, warm air being able to contain more vapour than cold. Evaporation takes place chiefly during the day, and especially during the warmer hours of the day. It has been calculated that the amount of water that annually passes into the atmosphere in the form of invisible vapour would, if collected together into one mass, cover to the depth of one mile an area of about 200,000 square miles, or a space nearly equal to the area of France.

Evaporation is balanced by condensation.

If then from every ocean, every lake, and every river on the surface of the earth water-vapour is continually passing into the air, what becomes of all this vapour, and why do not the waters of the globe grow less? Why does not the ocean show some signs of shrinkage? The reason is, that the conversion of water from its visible liquid form into the invisible gaseous state is only one-half of a world-wide system of circulation. The vapour is not allowed to accumulate indefinitely in the atmosphere: it is "condensed" or changed back again into water, in which character it reappears in such forms as dew, clouds, rain, or snow. The two processes of evaporation and condensation seem on the whole to balance each other—that is, so far as the larger features of the earth's system are concerned, there appears to be about as much water returned to the sea and land as is taken from them by the atmosphere. The author of the Book of Ecclesiastes appears to have perceived this fact when he wrote, "All rivers run into the sea, yet the sea is not full; unto the place (the sea) whence the rivers come, thither they return again" (chap. i. 7).

Rain is the most common effect of condensation.

By far the greater part of the vapour of the atmosphere is given back to the earth in the form of rain. The minute water-particles of which cloud is composed run together, and, as condensation proceeds, form rather larger drops. When the drops thus formed have reached a certain size, they become too heavy to float in the air and begin to fall earthwards. At first they are very small; but as they descend through the air, they increase in size until they reach the ground in well-marked rain-drops.

Rain is caused by the chilling of the rain-cloud.

It is the chilling of the cloud that causes rain to fall from it. A cold wind which is heavy and keeps near the ground may wedge itself in below a warm, moist layer of air, and chill it to such a degree as to form cloud and bring down rain. Or, where a warm, moisture-laden wind comes against a range of mountains and is consequently forced to ascend to an elevation at which the temperature is cold, it may not only be condensed into mist, but if cooled still more will drop its moisture as rain.

Mountains produce rain by forcing up the air-current.

The office of mountains, then, as producers of rain, is to force the warm, moist air into higher regions, whereby it is cooled and the vapour contained in it is condensed and precipitated as rain. A single peak, even if very high, may not be very effective, since the air-current may pass round it instead of over it, and merely form clouds while it passes. But if the air-current comes against a mountain range—*i.e.* a succession of peaks connected by continuous blocks of mountain not much lower than the peaks—the whole mass of air driven by the wind must either pass over it or make an attempt to do so. In thus passing or making the attempt to pass, it is forced up to higher and colder levels. Mountains, then, produce rain merely because they act as obstacles to the air-current. There is no squeezing of the cloud similar to the process of squeezing a sponge. If this were the process employed, the water would fall, not as rain-drops formed by the gradual and gentle process of condensation, but in enormous masses that would overwhelm any village or town lying underneath.

Examples in different countries.

If the above explanation is correct, the rainfall in any country must be greatly affected by the form of the surface of the land and by the direction from which the moisture-laden winds blow. These conditions differ, as we need hardly add, in different countries. In the British Isles, for example, the rains are chiefly brought by the south-westerly winds, because these winds come across the broad Atlantic Ocean, from which an abundant evaporation is constantly taking place. The coast-line of Britain which faces that ocean is more rainy than the east side looking to the narrow North Sea, where the evaporation is a good deal less. In those parts of the west coast which happen to be mountainous, the rainfall is excessive. This explains the unusual wetness of the climate along the north-west coast of Scotland and in the lake district of England, where the annual rainfall ranges from 80 to 150 and sometimes even more than 200 inches. In India the range of the Khási hills stretches across the course taken by the wind called the south-west monsoon, which brings up its burden of warm vapour from the Bay of Bengal. The result is that the winds, as they slant up the hills into the

higher and cooler air, have their moisture at once precipitated as rain, of which as many as from 500 to 600 inches fall there in the year. A similar effect is produced by the vapour-laden winds that blow during the same season against the Himalaya range from the Bay of Bengal, and against the Western Gháts in Southern India from the Indian Ocean. The lee side—that is, the side opposite to that which intercepts the rainfall—receives comparatively little rain. Thus Púna, lying on the lee side of the Western Gháts, has a yearly rainfall of about twenty-six inches, while the higher parts of the windward side receive about ten times as much.

II. THE CAUSES THAT HAVE LED TO THE GROWTH OF THE DAILY PRESS

Two main causes—inventions, laws.

The causes which have led to the growth of the daily press in England may be summed up under two different headings—inventions, laws. To the former belong those mechanical contrivances, to which we are indebted for a saving of time and labour, the cheapening of production, and improvements in the means and cost of transit. The latter includes all such changes in the law as have secured the freedom of the press or promoted the spread of general intelligence.

I. INVENTIONS.

The art of printing.

Among inventions favourable to the production of newspapers the first place must be given to the art of printing, introduced into England by William Caxton in 1476. He had spent thirty years in Flanders in connection with the wool trade: but before he left, he studied the printing methods in force at Brussels, where for some time past wood-blocks had been superseded by the much more convenient method of movable types. On returning to his own country he brought a good specimen of a Flemish printing-press with him, and set up a small printing establishment at Westminster. Till printing was introduced, all new copies of books had to be made by hand. Newspapers at that time were not thought of. News could be circulated only by letters; and it was not till one century and a half had elapsed that the first newspaper, *The Weekly News*, appeared in print (1622). The beginning

was long in coming, and small when it came; but the important fact to notice is that a beginning was made.

Paper-making machinery.

Paper had been introduced into England nearly two hundred years before Caxton brought his printing-press from Brussels. Paper, it is true, was a great improvement on parchment. But so long as it was made by hand, its manufacture was difficult and costly. Until some cheaper and quicker mode of manufacture was invented, it was impossible that newspapers could come into very general use. In 1798 a paper-making machine was set up by a Frenchman near Paris. In 1804 paper-mills of the same pattern as the French were set up in England by an engineer named Bryan Donkin. Since that time machine-made paper has gradually supplanted hand-made for all except special purposes.

Steam-power applied to machinery for printing.

A few years afterwards a great improvement in the mechanism of printing was made in the office of the *Times* newspaper by Mr. Walter, the proprietor and editor. This consisted in printing by steam. By the application of steam-power to the machinery of the printing-press, sheets which before were turned out by the hundred could within the same time be turned out by the thousand. This was the greatest improvement connected with printing since the invention of the art itself. The circulation of the *Times* increased enormously. Notwithstanding the many and cheaper papers that have been started since, the *Times* has remained to this day the most influential of all the newspapers published in England. In fact it has been called "the leading journal of the world." In 1814, when the first machine-printed copy of the *Times* was issued, the editor was able to boast that 1100 printed sheets were turned off in one hour. Now, owing to subsequent improvements in steam-machinery, it is considered nothing wonderful to print as many as 22,000 sheets within the same time.

Steam-locomotion.

But even this invention would have lost much of its usefulness, if it had not been followed by another—steam locomotion—which was brought to light not many years afterwards. This

new application of steam-power diminished the cost, while it increased the rapidity, of the conveyance of goods. Newspapers, with all other kinds of goods, could henceforward be sent to different parts of the country by rail, and to foreign countries by steamships, at far less cost and far greater speed than was possible before.

The electric telegraph.

One more great invention remains to be mentioned,—the electric telegraph, by means of which news could be transmitted at almost lightning speed from distant places to the central editorial offices. This great invention (1836) has revolutionised journalism, as it has revolutionised commerce. All parts, not only of the United Kingdom, but of the world, were soon brought into communication with Fleet Street, where the offices of the great London newspapers centred; and the managers of the leading journals quickly found it worth their while to maintain a staff of special correspondents at foreign capitals and elsewhere, to satisfy the widening curiosity of the public.

The art of shorthand.

One more invention must be named, small as compared with those already mentioned, yet too important to be passed over in silence,—the art of shorthand. By this device public lectures and addresses, the debates in Parliament, the proceedings at meetings and in courts of justice, can be taken down word for word as fast as they are uttered, after which they can be reproduced in type in the newspaper offices and thus made known to all who care to read them. A great public address by a distinguished statesman or leader of thought can now be read in any part of the British empire exactly as it was delivered; whereas formerly nothing but notes could be taken, and these often inaccurately.

II. LAWS.

What legislation can or cannot do.

We come now to the subject of legislation. Curiosity,—the desire to know what is taking place in the world, accompanied as this desire may sometimes be with an inclination to criticise what others are doing, or even to take part in the direction of affairs, is the main source from which the popular demand for

newspapers arises. Laws cannot create curiosity: this can only come from the rise and growth of popular intelligence. But laws can stifle, or attempt to stifle, public opinion by tampering with the freedom of the press or throwing unnecessary obstacles in its way. In two notable instances this was done: (1) by the Licensing Act of Henry VIII., 1540; (2) by the Stamp Act of Queen Anne, 1712. When such laws have been passed, the only help that legislation can give is to undo its own work. How the above laws were passed, and how they were subsequently repealed, has now to be shown.

The Licensing Act of Henry VIII.

In the reign of Henry VIII., when religious questions had come very prominently to the front and the power that the press might exercise had begun to be feared, the Crown assumed to itself the power of granting by letters-patent the exclusive right of printing the Bible and other religious books, and finally of printing all other kinds of books. The regulations established by the Star Chamber in the reign of Queen Mary were still more stringent. The Long Parliament did not hesitate to copy this precedent of a tyranny which they themselves had overthrown, and issued repeated ordinances against unlicensed printing. It was then that Milton wrote his celebrated "Areopagitica," in the form of a speech addressed to the "High Court of Parliament," making an eloquent appeal on behalf of free printing. The appeal was disregarded by the Presbyterian party who were then in power. Cromwell, however, adopted the policy of Milton, and allowed the licensing system to fall into abeyance. Upon the return of Charles II., the office of Licensor was restored (1662), and was continued till the end of his reign and beyond it. The Licensing Act was worded in such a way that it required periodical renewals, and these were carried out in the reign of William III. up to the year 1695, when the House of Commons refused to renew the Act. In this indirect kind of way the freedom of the press was established. The authors of this ruling seem scarcely to have realised the importance of the step they were taking or the consequences that it would lead to. It was a silent revolution, which, in the words of Macaulay, "has done far more for liberty and civilisation than the Great Charter or the Bill of Rights."

The Stamp Act of Queen Anne.

The increasing popularity and influence of the press, which followed the establishment of its freedom, was distasteful to the government of Queen Anne. Nine weekly newspapers, having collectively a circulation of about 44,000, were then current. To check the alarming growth of this new power the government hit upon the expedient of a newspaper tax, and passed the Stamp Act (1712). By this Act was imposed a duty, consisting of a halfpenny on papers of half a sheet or less and a penny on anything that exceeded half a sheet. Among the journals which collapsed in consequence of this duty was the *Spectator* (edited by Addison and Steele), the last number of which is dated 20th December 1714. The impost, which was thus fruitful in mischief by suppressing much good literature, wholly failed in keeping out bad. The number of newspapers continued to rise, and part of this increase may fairly be ascribed to political corruption. In 1756 an extra halfpenny was added to the tax of 1712. In the reign of George III. the amount of the tax was raised by gradual increments, till, in 1815, it came to fourpence. But these repressive measures were of no avail. The spirit of liberty and of national self-respect had been aroused by the reactionary policy of the despotical George, and nothing could suppress the growing intelligence of the people. In the course of the struggle between the king and the nation more than 700 prosecutions for publishing unstamped journals were instituted and more than 500 persons were imprisoned. At last, in 1836, this obnoxious tax was reduced from fourpence to a penny, and in 1855 it was abolished altogether. This removal of the "tax on knowledge," as it was called, led to an immediate lowering of the price of newspapers and a vast increase of sales. The price of the *Times* fell from 4½d. to 2½d. a copy, and that of all the other dailies fell to one penny.

The Education Act of 1876.

Twenty-two years after the Stamp Act was repealed another Act was passed, which has more than doubled the number of readers. Up to the year 1876 there was no *public* provision on a large scale for education in England. A great deal of instruction was given in the great schools founded by private benefactors, and in the middle-class schools opened from time

to time by private enterprise. But such schools reached only the upper and middle ranks of society. For the lower classes, small elementary schools attached to the churches received grants in aid from the State; but the great bulk of the working classes remained illiterate. In 1876 the Elementary Education Act was passed, by which it became the duty of parents to cause every child between the ages of five and fourteen to receive instruction in the elementary branches of knowledge, the duty to be enforced by such penalties as are specified in the Act. Under this Act elementary schools maintained by public funds were thickly scattered all over the country, and the private elementary schools which existed before the Act were quickened into new life by the competition that they had now to face. The effect of this measure is seen in the adult population of the present day, when every working man, whatever the nature of his employment may be, can read his newspaper.

Recapitulation.

With the improvements that have been made in printing-presses and in paper-making machinery, with the increased facilities and diminished cost of transmission, with the rapid communication of news by the electric telegraph, with the removal of licenses and stamp duties, and with the large increase in the number of readers caused by the Act for compulsory education, it is no wonder that the number and circulation of newspapers have become enormous. What is more satisfactory, the progress has been in quality no less than in quantity; and to crown all these improvements there has been a corresponding lowering of price. Besides the large number of daily newspapers sold for a penny each, there are now three halfpenny papers, all possessing considerable literary merit and giving the latest news from all parts of the world. Not only London and all the large provincial towns have their own newspapers, but most of the smaller towns and even some villages. Journalism, though but a thing of yesterday, has overspread the British empire. The old Norse fable of the tree Ygdrasil, on whose leaves were written the scenes of the life of man, has found a kind of fulfilment in the rustle of the myriad leaves of the newspaper-press unfolded afresh every morning.

III. THE CABINET.

(See Goldwin Smith's *United Kingdom*, vol. ii. ch. iii. ; Green's *Short History of the English People*, ch. ix. section 7 ; *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 9th edition, under CABINET.)

The constitution of the cabinet.

The term "Cabinet" is applied collectively to those members of the Privy Council who in the name of the sovereign direct the government of the country, and for all acts done in the name of the Crown are held responsible to the nation speaking through its representatives in Parliament. The men who compose the cabinet are called the Ministers or the Ministry. The number of the cabinet is not fixed: it rarely amounts to twenty, but can hardly be less than eleven. A small cabinet is usually preferred to one that is large and unwieldy. The chief members are the First Lord of the Treasury (who, as custodian of the national revenue, is usually, but not necessarily, Prime Minister), the Chancellor of the Exchequer (who lays the annual budget before the House and is answerable for the realisation of the revenue), the five Secretaries of State (India Office, War Office, Foreign Office, Colonial Office, and Home Office), the First Lord of the Admiralty, and the Lord High Chancellor, who superintends the administration of the law. The Prime Minister, or Premier as he is also called, is the responsible head of the cabinet as a whole. If he resigns on some great political question, the rest of the cabinet resigns with him. But if he resigns for some private reason, such as old age or sickness or any other personal cause, he may, with the consent of the sovereign, hand over the premiership to some colleague in the cabinet, as when Gladstone, after the general election of 1892, which resulted in his return to office, withdrew shortly afterwards from political life on account of old age, and transferred the premiership to Lord Rosebery. Another example was furnished in July 1902, when Lord Salisbury for a similar reason transferred, with the consent of the sovereign, the premiership to Mr. Balfour.

Historical origin of the cabinet.

It was in the year 1693, the fourth of the reign of William III., that the first cabinet was formed and the cabinet system established. In outer seeming, the Revolution of 1688 had merely transferred the sovereignty from James to William and Mary.

In actual fact it had given a powerful and decisive impulse to the great constitutional principle, by which the government of the country was transferred from the king to the House of Commons. From the time when the Bill of Rights (A.D. 1689) invested the Lower House with the sole right of taxing the nation, and when the House itself adopted the practice of granting none but annual supplies, the House of Commons became the supreme power in the State. But however powerful the will of the House might be, it had no means of bringing its will directly to bear upon the conduct of public affairs. The ministers who had charge of the government were not the servants of Parliament, but of the Crown. It was from the king that they received direction, and to the king that they held themselves responsible. Hence between the king and his ministers on the one hand, and the Commons, who voted the supplies, on the other, there was continual friction. Neither was satisfied with the other, and neither understood the other. Apart from this there was another very serious difficulty. Among the ministers themselves, selected as they were by the king from any party or faction in the State, there was no cohesion, no unanimity, no sense of a common policy or common political interests. Each was a servant of the king, and each was separately appointed or might be separately dismissed by the king. None need consult any other; none need show any deference to the opinions or judgment of any other. Consequently in almost every department of the State there was jarring and discord. Out of these difficulties a way was at length hit upon by Lord Sunderland. This shrewd, but unscrupulous, peer stole back into political life, from which he had been excluded in the former reign, and caught the king's ear by teaching him that to give unity and efficiency to his government he must call to his councils men of *one party only* and choose his ministers exclusively from that party which was *strongest* in the House for the time being. The king saw the point of this device and acted upon the suggestion by at once forming a Whig ministry. Sunderland's plan has remained in force ever since.

Two principles involved in party-government.

Here then we have the historical origin, not of party, but of party-government, or (to speak more precisely) of parliamentary government by means of party. Party or political faction

had existed long before: it had torn to pieces in its time the Greek, the Roman, and the Italian republics one after another; and it had raged in England at intervals under the Stuarts. But party-government now for the first time came into existence. It has been accepted ever since as the regular system not only of Great Britain and her colonies, but of all other parliamentary countries, whether governed by a sovereign, as in Italy, or by a president holding the powers of one, as in the United States. Two great principles were established—(1) that a ministry should consist of statesmen holding the same political views and willing to stand or fall together; (2) that the ministry must command and retain a majority of votes in the House, and not hold office, as ministers formerly did, merely at the will and pleasure of the sovereign.

The system brought to perfection by degrees.

At first no one, probably not even King William himself, understood thoroughly the new machine or foresaw to their full extent the consequences it must lead to. Though from the beginning party showed itself to be only an exalted kind of faction, yet the new device contained the elements out of which a sound system of government could be constructed. The perfection to which the system has been brought at the present day has been the work of time and experience, and in part at least of accident. But the result is that the cabinet or ministry in office is, so long as it retains office, the government of Great Britain; that the powers theoretically vested in the sovereign are practically exercised by this body; and lastly, that the cabinet for everything that it does or neglects to do is responsible to the Parliament, on whose votes it depends for its retention in office. If it is outvoted on any important question, it must resign, whatever the personal wishes of the sovereign may be. This very important principle, though now fully established, is not of very long standing; for we find that in 1785, when Pitt brought in his Bill for parliamentary reform, his defeat by the House of Commons even on that most radical of questions did not entail the resignation of his cabinet.

The cabinet divided between both Houses.

The strength of the ministry is divided between both Houses of Parliament. It is considered an essential point in the constitution of this kingdom that both chambers shall be adequately

represented in the cabinet. Those members who administer the spending departments or have any connection with the revenue should, if possible, be members of the Lower House, which votes the annual supplies. Hence the Prime Minister (who is usually, though not necessarily, the First Lord of the Treasury) generally belongs to the House of Commons rather than to the House of Lords. The rule applies still more closely to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the First Lord of the Admiralty, and the Secretary of State for War.

The cabinet has the power of dissolving Parliament.

The representatives of whom the House of Commons is composed go out of office at the end of every seven years, when any member may either retire from political life or offer himself for re-election. But the cabinet has the power (which originally belonged to the Crown) of dissolving Parliament at any time before the expiry of the seven years. The power of the cabinet to dissolve Parliament is one of the most valuable privileges that it possesses; for its liability to be dissolved at the will of the sovereign was, as history shows, always its weak point in the struggle for independence. The dissolving of Parliament is an appeal made by the cabinet to the nation for a continuance of the nation's confidence. If the majority of the newly elected members are of a political party opposed to that of the existing cabinet, the cabinet cannot long continue in office, and a new ministry has to be formed. It rests with the sovereign to nominate the statesman whom he considers most fit to form a new cabinet, and to accept or reject any individual whom the Premier-elect may propose for a place in the new ministry. Practically, however, the sovereign has very little choice.

The sovereign never presides at cabinet meetings.

The sovereign never presides at a meeting of the cabinet. His absence from such meetings has been so long established in practice that it has become a constitutional principle which cannot now be infringed; but, like many other political usages of this country, it came into existence by an accident. King William and Queen Anne always presided at weekly cabinet councils. But when the Hanoverian princes, who knew no English, ascended the throne, they could not have understood the debates, and so they kept out of the way. When George III.

mounted the throne, the privacy of the cabinet was too well established to be set aside, nor has the principle ever been challenged since. In no country except England has this practice come into force, and perhaps this is one reason why in most other countries parliamentary government has been less successful than in ours.

Differences in the cabinet are kept secret.

Though the cabinet must show a united front both to the nation and to Parliament, yet amongst intelligent and highly cultivated men, such as those of whom the cabinet is composed, differences of opinion must sometimes occur. The country, however, hears nothing definite about such differences, and, generally speaking, it hears nothing at all. If differences exist, they are decided by the majority of votes in the cabinet meetings, where arguments can be discussed on either side of a question with greater facility and better temper than in public debate. The vote once having been taken and the question decided, every member of the cabinet, whatever his private conviction may be, becomes equally responsible for the decision, and is equally bound to support and defend it in public. It is a matter of honour among all the members that, if any difference existed, no one shall divulge what the point of difference was or the names of members who held one side of the question as against the other. A decided difference of opinion cannot be persisted in or publicly expressed by any member without his withdrawing from the cabinet; as when Gladstone quitted Sir Robert Peel's administration upon the proposal to endow Maynooth, or when Mr. Chamberlain on 15th March 1886 quitted Gladstone's administration on the proposal to set up a separate parliament in Ireland.

Coalition cabinets.

This brings us lastly to the subject of coalition cabinets,—an irregular phase of parliamentary government which, though of rare occurrence and seldom defensible, is sometimes justified by a national emergency. A coalition government has a bad sound; for it is opposed to the fundamental principle stated above, that the members of whom a cabinet is composed must be of the same political party and inspired with the same political instincts. This principle was infringed in one noted instance in 1783, when Lord North, the Tory, formed a coalition with

Fox, the Radical, his bitterest opponent. Such a coalition, based as it was on motives of personal ambition, was as repugnant to the nation as it was to the sovereign; and its tenure of office was as brief as it deserved to be. The case was different in 1895 when Lord Salisbury, as head of the Conservative party, invited to his cabinet Mr. Chamberlain, the leader in the Lower House of that section of the Liberal party, which nine years before had seceded from Gladstone's government and sacrificed its political prospects therein rather than support his proposal to set up a separate parliament in Ireland. In this there was no infringement of political honour, because both parties to the coalition were convinced, rightly or wrongly, that they were acting in the best interests of the United Kingdom, and were content to sink minor differences for the sake of preserving the Union. The coalition thus formed was composed, not of two antagonistic factions, but of a single party, "the Unionist," actuated by a single patriotic purpose. This coalition, far from being condemned by the nation, was emphatically endorsed, first in the general election of 1895, and afterwards again in that of 1900. In the cabinets formed as the result of these elections the old party system was disintegrated for the time by the wider issue of unionism, which placed Conservatives and a section of Liberals under a common standard.

119. Argumentative Essays.—In an argumentative essay the writer should state both sides of the question justly and impartially. Nevertheless, he should take up a definite position of his own and sum up in favour of it. "The fault often found in argumentative essays is that of see-sawing now to this, now to that, side of a question without any indication of one's own preference. From a literary point of view decisiveness, even in a wrong cause, is preferable to shilly-shally" (*School World*, Sept. 1899). In discussing a debatable subject, which can be looked at from opposite sides, no question arises as to which side of the question is right or wrong, so long as each side is understood by the writer and is rationally handled.

I give four examples: the first on the "Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1901—Was it expedient or not?"; the second on the question, "Has conscription become necessary for England?"; the third on the question, "Is state-patronage conducive to the display of genius?"; the fourth on the question, "Should political differences be allowed to embitter personal

feeling or interfere with the amenities of private life?" The first two are in narrative form; the third in the form of a dialogue; the fourth in the form of letters.

It would be good practice to the student, if he were asked to reproduce in the form of dialogue or letters an essay written in the narrative form, or *vice versa*.

I. THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE—EXPEDIENT OR NOT?

The question stated.

On the 13th January 1902, a new departure was taken by this country in the matter of foreign alliances. England, which for a great many years past had held severely aloof from foreign entanglements, discarded for once her policy of "splendid isolation" and signed a treaty of alliance with Japan. Was there anything in the state of affairs in the Far East to justify this new departure? That is the question to be discussed in the present essay. But before any such discussion can be commenced, it is necessary to state briefly what the object and the terms of this treaty are.

The object and main terms of the alliance.

The object of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, as stated in the preamble, is to maintain the integrity of China and Korea, and to keep the two empires open to the trade of the world. Each of the allied powers undertakes to observe strict neutrality should the other become involved in war with a single power, but to come to that other's assistance in case hostility should be threatened by the combined forces of two or more powers. It is further stipulated that neither of the contracting parties will, "without consulting the other, enter into separate arrangements with another power to the prejudice of the interests described in the agreement, and that whenever these interests are in jeopardy, they will communicate with each other frankly and fully." It was settled that the agreement should run for five years, and be then terminable by either Great Britain or Japan at twelve months' notice. Such, in rough outline, are the terms of the alliance.

Reception of the treaty by the English public.

The treaty was on the whole favourably received by all sections of the English nation and in both Houses of Parliament.

But the abandonment of a traditional policy was certain to excite some dissent, especially in England, which of all great countries in the world is perhaps the most tenacious of ideas that have once taken root; and hence if dissatisfaction was expressed here and there, it must, to some extent at least, be ascribed to prejudice, and not wholly to reason. It was certainly not due to any dislike or distrust of the Japanese, whose intelligence, enterprise, and patriotism are admitted and admired everywhere, and whose timely action in the Chinese troubles of 1900, when the Legations were shut up in Peking and surrounded by an infuriated mob, will not soon be forgotten. We will now take the objections one by one as we found them expressed by one or two speakers in the House, and repeated in one or two newspapers, and see whether they are sufficient to discredit the reasons that can be urged on the opposite side.

First objection, with answer: "Japan gains more than England."

First, then, it has been objected that Japan gains more by the alliance than England does. That England has vast interests in the Far East is admitted: the opium trade alone between India and China is worth several millions a year to the Indian revenue; the commerce between England and China surpasses that of all other countries put together; and a large share of the trade between Europe and China is carried in English bottoms. All this is granted. But it is urged by the objector that the interests of Japan are still greater. England has vast fields open to her enterprise and colonisation in other parts of the world, and could afford to leave the Far East to others; but if Korea and China were closed to Japan, no field would remain for Japanese expansion and enterprise. Japan, with her growing population, can no more allow herself to be shut up within her island-kingdom than England can. Supposing it to be true, then, that Japan has a more vital interest in maintaining the open door in Korea and China than England has, what has this to do with the expediency of the alliance to England? Or how does it prove its inexpediency? Precise equality of advantage has never yet been made the basis of an agreement either between individuals or between nations: such equality is beyond attainment and even beyond calculation. All that we are concerned in is that we secure by the agreement what we wished to

secure for ourselves. If Japan gains more than we do, or has more vital interests to guard, that is a matter which does not concern us; or rather, if it concerns us at all, it should give us the greater pleasure that a friendly power can get so much benefit from our friendship.

Second objection, with answer: "Japan risks less than England."

Secondly, it has been objected that Japan not only gains more, but risks less,—that England in fact has by this treaty placed herself at Japan's mercy. This objection, if it proves to be well founded, is a serious one. Let us see what it amounts to. According to the terms of the alliance, England (as the objector is aware) does not bind herself to assist Japan so long as Japan is not engaged in conflict with more than one power at a time. But, the objector urges, this stipulation is a farce: for Russia, a possible or rather probable enemy of Japan, has a close ally in France, who is bound to Russia by the "Dual Alliance." So Japan, by rashly engaging in war with Russia, has it in her power to light a flame of war, which will burn not merely in the Gulf of Pechili, not merely in the China Seas, in which alone Japan's interests are involved, but in several parts of the world where Japan has no interests to guard,—in the English Channel, in the Baltic, in the Mediterranean, in the South Pacific, in Egypt, and in several other parts of Africa,—in fact wherever Russia or France may place herself in contact with British territory. The answer to this objection is very simple: the objection is barred by the terms of the treaty. By these terms Japan and England, whenever the interests of either in connection with Korea or China are considered to be in jeopardy, "will communicate with each other frankly and fully." If Japan (let us suppose) should take up an unreasonable or reckless course of action in the alleged defence of her interests, Great Britain would be free to say that such measures were not "indispensable" within the meaning of the treaty. But we know already that Japan's motives are reasonable and non-aggressive, and that she is quite shrewd enough to abstain from doing anything that would imperil her own existence. What her future policy is likely to be we know from the conditions of peace which she imposed upon China at the close of her successful war with that country. The main point among those conditions was that China should

open her ports to the trade of the world, no monopolies or exclusive privileges of any kind being reserved for Japan herself. These liberal and enlightened views should not be forgotten. They were an anticipation of the policy that has since been adopted by England herself,—the policy of the “open door.” It is to preserve, support, and continue this policy that the alliance has been formed. When both countries have avowedly a common aim, what better ground could exist for the alliance that has been formed?

Third objection, with answer: “Russia’s friendship is more valuable to England than Japan’s.”

A third objection raised is that as a good deal of rivalry exists between Japan and Russia, our alliance with Japan renders it impossible for us to come to a friendly understanding with Russia. Russia and England, it is urged, are the two great powers in Asia. At several points their territories in Asia are within striking distance of each other. It is therefore of the first importance that the two powers should regard each other as friends or at least as friendly rivals, and not as hostile rivals, each bent on injuring the other. The answer is that there is nothing in the alliance which implies any hostile intention on our part against Russia; and that Russia, if she is willing, may herself join the alliance, and would be welcomed as a partner.

Fourth objection, with answer: “China can take care of herself.”

A fourth objection raised is that any alliance in defence of China is unnecessary, since China is strong enough to take care of herself. Such an objection scarcely needs refuting. Was China able to prevent the Germans from seizing Kiao-Chau on the idle pretext that two Roman Catholic missionaries of German origin, both travelling at their own risk, had been slain,—Russia from seizing Port Arthur as an offset to the action of Germany,—and England from seizing Wei-hai-Wei as a counter-move to both? Was China able to prevent the allied forces of Europe from entering Peking and putting the imperial government to flight? The answer is recorded in very plain terms on the page of recent history. Some day, and the day may not be very distant, China will perhaps be able to take care of herself: but that day has not yet come.

Summing up and conclusion.

We hold, then, that all objections to the Anglo-Japanese alliance are groundless. We maintain that in spite of our traditional policy of isolation the time had come when in the Far East an ally was necessary for the strengthening of our national position and the support of our commercial interests. The only natural ally in that quarter is Japan, an island-kingdom like our own, possessed of a powerful fleet, and actuated by aims and motives similar to those of Great Britain herself. It is not to England's interest, and it would certainly be against her feelings, that Japan should be crushed by a combination of any two hostile powers. Those who raise objections to the treaty would have been very much annoyed, if Japan, being in need of an ally, had come to an agreement with some other country than our own. It is impossible to enter into an alliance or even to abstain from entering one without running some risks. The risk in the present case, whatever it may be, is counterbalanced by the moral certainty that this treaty makes the prospect of peace in the Far East much brighter than it ever was before.

II. HAS CONSCRIPTION BECOME NECESSARY FOR ENGLAND?

How the question has arisen.

Conscription is the compulsory enrolment of men for military service. In England the custom hitherto has been to enrol only those who offer themselves for voluntary enlistment, and out of a selection from these men to form the regular army. This plan has answered very well so far. In the course of her long career England has gone through many serious struggles and dangers, and has come out of all of them uninjured. But in view of the enormous armies that are now maintained by the continental powers, the vast extent to which the British empire has grown, and its vulnerability from several different sides at once, a doubt has been expressed as to whether the present method of recruiting our army affords sufficient protection to our national and imperial interests. The question therefore has arisen, Should we follow the example of the continental powers and resort to conscription? If conscription were introduced in the place of voluntary enlistment, is it likely to create a better army than what we have already, or better than what we might have, if we made the best use of

existing materials? This is the question to be discussed in the present essay.

Conscription secures numbers, but numbers are not of much use.

Conscription certainly produces numbers; so if multitude is the one thing needed, the question is closed: there is no scope for discussion. But in these days what is most needed for efficient fighting is not multitude, but mobility and good shooting,—i.e. quickness of movement and accuracy of aim; and neither of these requisites is secured by vast numbers. A small, highly trained force is more effective than a large one of inferior training. At Inkermann in the Crimea, the British troops, though taken by surprise in a fog and outnumbered by ten to one, were able to keep an immense army of Russians at bay. Military critics in Berlin and Munich begin to have unpleasant doubts as to whether the two years' term of military service, through which every man in the country is forced to pass, is sufficient for the complete education of the modern soldier, and whether the lack of efficiency is at all compensated by the large numbers secured through conscription. Excess of numbers, far from being useful, may in certain positions contribute to disaster, as happened at Spion Kop, in South Africa—a hill on which 4000 men had been placed, when there was space for only about 500 to move with facility and effectiveness.

A huge army is not necessary to our insular safety.

If the different powers on the Continent find it necessary to maintain enormous armies, that is no business of ours. Our borders are not conterminous with any of theirs; and our policy is to keep as clear as possible of continental entanglements. We have no great land-frontier, as those nations have, open to attack at any point along the line; but we have a sea-frontier to be defended by our ships. Our main safety, therefore, depends, not on our possessing a huge army, but on our having the command of the sea and maintaining the safety of our coasts. But we are by no means destitute of military defence on land; for besides the regular army, or rather that part of it which is not employed abroad, we have a large auxiliary army consisting of the militia, the yeomanry, and the volunteers; and not one of these useful bodies is raised by conscription.

If more men are needed, better pay should be offered.

But it may be asked, "If for the defence of our empire abroad we cannot raise as large a voluntary army as we require, what is there to fall back upon except compulsory enlistment?" Our answer is, Raise the pay and improve the conditions of a soldier's life, and you will get as many men as can be needed. The army should be made as attractive in point of salary as any other occupation open to men of the same class. Let it compete—on fair terms—with the labour-market, and there will be no lack of recruits of the right physical and moral stamp. The objector may still ask, What about the cost? If the pay of the army is to be raised in order to get enough men and the right class of men, will not the nation complain of the cost, and find it too heavy a drain on its resources? By no means. The nation will never complain of what it sees to be necessary to its safety and to the honour of its flag; and the cost, whatever it may be, of a well-paid, but select and voluntary, force could not be more, and would probably be less, than that of a huge army raised by conscription.

Voluntary service is more efficient than compulsory.

Putting aside the question of cost, which is not worth considering, let us come to the very important question of efficiency. A system that can attract voluntary service must be far more effective than one that depends on compulsion. It draws into its ranks men who have taken to soldiering from choice, and has nothing to say to men who are unwilling or might even be inclined to be mutinous. This is no small advantage. What sort of a police force should we have in England, if the men were driven into it, whether they liked or no? Conscription would give us at greater cost a worse army than what we have already at less.

Conscription might interfere with emigration.

There is a special reason why conscription would have a disastrous effect upon such a nation and empire as ours. This small island is over-peopled to such an extent, that it depends upon foreign supplies for the greater part of the food on which its inhabitants subsist. But it possesses in three other continents vast regions protected by its own flag, to which emigrants can freely go, assisted sometimes by the colonies that are waiting

to receive them. Now the age at which a young man determines whether his life shall be spent in the land of his birth or in some colony or dependency beyond the seas, is usually between eighteen and twenty-three—the very age at which the conscription-officer, if such a being existed, would be going round to drag him into his net. Our colonies are strong and are gaining fresh strength every year, because energetic young men of British blood are able to go to them. Conscription, if it did not put a stop to this, would very seriously interfere with it.

The distant parts of the empire raise troops for the defence of the empire.

It is for foreign and distant service, as we have said, that the regular army is mostly needed. But the British empire is so constituted that it assists very largely in defending itself. The Indian army not only helps to guard the frontiers of its own country, but is employed in countries separated by the ocean from its own borders, wherever its help may be needed. Troops sent from this army took a large and distinguished part in the relief of the Legations at Peking, and at an earlier date in the defence of Egypt. Many Indian princes offered to equip troops at their own expense for service in South Africa. Indian troops again, in conjunction with the Hausas of West Africa, were employed with excellent results in the defence of the Guinea Coast. Egyptian troops, trained by English officers, took a distinguished part in the defeat of the Mahdi and the reconquest of the Soudan. Soudanese troops are now trained and drilled for the defence of their own country under the English and Egyptian flags. Now, the important fact to be noticed is that all these troops—Indian, Egyptian, Hausa, and Soudanese—have been raised, not by compulsory, but by voluntary enlistment. They make good soldiers, because they entered the service from choice, and because they are confident of being fairly treated, wisely led, and regularly paid. There is scarcely any limit to the number of recruits that could be raised if more men were needed.

Auxiliary forces in the South African war.

One more point remains to be mentioned in defence of the voluntary system. In the late war in South Africa, where the employment of none but English troops was considered advisable, our regular army was most generously and enthusi-

astically supported by reinforcements of militia and yeomanry, by volunteers from England, and by volunteers from distant colonies and dependencies in different parts of the empire. No one, said an eye-witness, who saw that army could forget its spirit, its picturesqueness, and its significance for the future history of the world,—cowherds from the vast plains and prairies of North - Western Canada, bushmen from the back settlements of Australia, hardy men from the farms and towns of Ontario and Quebec, planters from India and Ceylon, the horsemen of New Zealand, and the wiry irregulars of South Africa. All these, together with the militia, yeomanry, and volunteers from England, had offered their services to the empire with an enthusiasm that is unique in history,—an enthusiasm far too valuable to be immolated on the stony altar of conscription.

Military training could be made more general than it is without conscription.

In maintaining, as we have done, the superiority of voluntary to compulsory service, we need not, and do not, shut our eyes to the benefit, which the nation might derive, if all its young men were made to undergo for a few years of their lives a certain amount of military training. A judicious course of military drill and discipline, if it could be made general, would have excellent effects both physical and moral. But such training could to a large extent be secured without conscription and without compulsory residence in barracks of the French or German kind. Rifle clubs could be maintained, and largely at the public cost, in all our villages and towns, so that the bulk of our male population might become expert in using the rifle, the thing now most needed in a soldier. Attendance at such clubs, under suitable military supervision, could be made a pastime, and yet treated as seriously as a game of football,—not as a tiresome lesson to be exacted as a task. A term of physical training, including the use of the rifle and its handling and cleaning, could be made part of the course of instruction given at schools. Some such plan as this would be good for the health of the nation both moral and physical. It would be good also in the military sense; for it would tend to create a very large reserve of men partially trained for action, on whose voluntary services we could rely in any great national emergency.

III. IS STATE-PATRONAGE CONDUCTIVE TO THE DISPLAY OF GENIUS?

(Partly based on *Spectator*, 11th January 1902.)

A. You must have noticed that writers of history speak well of a ruler or statesman, who, while he had the power, used it for the promotion of learning or any other kind of pursuit in which the genius of individuals could find an opening. I doubt, however, whether such patrons are entitled to the praises that historians have bestowed upon them. What is your opinion?

B. It stands to reason that they deserve to be praised for their enlightened views and for their kind intentions. But perhaps I have not understood your question; for I am sure you could not feel any doubt upon a point so obvious.

A. The doubt that I speak of does not refer to the intentions of the patron, but to the effects of his patronage. My point is simply this:—Does genius thrive best when it is left alone to work out its own creations? or does it thrive best when it is assisted by men who have the power to encourage and reward it? If it thrives best when it is left alone, then those who have unintentionally marred its progress by their well-meant, but mischievous, support are less entitled to the praises of posterity than those who have left it in beneficent neglect to run its own course.

B. That is a fair question to raise, but not one than can be answered in five minutes; for there is a great deal to be said on both sides. Much would depend, I think, on the kind of pursuit singled out for patronage. What is beneficial to one kind might be detrimental to another. The best way, then, to discuss the question, if that is what you desire, would be to take up one kind of pursuit at a time and see, if we can, what is likely to be the effect of state-patronage on this particular pursuit. Other pursuits can then be examined in their turn. To lay down a hard and fast rule regarding all pursuits alike would, to say the least, be rash.

A. I quite agree. If you have the leisure, I shall be glad to hear your opinion on each case in succession. Let us begin with the army and navy. The defence of a country is as important a branch of activity as any other. In fact it might be considered the foundation of all; for if a country is not safe, its citizens have not much chance of distinguishing themselves in any of the arts of peace.

B. An army or a navy is almost sure to profit by the patronage of the reigning monarch. In these, unless he is absolutely blind to his own interests and to the safety and reputation of his country, he has no motive for unworthy favouritism—no crotchets of his own to serve. He picks out the best men for the highest positions, and this is an encouragement to men of energy and ambition to shine in such careers, and to young men to follow in their footsteps. Here state-patronage can hardly fail to be beneficial. It must conduce to the efficiency of the service.

A. True: but great geniuses can arise without any such inducement. If I remember right, Clive began his career as a mere clerk in a merchant's office in Madras, and had had no military training whatever. Yet by sheer force of genius he saved the English cause in Southern India, and became the founder of our Indian empire. The history of England furnishes many similar examples. Look at Drake, Blake, Nelson, Churchill, and others. It was not the favour of the Crown or the patronage of statesmen which produced such men. The genius was in them; and when the opportunity occurred, the genius came out and showed itself.

B. This is admitted; but it does not affect the question. You must remember that all these men were rewarded by the confidence of their sovereign and the applause of their country. It must have been some encouragement to them to know that their services would be publicly recognised and rewarded. The expectation of such reward does not produce genius, but it helps to produce willing effort, and willing effort may make the difference between success or failure. It would be no encouragement to a great military or great naval commander, if he felt that, however successful he might be, his services would remain unnoticed.

A. You mean, then, that state-patronage is favourable to the display of military or naval genius, not because it produces such genius, but because it gives it the encouragement that excites ambition and contributes to success.

B. Precisely.

A. Let us now turn to the question of research. Do you think that research should be left to take care of itself, or that it should receive state-support?

B. I think that if a king, or the president of a republic who exercises the power of a king, shows a great predilection

for some department of research, popular favour is likely to flow into the same channel. A science-loving king produces a science-loving people: men of ability come forward, eager to meet the popular demand and win the applause of the sovereign. Research, too, needs outside support. It can rarely pay its own way or be entirely self-supporting. An allotment of public money may enable many a man of genius to devote his life-energies to the prosecution of some study, from which, if left to his own resources, he would have been compelled by poverty to stand aloof. One shudders to think what science would have lost, if Newton, the son of a poor yeoman farmer, had not been elected, first a sub-sizar, and afterwards a fellow, on the foundation of Trinity College, Cambridge. I am one of those who believe in the endowment of research.

A. So am I. But the endowment should not be made by the State. It should be left entirely to private liberality. The very example that you quote—that of Trinity College, Cambridge—is an instance of private benefaction. Almost all the endowed schools and colleges of England were founded by private liberality; and the same may be said of the United States. In France and Germany, as I have heard, it is the State which supports professors and specialists; but I have never heard that the countries named have produced either more men of genius, or men of higher genius, than England has done.

B. And probably you have never heard that they have produced fewer men of genius, or men of lower genius, in comparison with England. We need not go into this question. We are agreed, apparently, that research, requiring as it does patient study and prolonged effort that bring in no immediate financial return, needs support either from the public funds or from private liberality. If this is admitted, it would be very difficult to prove that state-support acts as a bar to the display of genius, while private support acts as a stimulus. A like cause must produce a like effect.

A. Perhaps I am a little prejudiced against state-endowments of any kind. I do not like to think of men receiving liberal salaries from the State and doing as little as possible for the public on whose taxation they subsist.

B. Neither do I. But you may find as many lazy professors in private foundations as in those supported by the State. There is just as much risk in the one as in the other.

A. Well, we will pass on. Let us leave research, which, as you say, requires patient study and prolonged effort, and turn to the fine arts and literature, which spring mostly from the spontaneous impulse of genius. Do you consider that these, too, are likely to flourish in the sunshine of state-patronage?

B. No, I do not believe this. In matters of this kind, depending as they do upon taste, not upon research,—on originality, not upon labour,—on genius, not upon study, though study of course can be profitably employed in the cultivation of genius,—I believe that state-patronage is more likely to be mischievous than helpful, more likely to benumb than to invigorate a man's natural gifts, to distort than to direct his natural bent. Kings, by the conditions of their position, become conceited and self-opinionated, demand flattering attentions as a right, and discourage, if they cannot punish, differences of opinion or taste. They favour only that kind of excellence which happens to please themselves. Their patronage, when it is powerful enough, has the effect of making artists of every kind suppress their own spontaneities and neglect much of their distinctive force. The poet becomes courtly, the prose-writer cautious, the painter almost subservient, the musician tame and conventional.

A. Well, you have put it strongly, but not more strongly than I should have put it myself. I quite agree with you. But I have often heard the age of Pericles quoted as an example to the contrary. The age of Pericles has been called the Milky Way of great men. In that age Athenian art, literature, and drama reached their zenith; and Pericles was their unfailing patron. How would you answer this objection?

B. By pointing out that Pericles happened to be an admirable judge. Being a man of genius himself in his own line, he knew that genius must be left to run its own course; and hence his influence gave men of genius in the fine arts a free opportunity. But what if he had been a boorish man with no cultivated tastes, like Cleon, the tanner, who succeeded him in the leadership of the Athenian democracy; and what if he had bestowed his patronage on the worst artists? Take another example. The most brilliant period of Roman literature was the age of Augustus. It might be urged, perhaps (though this cannot be proved), that the literature of that age owed its triumphs to the patronage of Augustus, the emperor, and that of his enlightened minister, Mæcenas. But what if the monster

Nero, who prided himself on being, as he thought, the greatest poet of his day, and was surrounded by literary charlatans and flatterers,—what if he had then been Emperor of Rome instead of Augustus? Would such a man have tolerated the rivalry of poets like Virgil and Horace? Genius, especially poetic genius, fades in the atmosphere of courts. Dryden wasted his fine genius in attempts to please the corrupt taste of a dissolute court. In the same reign that saw his now forgotten dramas produced one after another on the London stage, the greatest epic poem in our language was silently produced by the old champion of freedom, who stood proudly aloof from the court which he despised.

A. What circumstances, then, do you consider most favourable to the production of literary genius?

B. Let us take our examples from the literature of our own country. In England the three reigns most distinguished for the outburst of literary genius are those of Queen Elizabeth, Queen Anne, and George III. In the first the spirit of the nation had been roused by the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the defeat of the Armada; in the second by the expulsion of the Stuarts, the growth of popular liberty, and the victories of Marlborough; in the third by the spread of newspapers, the victories of Nelson, and the victorious struggle with Napoleon Buonaparte. In every instance it was the free growth of national intelligence and national self-respect, not the patronage of the Court, which gave the new impetus and supplied the inspiring motive. The third period, the most brilliant of all, was distinguished for its painting, sculpture, and pottery no less than for its poetry, prose, and oratory. The throne at this period was occupied by a king who had no taste for either literature or art, and left them to flourish at what, in the beginning of this discussion, you called “beneficent neglect.”

A. I started with the notion that state-patronage was mischievous in *all* kinds of pursuits. You agree with me that it is so in the case of literature and art, but not necessarily in that of the military and naval professions or in that of research.

B. Yes; this is the conclusion to which our discussion has brought us. If the discussion were prolonged, I doubt whether we should come to any other result.

IV. SHOULD POLITICAL DIFFERENCES BE ALLOWED TO EMBITTER PERSONAL FEELING OR INTERFERE WITH THE AMENITIES OF PRIVATE LIFE ?

(See *Spectator*, 23rd August 1902.)

23rd August 1902.

MY DEAR A.—I have just come home after some years' service abroad. What strikes me more than anything else about the state of politics in England is the extraordinary tolerance displayed by opposite parties in Parliament towards each other. There was a great deal of political excitement, as you are aware, throughout England while the South African war lasted, and the excitement has not much abated since its close. Take the ordinary Member of Parliament, who has sons, brothers, and cousins serving in South Africa. Is it natural that such a member shall continue on friendly terms with leading men on the Opposition side, who while the war lasted whined against "methods of barbarism," and now, when the war is over, try to hedge by beslaving Lord Kitchener with fulsome praises? Of course it is not natural! Can it then be right?

I am as little desirous as any one that *slight* political differences should be allowed to embitter personal feeling, still less that they should interfere with the amenities of private life. But the differences are anything but slight, when one party hotly accuses the other of barbarous methods, and an extreme section of the same party openly avows its delight in the reverses of its country on the battlefield. The tolerance, which I see in England, but which I have seen nowhere else, is apparently due to the curious influence that the House of Commons has upon its members. They are there, it seems, to play a game, and, in the spirit of the school song,

They love the ally with the love of a brother,
Hating the foe with a playing at hate.

This is all very well in school life, but it is a serious matter when the interests of the country are at stake. This political game so absorbs their attention and warps their judgment, that they look to the opinion of the Opposition more than to the vital interests of their country. This fetish-worship of tolerance has often ended in the ruin of those who were loyal to England, and has never yet led to the conciliation of the enemy. Look at the desertion of Sir Bartle Frere. Did such conduct prevent

the South African war, or bring Boer and Briton to a "union of hearts"? If our leaders would shake themselves free of this overstrained worship of tolerance, there would be less desertion of friends, more justice to the nation as a whole, and quite as much conciliation of the enemy.

If an appeal could be made to the common sense of England, it would, I believe, open the eyes of our political leaders to the folly of their ways, and show them that the nation at large is in advance of the curiously artificial club-feeling that dominates the House of Commons. Hoping to hear from you soon, I am, my dear A, yours very truly,

25th August 1902.

MY DEAR B.—Before answering your letter, let me congratulate you on having returned home safe and sound after so many years of absence, and express the hope that you may have as many years of health and happiness before you in your own country.

You have challenged what has been supposed to be one of the best characteristics of our public life in England,—the severance of political from personal feeling. You call this "extraordinary tolerance" a fetish, and I gather from your letter that you have a higher opinion of foreigners to whom this tolerance is unknown than you have of your countrymen who are wont to plume themselves on its possession. The members of the House are there, you say, to play a game, and each side learns to look upon its opponents as so many pawns on the chess-board, whose movements must be carefully watched.

Such criticism, I admit, does not deserve to be put aside off-hand. To be unlike almost every other nation, and most of all unlike our nearest neighbours, the French, is not of necessity a virtue. In France the division of parties extends to the whole field of private life. It rules a man's action in society just as much as it does his action in politics. The Royalist in private life avoids the Republican; the Republican is not on visiting terms with the Buonapartist. This system, as I gather from your letter, you admire. It is natural, it is honest, it is the action of men who mean what they say. It has none of the unreality inseparable from the English system; it brings men in contact with facts as they are.

Your view is logical; that no one will deny. Natural passions are apt to be logical. But most of the progress of the

world has been secured at the expense of the logic of passion, and I think that in the present case the general law holds good. Do French politics or English politics present the more attractive picture at the present time? Is it better to be flying at one another's throats or to be eating one another's dinners? You are all for the throats. I am for the dinners.

You say that you are not in favour of personal bitterness when "the political differences are slight." But who is to say what differences are slight and what are vital? One man will be hot on an Education Bill, another on a Redistribution Bill, another on a Public Worship Bill, another on a Catholic University Endowment Bill. You, as it happens, are hot on the question of the South African war, but lukewarm, as perhaps I may assume, on the other questions. If you attempt to draw a line between one error of opinion and another, and to say of one that it need not stand in the way of personal esteem or friendly intercourse, while you say of another that it is an insuperable bar to all such amenities, you will find the drawing of the line between them a hopeless business. No two men will agree. The distinction does not lie in the opinions themselves; it lies in the mind of the man who contemplates them. A man will tolerate difference on points about which he happens to be indifferent or to which he attaches no great importance. That about which he is in real earnest seems to him a vital interest of the country, and disagreement on such a point is considered to be a bar to anything like friendly intercourse. And so the narrowing process goes on, until at last he mixes only with men who agree with him on *all* points.

No doubt the habit of mind engendered by our system of tolerance tends to make men regard politics more as a game than as a battle. But where is the harm of this? It does not prevent the game from being played with all the necessary zeal. The whips are no less watchful, the members no less eager about the result of the division, because the two lobbies have contributed guests to each other's tables for weeks past. The better knowledge which is thus gained is all to the good. It enables them to draw a line between men's public and private characters, between what they are while playing the game and what they are when the game is over; and the effect is altogether humanising. There are other things in life besides politics, and the advantage of the English system, which so shocks and surprises you, is that it enables these other things to

grow and flourish side by side with politics. Should we be any better citizens or better patriots, if we held no intercourse with men, with whom we agreed perhaps in everything save politics? We should immensely narrow our range of interests outside politics, but that is the only result that is likely to follow.

I prefer the English temper and the miscellaneous dinners which come of it. Hoping that I shall meet you at one of them ere long, I remain, yours very truly,

SECTION 3.—SUBJECTS OF ESSAYS, WITH NOTES.

120. Subjects with Notes.—To give the student some help, if he should still need it, in collecting his materials, I have in this section appended some notes to each of the subjects set. Of the information or suggestions contained in these notes he can make whatever use he likes, or no use at all. The matter that he accepts, if any, he can freely arrange either in the order given in the notes or in any other order that may suit his purpose better. Originality at this stage is to be encouraged. But he is expected to attend to the directions given in Sect. 1, §§ 111, 112. The essay must possess the quality of "artistic unity." Irrelevant matter must be excluded. Proportion must not be neglected. Each paragraph must have its own theme, and not go beyond it. The several paragraphs must follow one another in a rational order, and in such an order, if possible, that the interest of the reader may be sustained.

121. Mental Attitude of the Writer.—There are two qualities of mind that the writer of an essay should especially cultivate—sincerity and confidence.

Sincerity.—This valuable quality is as necessary in composition as it is in the commonest affairs of life. "Sincerity implies saying what you mean, and meaning what you say,—using no words that you do not understand, measuring your epithets, never repeating phrases from books without due consideration, never writing a sentence for the sound rather than the sense" (FOWLER). Sincerity, therefore, is the natural enemy to all attempts at fine writing, the use of grand words to hide the emptiness of thought, the use of rare words or foreign words to give the appearance of learning, the use of hackneyed quotations from poetry that add nothing to the

force of the argument, exaggeration, false ornament, and affectation of every kind.

Confidence.—The writer should approach his subject in a spirit of ease and confidence; and the surest way to acquire this spirit is to master his materials well before he begins to write, and make up his mind precisely as to the line of argument that he intends to take. He should write as if he were stating or explaining the case to a friend, and not as if he were expecting to be criticised unfavourably. If he sits down to write with a sense of assurance and freedom, determined to say what he has to say and to say it intelligibly, his thoughts are likely to flow easily and to find a ready expression in words. But if he begins sticking at words before he has finished his first sentence, he is not likely to get much further. His first draft will of course need revision.

122. Revision of the first Draft.—To a novice, who has not yet acquired the rare and difficult art of expressing his thoughts at once in the best form and the best language that he can command, revision is a very important matter. He should read over his composition carefully two or three times, so that he may be able to judge of its general effect, cancel any statement that may seem superfluous or not sufficiently relevant, cut out any unnecessary verbiage, supply any fresh facts that will fill up a gap in the argument or add to its force, alter any words or phrases that seem obscure, ambiguous, pointless, colloquial, or wanting in euphony.

Before making his final copy the student may possibly see fit to add two more paragraphs,—(1) an introduction showing in very general terms the view that the writer has taken of the purport of the subject, and the line that he intends to follow in dealing with it; (2) a conclusion summing up the drift of what has been said, or restating the main point that the writer intended to establish, or expressing some final reflections. The object of (1) is to prepare the reader for what is coming, and of (2) to leave a distinct impression on his mind at the last. Neither of these additions, however, may be necessary;¹ for an essay may be so complete already

¹ A rule has been laid down that an essay must have a beginning, a middle, and an end. I see no point in any such rule. In the composition of an essay, what the student has to think of is *the middle, the body of the essay.*

and so well constructed, that any additions by way of introduction or conclusion would be a disfigurement.

123. Notes for Narrative Essays.—In narrative composition the subject may be historical, legendary, or biographical. I give notes for thirteen essays,—four on the relations between England and Scotland, resulting finally in the union of the two kingdoms; three on the foundation of the United States; two on the foundation of the Dominion of Canada; one on Owen Glendower (who represents the last struggle for Welsh independence); and three on the life of William Shakespeare, the great dramatist.

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| I. Union of England and Scotland
(four essays). | } | (a) Events ending with the appointment of Baliol as king, 1292.
(b) From 1296 to the battle of Bannockburn, 1314.
(c) Relations between England and Scotland from 1314 to 1603.
(d) From 1603 to the completion of the Union in 1707. |
| II. Foundation of the United States
(three essays). | } | (a) The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763.
(b) Events from 1765 to April 1775.
(c) Events from 1775 to 1782. |
| III. Foundation of the Dominion of Canada
(two essays). | } | (a) Before Confederation.
(b) Confederation and after. |
| IV. Owen Glendower,— | | —The last struggle for Welsh Independence. |
| V. Life of William Shakespeare
(three essays). | } | (a) Till the commencement of his career as dramatist.
(b) From 1591 to 1601.
(c) From 1601 to his death. |

I. UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND. (In four essays.)

(a) *Events ending with the appointment of Baliol as king, 1292.*

Two races in Scotland. Lowlands occupied by the same race as that which had occupied England north of the Humber—viz. Angles, a Scandinavian tribe, after whom we are called English. More purely English than the Saxons or Low Dutch south of the Thames. The Highlands (the whole country north of the Grampians) inhabited by a Celtic people, who spoke and still speak Gaelic, and who hated the Lowlanders.

The Lowland kingdom. This kingdom never included the Highlanders, with whom it was at constant war. Between the Lowland kingdom and the crown of England there had long been a traditional friendship. Note the popularity of Henry I.'s marriage. Note also the help which the King of Scotland gave to Matilda, mother of Henry II.

Scotch crown vacant in 1286. The only heiress to the crown was Margaret, the little "Maid of Norway," a child, granddaughter of Alexander III. of Scotland. Disturbances broke out, and Scotch barons appealed to Edward I. of England.

Proposed settlement in 1290. Edward I. proposed a marriage between his own son Edward, then a child, and the little Margaret. The betrothal was accepted by the Scotch, and a regency appointed. If this marriage had come off, the two crowns would have been peaceably united, as they afterwards were by the accession of James I.

How the settlement of 1290 was frustrated. The child Margaret, on whose marriage with the heir of Edward I. everything depended, died on the voyage to Scotland. An example of the great part played by accident in human affairs.

Fresh disturbances in Scotland. Thirteen claimants to the throne sprang up. The Scotch barons again appealed to Edward I. of England as overlord. Edward decided in favour of Baliol (1292) against Bruce, another chief claimant. Baliol reigned for four years.

(b) *From 1296 to the battle of Bannockburn, 1314.*

Baliol deposed by Scotch barons, 1296. The Scotch barons, restless, ambitious, and fond of adventure, rose against Baliol, and deposed him; confiscated all estates held by Englishmen in Scotland; made an alliance with the King of France; and invaded Cumberland. Their grievance against Edward was that as overlord he listened to appeals against decisions passed in the Scotch law courts.

Insurrection of Wallace, 1297. The invasion of Cumberland by the Scotch forced Edward I. to retaliate and declare himself King of Scotland. At Berwick he received the homage of clergy, baronage, and gentry. But he was called away to the defence of his possessions in France, and during his absence Wallace raised a rebellion and invaded the north of England. Edward returned and defeated him at Falkirk, 1298.

Comyn appointed guardian of the realm, 1298. The country appeared to be settled; but the union proved to be superficial and temporary. Robert the Bruce, grandson of that Bruce who in 1292 had been a competitor for the crown, slew Comyn, and caused himself to be crowned King of Scotland in 1306.

Battle of Bannockburn, 1314. The old King Edward died within sight of Scotland in 1307. His son, a feeble youth, was defeated by Bruce at Bannockburn. Thus ended, till 1603, all chance of the crowns of England and Scotland being united.

The result, though gratifying to Scotch national feeling, was not really to the advantage of either England or Scotland. The two kingdoms, formerly the best of friends, became the bitterest enemies; and Scotland, all through the Middle Ages, was playing into the hands of France. A disastrous feud was established between the two sections of the English race.

(c) *Relations between England and Scotland from 1314 to 1603.*

From 1314 the histories of England and Scotland run in separate channels for nearly 300 years. In 1603, when James united the

crowus, they mingle in a single stream. But there was no legislative union till 1707.

After the battle of Bannockburn (1314) the two kingdoms were at almost constant war. Whenever there was civil war in England, the Scotch king took the side of the rebels. For protection Scotland threw herself into the arms of France. Scotch auxiliaries fought for France against the English invader, and fought well. Louis XI. had his Scotch guard, as readers of *Quentin Durward* know.

James I. of Scotland was the only king whose feelings towards England were friendly. His father, Robert, was sending him over to France, where Scotch rebels could not molest him. His ship was taken by an English ship on the way. The boy, nine years of age, was brought to the English court, and Henry IV., the reigning king, refused to give him up. His captivity was the means of his acquiring an excellent education. He studied Chaucer, and became himself a poet of the Chaucer stamp. On his return to Scotland in 1424 he was so far Anglicised, that he remodelled the Scotch Parliament after the English pattern by introducing the representative principle. His measures for putting down feudal privilege cost him his life in 1436. Had his reign and policy continued, the two kingdoms might have been united much sooner than they were and on better terms.

In the great battles between England and Scotland the English bow, which the Scotch never learnt to use, prevailed, as it had prevailed at Crecy and Agincourt. Halidon, Homildon, Neville's Cross, Floddeu, all went the same way. After the slaughter of the Scotch king and his nobility at Floddeu, the kingdom might have fallen if Surrey had followed up his victory.

An attempt to unite the crowns by marriage had been made by Edward I., but was frustrated by the death of the Maid of Norway. Another attempt was made by Henry VIII., who with his dying breath recommended the marriage of his son and successor with Mary, the heiress of the Scotch throne. This plan was frustrated by the impetuosity of the Protector Somerset, who, to enforce the nuptials, led a great army into Scotland and gained a decisive victory at Pinkie (1547), but failed to follow it up, as Surrey had failed before him. Meanwhile Mary was sent over to France. Here a marriage was arranged between her and the Dauphin. The marriage was solemnised in April 1558, and by the marriage contract it was provided that the crowns of France and Scotland should be united in their eldest son.

The triumph of the Reformation in both kingdoms drew the Scotch and the English for the first time together. The temper of John Knox was not sweetened by his imprisonment in the French galleys, and both kingdoms were horrified by the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day.

Another attempt (the third) was then made to unite the crowns by marriage; and this time the proposal came from Scotland. The Scotch Reformers objected to the crown of Protestant Scotland being united with that of Catholic France; which in fact very nearly came to pass when the Dauphin, the husband of Mary Stuart, succeeded to the French throne as Francis II. They therefore proposed the young Earl of Arran, a Protestant, and heir-presumptive to the

Scottish crown, as husband for Elizabeth, the Protestant Queen of England. Elizabeth, however, for reasons of her own, declined the honour.

On the death of Queen Elizabeth (1603) James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary Stuart and Darnley, became James I. of England by right of inheritance from Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. The crowns were thus at last united; but the only steps taken towards a union of peoples were—(1) a law was passed declaring that natives of Scotland born since the coronation of James I. as King of England were not aliens in England; and (2) the laws, which treated Scotland as an enemy's country and made arrangements for the extradition of criminals, were repealed. It took another hundred years to get complete legislative union accomplished.

(d) *From 1603 to the completion of the union in 1707.*

By the accession of James I. no change was made in the constitution, the Church, or the laws of Scotland. Scotland had still its own parliament, and its own system of church government by means of the General Assembly. Episcopacy, the system retained in England after the separation from Rome, had been formally abolished in Scotland four years after the repulse of the Armada. The Scotch disliked it as a relic of Popery.

James I. preferred the Episcopal Church of England to the Presbyterian Church of his own country. His motto was "No bishop, no king," but Scotland was resolved on having "No bishop." In 1610 he restored Episcopacy, and did all he could to suppress or humiliate the General Assembly.

Charles, his successor, went a step further. He introduced a liturgy almost identical with that of the English Prayer-book. Then came the Solemn League and Covenant, signed by all classes,—nobles, ministers (clergy), land-owning gentry, and burghers. The king led two expeditions into Scotland to enforce uniformity; but his English troops, being in sympathy with the Covenanters, refused to fight.

The two first Stuarts were so averse to government by parliaments that they took no steps to establish a single parliament for both countries. Their aim rather was to suppress both parliaments and rule without them.

First union with Scotland.—In 1652 a Bill was introduced into the English parliament (the Rump) by Sir Harry Vane for establishing a more complete union with Scotland. A convention of delegates from the counties and boroughs of Scotland met in Edinburgh, and a Bill was passed which gave legal form to the union and admitted representatives from Scotland into the next parliament to be held at Westminster. This was called the "Act of Union."

The union was effected, but not in the manner which the Act intended. In all the parliaments that Cromwell summoned Scotch representatives were invited and came to both Houses. But the parliaments had soon to be dissolved on account of internal disputes. The union was then effected by military force. Monk held the country with a firm hand for eight years. The Presbyterian system was allowed full freedom in everything. But no General Assembly was held.

On the Restoration Charles II. refused to recognise the union which Cromwell had established. The new Scotch parliament, called the Drunken Parliament, was so wild with loyalty that it annulled in a single Act, called the Rescissory, the Acts of all parliaments since 1640. The result was that the Kirk deprived itself of legal sanction, and kirk-sessions and ministers' synods were suspended. Scotch bishops were restored. The Covenanters were very severely dealt with; and the Covenant was declared an unlawful oath. Presbyterian ministers were ousted.

Second union with Scotland.—It was the wish of William to restore Cromwell's settlement. But all that he could manage to re-establish was Presbyterianism, which has remained ever since.

In the next reign a treaty was prepared, by which there should be one parliament for both countries;—Scotland to send forty-five representatives to the Lower House at Westminster, and sixteen elected peers to the Upper; each country to retain its own church, and also its own judicial procedure and laws, subject to the condition that the House of Lords should be the final court of appeal for the whole of the united nation. It was wisely decided to submit this treaty to the approval of the Scotch parliament, before bringing it up in the English parliament.

The Scotch parliament, the last ever held, protested at first against the union, fearing that neither the national laws nor the national church would be safe under a joint parliament. But common sense prevailed, and the union was accepted. The Jacobites were bitterly opposed to it; but Blenheim had deprived them of all hope of aid from France.

The articles were not debated in detail in the English parliament. The Chancellor, Harcourt, eluded the danger and delay of discussion by framing a Bill with the treaty recited in the preamble and a single enacting-clause, and this clause was passed. Thus union came at last; and the evil which the Norman Conquest had done in severing Scotland and Wales from England was at length undone.

II. FOUNDATION OF THE UNITED STATES. (Three essays.)

(a) *Results of the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763.*

By 1756 the thirteen American colonies of England stretched in a line of 1700 miles along the Atlantic coast from Massachusetts to Georgia. But the English colonies were not the only ones. To the north of them the French had colonised that part of Canada now called the Province of Quebec, and in the south-west Louisiana. They had also colonised a portion of what is now called Nova Scotia, the scene of Longfellow's "Evangeline."

The French claimed all the country west of the Alleghanies, and drove out all English settlers. The English on their part turned the French out of their settlement in Nova Scotia, and in 1749 founded the English settlement called after Lord Halifax. The French were actively engaged in linking a line of fortresses from north to south, at the back of the English colonies. It was now clear that England and France must fight the matter out; and the outbreak of the Seven Years' War in Europe gave the opportunity. In

this war England and Prussia were allied against France, Austria, and Russia.

William Pitt (afterwards Lord Chatham) was leader of the House of Commons from 1757 to 1761. In these four years he not only supported Frederick the Great of Prussia against overwhelming odds in Europe, but in America he made the British colonists masters from Canada to Florida.

Pitt appealed successfully to the thirteen colonies to raise a fighting force in their own defence and attack the two French cities of Canada, —Quebec and Montreal. From England he sent out an English force and some newly raised Highland levies. He also sent Admiral Boscawen with a fleet to attack Louisburg in the north, and to cut off the French of Canada from the chance of receiving help from France.

In 1758 Louisburg and the whole of Cape Breton fell into the hands of the English. Fort Duquesne was captured by a body of Highlanders under General Forbes, assisted by a body of colonials under George Washington. The fort was renamed Pittsburg from the name of William Pitt. (This is the Washington who, after the Declaration of Independence, led the Colonials against the English.)

The most decisive event of the war occurred in 1759,—the capture of Quebec, the chief city of Canada, and the stronghold of French power. Quebec stands on high rocks overhanging the left bank of St. Lawrence, and has another river, St. Charles, behind it. To the north of the city is a high rocky plain, called the Plain of Abraham, and the French commander, Montcalm, had planted his army on the lower ground to the south. In June 1759 the English fleet, with General Wolfe's soldiers on board, sailed up the St. Lawrence, but found Quebec impregnable. At midnight on 12th September his men wound up the Heights of Abraham by a narrow path, two and two, and took the French by surprise. Montcalm and Wolfe were both fatally wounded in the encounter. Quebec was taken. A monument now stands on the Heights of Abraham to the memory of the English and French commanders.

In September 1760 Montreal, the other great city of Canada, was captured by the English. But the French cause had been irretrievably lost already under the walls of Quebec.

In 1762 war was declared against Spain, which had been giving secret help to France. This resulted in Spain being compelled to give up Florida to the English.

In 1763 the Seven Years' War was closed by a peace signed at Paris. By this peace England gained all Canada, Florida, and all the French possessions east of the Mississippi except New Orleans. England was thus the only great power left in America.

(b) *Events from 1765 to April 1775.*

The colonies were of different origin,—those in the north being descended from exiled Puritans; in the south from exiled Cavaliers; in Maryland from Roman Catholics who had fled from the penal laws; in Pennsylvania from Quakers. Different though they were in origin and character, they were all founded by religious or political exiles, who carried the love of freedom with them to their

new homes. They were loyal enough to England, until they were exasperated by the interference of George III. and his brutal indifference to their feelings.

In 1705 Lord Grenville, the king's tool acting as Prime Minister, attempted to revive the law, which had long been a dead letter, that the colonies might trade only with England. At the same time he passed the Stamp Act for taxing the colonies. As the late war in America had been waged on the colonies' behalf, the colonies would not have objected to the tax, had they been consulted. But they resented its imposition by force.

Grenville resigned, and the Stamp Act was repealed in 1766 by the new minister, the Duke of Grafton. But in 1767 a worse tax was imposed,—on all tea, glass, paper, red and white lead imported into America; and so the sore was reopened. The Grafton ministry, after having done as much mischief as its predecessor, went out of office in 1770.

In 1770 Lord North became Prime Minister,—an abject tool in the hands of George III. He held office for twelve years, and ended with bringing about the most tragical disaster in English history, the violent separation of the thirteen American colonies from the mother-country. His first act was to repeal the tax on all the articles except tea. This last the king was determined to retain. The consequence was that the tea-chests, for which duty was demanded, were thrown into Boston harbour in 1773.

In 1774 Lord North, to punish the offence, passed a Bill to close the port of Boston, and so shut out all trade from the city. This was followed by another exasperating Bill, the object of which was to annul the charter of Massachusetts and appoint a council nominated by the Crown. War was now inevitable; but it did not break out till the following year.

In the same year (1774) a council of fifty men, elected from all the colonies except Georgia, met at Philadelphia. This was the first Congress that ever met in America, the forerunner of all that have been held since the establishment of the independence of the United States. A resolution was passed that all trading with Britain should cease, till the rights of Massachusetts were restored. At the same time a militia was organised, so that force might, if necessary, be resisted by force.

Still the king did not yield. In 1775 General Gage, the Governor who represented the king, was ordered to enforce the new measures. His troops were met on a hillock, by Concord River, on 19th April 1775, and were driven back by a band of colonial militia. Thus the first blood was shed between England and her American colonies.

(c) *Events from 1775 to 1782.*

George Washington was appointed Commander-in-Chief one month after the battle of Concord. Before he arrived, the colonists had been defeated at Bunker's Hill, 1775, and their invasion of Canada had been repelled. But Lord Howe was forced by Washington to abandon the blockade of Boston.

Declaration of Independence on 4th July 1776. The Congress in this matter was led by John Adams, Franklin, and Sherman. To

improve the fighting power of the United Colonies, Washington disbanded the local militia, which was always moulting, and like another Cromwell formed a compact standing army and placed it under regular discipline.

The turning-point in the war was the defeat of General Burgoyne, who, on 17th October 1777, was surrounded at Saratoga and forced to surrender.

France seized the opportunity of avenging the humiliation of the Seven Years' War, and entered into an alliance with the United Colonies. Chatham would have dropped the colonies and turned upon his old enemy, France. In April 1778 he reappeared in the House of Lords, but collapsed in a swoon, and died one month afterwards.

All the enemies of England gathered like vultures round her seemingly expiring body. Spain joined France, determined to recover Gibraltar. In 1780 Russia, Sweden, and Denmark entered into "the armed neutrality," and were joined soon after by Prussia and Holland. Meanwhile Ireland was in revolt, following the example of America, and the Gordon riots broke out in London. Never did England seem so near her ruin. The outlook was never so dark even in Napoleon's time.

In 1781 came news of the defeat of Lord Cornwallis and surrender of 4000 men at Yorktown, 18th October.

Lord North resigned in March 1782. At last the obstinate king yielded. In November 1782 peace was signed, by which England acknowledged the independence of the United States, but retained Canada. Rodney had utterly defeated the French fleet in April 1782, and Spain was forced to raise the siege of Gibraltar.

What was deplorable in these events was not the parting between England and her colonies, but the manner of the parting. The colonies no doubt gained by the separation; but one evil—slavery—remained in their midst. Slavery was abolished in all the British dominions in August 1833. Had the United States remained under the English flag, the Civil War of 1861-1865 would not have occurred.

III. FOUNDATION OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA, 1763-1867.

(Two essays.)

(a) *Before Confederation.*

What is now the great "Dominion of Canada," consisting of several large provinces united under the British flag, has grown up round the old French colony—Canada—which England seized from France in the course of the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763. In the war between England and the United States (1775-1782), the French tried to get it back, but failed. The extensive dominion that has since grown up round this nucleus will some day rival the United States in population and wealth, as it already does in extent.

Among the people of the thirteen colonies or states which revolted from England in 1775-1782, many remained faithful to the British flag. These in 1782, after peace was signed between England and the United States, received grants of land under the name of the

United Empire Loyalists. A large English element was thus introduced north of the St. Lawrence.

In 1791 Pitt framed an Act for the settlement of Canada. Canada was divided by this Act into two separate provinces—Lower Canada (now called Quebec) being reserved for the French population, and Upper Canada (now called Ontario) for the English. To each province was given a separate government, but similar in form. It consisted of a governor appointed by England, to represent the king; a council appointed by the governor, to represent the Upper House; and an assembly elected by the people, to represent the Lower House. The real power, however, was in the hands of the governor and his council, since these were not appointed by, nor held responsible to, the elective assembly. The government was in fact that of a crown colony.

In 1812 war broke out between England and the United States. This arose out of the action forced upon England by the Berlin Decree of 1806. The Americans, irritated by this action, invaded Canada. But the French Canadians remained true to Britain. They saw in England the successful antagonist of the French Revolution, and had sung *Te Deum* for Trafalgar. Nor had they any desire to be absorbed or annexed by the Puritans of New England.

With the restoration of peace internal troubles began. The government established by Pitt did not work well even in Upper Canada, still less in Lower, where the elective assembly was French, while the governor and the legislative council appointed by him were English. The discontent in Lower Canada was natural, and implied no disloyalty to the English flag. In both provinces the elective or popular assembly claimed the right to control the policy of the governor and the council. It claimed in fact powers similar to those which, since the time of William III., had been exercised by the House of Commons in England.

Another trouble was the growing estrangement between the two provinces themselves. The position of Quebec and Montreal gave to Lower Canada a control over the exports and imports of Upper; and disputes arose as to the share of import duties due to Upper Canada.

(b) *Confederation and after.*

In 1838 Lord Durham was sent out as Governor-General to report on the best way of forming a new government. He was the son-in-law of Lord Grey, the draftsman of the English Reform Bill of 1832. In both provinces there had been a popular outbreak, and Lord Durham was sent out to devise some permanent mode of conciliation. He took the colonists into council and prepared a scheme, which laid the foundation for all the free constitutions that England has ever since given to her colonies.

In 1840, by Lord Durham's scheme, the two Canadas were united under a single governor-general, and all government officials were made responsible to an Upper and a Lower House, answering to our House of Lords and House of Commons. The Upper House was made elective like the Lower, but with wider constituencies. The only hold which England kept was the appointing of a governor-general to represent the sovereign.

On 1st July 1867 (on the plan suggested by Lord Durham in 1840) the Imperial Act, known as "The British North American Act," was passed, providing for the voluntary union of the whole of British North America into one legislative confederation, under the name of the Dominion of Canada. Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Hudson's Bay territory joined in 1867; Manitoba was formed in 1870; British Columbia joined in 1871, on condition that a railway was built within ten years to connect the eastern provinces with the Pacific. Prince Edward Island joined in 1873. Since then several new provinces have been marked out provisionally, and are becoming partially settled. Newfoundland alone has held aloof.

Dominion Day is observed on 1st July each year as a national holiday. The Dominion of Canada has furnished the only great example in history, in which two races so distinct as the French and English have been consolidated into one united nation. It is quite as independent and self-governing as the United States, and yet it has preserved the British flag. With the other self-governing colonies, it helped to fight England's battles in South Africa.

IV. OWEN GLENDOWER (GLYNDWR),—THE LAST STRUGGLE FOR WELSH INDEPENDENCE.

(Based on the work by A. G. Bradley on *Owen Glyndwr*, ed. 1901, and on *Spectator*, p. 605, 26th October 1901.)

Long before the time of Shakespeare, Owen Glyndwr had become a half-mythical hero. Fabulous tales were told of the prodigies that accompanied his birth; he was represented as half-bandit, half-wizard, and supposed to be able "to call spirits from the vasty deep." Thus he is represented in *Henry IV.*, Part I.

In reality he was not a romantic spectre, but a great national hero, of whom not only Wales, but the whole of Britain may well be proud.

He was born a scion of the noble house of Powys. He was educated in England, and probably studied at Oxford. It is certain that he studied at one of the Inns of Court, and was far better educated than the dukes and earls of England, who used him as their ally in their rebellion against Henry IV. At the beginning of his career he was loyal to the English crown, and might have remained so, had not Richard II. been deposed.

His first experiences on the battlefield were as the companion of Bolingbroke (who afterwards became Henry IV.). His duties at court did not prevent him from spending most of his time in Wales on his two estates. The Welsh bard Iolo, whose verses are still extant, celebrated the splendour and hospitality of his court.

Between Glyndwr and Lord Grey of Ruthin, a Lord of the Marches, these was a feud of long standing. Lord Grey had seized by force the common of Cressau, that lay on one of Glyndwr's estates. It was restored to Glyndwr by King Richard. But no sooner was Henry placed on the throne than Lord Grey seized it again.

In 1400 the Percies, aided by the Scotch, broke out in rebellion against King Henry. Glyndwr was summoned among other nobles to the king's standard. The summons was sent through Lord Grey, but Lord Grey suppressed it till Glyndwr found it too

late to join the king's army or explain his absence. This made Henry the implacable foe of the Welsh chief. Henceforth one or other must be destroyed.

Glyndwr raised his standard,—the Red Dragon of Wales on a white ground,—and was immediately acclaimed by bards and people. He became on a sudden a national hero, such as Wales never knew before or since. His ambition began in resistance to Henry IV., and ended in the dream of a Cambrian kingdom. He became a party to the "Tripartite Indenture," by which the realm of England was to be divided among Northumberland, Mortimer, who had married Glyndwr's daughter, and Glyndwr himself. Wales was to fall to the last. Glyndwr's reputation rose so high that he was able to make a treaty with the French king; and the King of Scotland was in league with him.

But reverses came at last. His army suffered a series of small defeats, which the English king, released from internal rebellion and foreign complications, was able to inflict on him. He became at last a guerilla leader.

Henry V., much to his credit, granted a free pardon to the magnanimous rebel who had all but established himself on the throne of Wales. He must have compared him, as we do, with Bruce of Scotland, and could he have looked into the near future, he would have compared him with William Tell of Switzerland. He was a rebel, it is true; but a rebel who was fighting for his country and had been roused to rebellion by injustice.

V. THE LIFE OF WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE.

(Mainly based on *Life*, by Sidney Lee.)

(a) *Till the commencement of his career as dramatist, 1591.*

Born at Stratford-on-Avon on 22nd or 23rd April 1564. His mother's maiden name was Mary Arden, of the distinguished family that gave its name to the "Forest of Arden" celebrated in *As You Like It*. His father, John Shakespeare, was the son of a yeoman farmer, who rented a holding at Snitterfield from Mary Arden's father. But before he married the daughter of his father's landlord, he had set up in Stratford as a trader in all kinds of agricultural produce.

Shakespeare had one sister, and three brothers younger than himself. Three other sisters had died in infancy or childhood. He and his brothers were all educated at the Stratford Grammar School, an old endowment reconstituted by Edward VI. on the new plan. Here he learnt Latin, but probably no Greek.

First impressions of the drama were formed at Stratford during his boyhood, when Stratford was visited at different times by dramatic troupes on tour from London. Two different companies were invited by Shakespeare's own father, who at that time was high-bailiff or mayor of the borough. Shakespeare is likely to have witnessed the fantastic pageants and performances with which Leicester in 1575 entertained Queen Elizabeth at Kenilworth, only fifteen miles from Stratford. Something similar to these was produced by Shakespeare himself twenty years afterwards in *Midsummer Night's Dream*.

In December 1582, when he was less than nineteen years of age, he married Anne Hathaway, a woman of twenty-seven, daughter of a neighbouring farmer who owned a small freehold. The ceremony was performed not before it was necessary, and without the regular publication of banns. The marriage was hastened in order to save her reputation. A daughter (Susanna) was born six months after the ceremony.

Departure from Stratford, 1585. Before his departure two other children were born—twins, viz. a second daughter (Judith) and a son (Hamnet). No more children were ever born. There is good reason to think that the marriage was not a happy one. (See *Twelfth Night*, ii. 4. 29; *Tempest*, iv. 1. 15-22; and *All's Well that Ends Well*, ii. 3.) Though not wholly estranged, he saw little or nothing more of his family for eleven years.

Reasons for leaving Stratford. The tradition that he fled from justice, having been caught deer-poaching in Sir Thomas Luey's park at Charlecote, is not authenticated: first mentioned by Rowe in 1709, nearly a hundred years after the poet's death. Stronger reasons existed. His father was nearly bankrupt, and the youth desired to retrieve the fallen fortunes of the family; in which, as the sequel shows, he succeeded entirely. He was thrown away in the drudgery of farmwork; and the instinct of genius, which seldom errs, led him to London. Perhaps his wife, finding him of no use on a farm, and having three brothers to help her, urged him to go. Though we can hardly believe that Shakespeare could have fled from justice even if he tried, it is quite possible that he was prosecuted for deer-poaching by Sir Thomas Luey; for he was known to be very fond of sport.

There is a well-authenticated tradition that for a time, before he reached London, he was a teacher in a school. If this tradition is true, the two greatest poets of England, Shakespeare and Milton, were both at one time of their lives schoolmasters.

In 1587 we first hear of him on the London stage. He joined the company known in history as the Lord Chamberlain's Company. The head of the troupe, Burbage, was the leading tragic actor of the day. Other members, Heming and Condell, were among Shakespeare's lifelong friends; and after his untimely death brought out the first edition of his plays. The theatre in which they chiefly acted was called the Globe Theatre, on the Bankside, Southwark. It was built by Burbage, and Shakespeare had shares in it.

(b) *From 1591 to 1601.*

From acting plays written by others he took to writing plays himself. But his first dramatic efforts lay in revising and adapting other men's plays for his company. We shall never know how many or what plays passed through Shakespeare's hands. We know of some, but these were so much altered and amended, that Shakespeare was practically the author. They are included among his works.

His first original drama, brought out in 1591, was *Love's Labour Lost*, the plot of which is the only one among all Shakespeare's dramas not known to have been borrowed. This was so well received that he rapidly put on the stage two more comedies (*Two Gentlemen*

of *Verona* and *Comedy of Errors*), a tragedy (*Romeo and Juliet*), and the three parts of *Henry VI*. Sir Thomas Lucy of Charlecote was the original of Justice Shallow in the second part of *Henry VI*.

Greene, who preceded Shakespeare as a dramatist, was so jealous of his rising fame that the last thing which he wrote before his death in September 1592 was a rancorous attack on Shakespeare, whom he called "an upstart crow beautified with our feathers," and a solemn warning to three fellow-dramatists—Marlowe, Nash, and Lodge—to give up writing plays, as Shakespeare would only borrow their plots. Chettle, who acted as Greene's publisher after his death, wrote an apology for this attack, and declared himself to be personally acquainted with Shakespeare, whom he much admired both as a man and as a playwright. This is interesting as being the first, but by no means the last, contemporary witness to the career and character of Shakespeare.

Shakespeare was a poet before he became a dramatist. His *Venus and Adonis* appeared in 1593. It was then first printed. But it had been written at an earlier date; for in dedicating it to his friend and patron, the Earl of Southampton, he calls it "the first heir of his invention." It is not at all improbable that the first draft was written before he left Stratford. The *Rape of Lucrece* followed in 1594. Both poems were enthusiastically received by the public. One of the admirers was Edmund Spenser, the author of the *Fairy Queen*, to whom Shakespeare in reply makes a respectful allusion in *Midsummer Night's Dream*. Both of Shakespeare's poems were printed and published by Richard Field, who had charge of a large printing-press in London, and was a fellow-townsmen and friend of Shakespeare's.

Shakespeare's career as a dramatist began in 1591, and lasted for twenty years. There are thirty-nine plays that bear his name; so he wrote on an average two a year. In 1598 Francis Meres, comparing the poets of England with those of Greece, Rome, and Italy, calls Shakespeare the greatest man of letters of his day, and mentions the names of six comedies and six tragedies which had already appeared. Such testimony helps us to fix the dates of his plays. But there are two other tests—(1) seventeen out of the thirty-nine plays were printed during his lifetime; and (2) there is internal evidence. In the earlier plays there is a great deal of punning and verbal jugglery, a more frequent use of rhyme, a stricter observance of metre, and a sparing use of prose. In the later plays punning almost disappears, rhyming is very rare, the metre is irregular, and prose is more frequently used.

Return to Stratford in 1596. The first visit, so far as we know, after eleven years' absence. He was now rich. He purchased New Place in Stratford as a family residence, relieved his father of all difficulties, and paid a debt of his wife's. He took steps to procure a coat-of-arms for his father, and eventually succeeded (1599). His son Hamnet, the only son that he ever had, died in 1596. Letters are extant in which his fellow-townsmen appeal to him for help to get his native town exempted from the payment of a subsidy. Richard Quincy, a fellow-townsmen (whose son, Thomas, afterwards married Judith, Shakespeare's second daughter), being harassed with

debt, begged Shakespeare to give him some help. John Shakespeare, the father of the poet, died in 1601.

(c) *From 1601 to his death in 1616.*

In 1601 occurred the rebellion of Essex, in which Shakespeare's friend and patron, the Earl of Southampton, was implicated. In *Henry V.*, prologue to Act V., allusions are made to the expedition to Ireland (1599) under Essex. This turned out disastrously. In 1601 Essex sought to stir up rebellion in London, and Shakespeare's company was induced by the payment of a sum of money to reproduce *Richard II.* (originally brought out in 1593), with a view to stirring up a popular outbreak. The queen was much displeased. Essex was beheaded; Southampton was imprisoned till the queen's death. It was an anxious time for Shakespeare and his company. But no proceedings were taken against the players. This was the first occasion in which Shakespeare became mixed up with contemporary politics, and it was the last. The queen died in March 1603, and Southampton was released.

Another trouble that befell Shakespeare and his company at this time was the preference shown for boy-actors to adult actors. The company of boy-actors was recruited from the choristers of the Chapel Royal. There was an extravagant outburst of applause in their favour. Shakespeare's company had to go out on tour, and suffered for the time a loss of reputation and of emoluments. In *Hamlet*, ii. 2. 349-64, Shakespeare makes a bitter allusion to this change in the popular taste. Ben Jonson, who at this time had a fierce quarrel with two fellow-dramatists, Marston and Dekker, took the part of the boys in revenge. Shakespeare was on the side of the adults against Ben Jonson. In 1601 a play was produced at Cambridge called *The Return from Parnassus*, in which Shakespeare, both as a playwright and a poet, received the highest commendation:—"Why, here's our fellow Shakespeare puts them all down; aye, and Ben Jonson too." This is a very valuable testimony to Shakespeare's genius and influence. Shakespeare's *Julius Cæsar* (1601) was preferred to Ben Jonson's *Catiline*, and Leonard Digges, a contemporary critic, openly expressed his preference.

On the death of Queen Elizabeth in 1603, James I. very soon after his accession extended to Shakespeare's company a very marked and valuable recognition. A license was granted them under royal letters, and they became the "king's players." Nine actors are named. Lawrence Fletcher stands first on the list; then Shakespeare; then Burbage. Shakespeare's plays were thenceforth repeatedly played in James's presence.

From 1604 to 1609 appeared a series of tragedies, which, with *Julius Cæsar* and *Hamlet*, produced in 1601 and 1602 respectively, are accounted the highest products of Shakespeare's genius. Among the tragedies of this period were *Othello*, *Macbeth*, *King Lear*, *Timon of Athens*, *Antony and Cleopatra*, *Coriolanus*. These were all acted before King James. Among the actors who helped to bring out these plays was Shakespeare's youngest brother, Edmund, who died in 1607, and was buried in St. Saviour's Church, Southwark. His mother died at Stratford in 1608.

In the year 1609 Shakespeare's sonnets appeared in print. The bulk of them were written in 1594, at the time when the *Rape of Lucrece* was printed. All were at first circulated privately in manuscript. The few sonnets which relate to his friendship with the Earl of Southampton are the only ones connected with his personal history. The rest are merely conventional imitations of Italian models. Such sonnets were then in fashion; and Shakespeare wrote them to show that he was not behind other poets of his day. They were at last surreptitiously sent to press in 1609 by Thomas Thorpe, who dedicated them to his friend and fellow-pirate, William Hall.

The last drama written entirely by Shakespeare was the *Tempest*, produced in 1611. By some this play is considered the ripest fruit of Shakespeare's imagination, the perfect craft of the master-hand. Its unmeasured popularity drew a sneer from Ben Jonson in his *Bartholomew Fair*. Three more plays came from Shakespeare, assisted by John Fletcher—*Cardenio* (lost), *Two Noble Kinsmen* (included among the plays of Beaumont and Fletcher), and *Henry VIII.* (included among the plays of Shakespeare).

Final retirement to Stratford in 1611. Here he entertained at times his fellow-actors, who had been his lifelong friends, and fellow-poets, Ben Jonson and Michael Drayton. An attempt was made by a fellow-townsmen, Combe, to enclose the "common" fields, which belonged to the corporation of Stratford, about his estate at Welcombe. This Shakespeare, being himself the owner of a freehold at Welcombe, resisted; but eventually yielded on receiving an assurance that his own estate would be secured against all possible loss.

His health failing in 1616, he made his will, leaving the bulk of his property to his eldest daughter, Susanna (who had married Dr. John Hall in 1607). He died of fever in the spring of 1616, while Ben Jonson and Drayton were staying with him as guests. He left several legacies to his fellow-actors and to his Stratford friends. Ben Jonson wrote an elegy on his death, bearing the highest testimony to the greatness of his genius and the loveliness of his character.

124. Notes for Descriptive Essays.—There is no limit to the number and variety of things that can be made the subjects of descriptive essays. The following is a list of the subjects to which notes have been appended:—

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| I. The Sea-Bottom. | XII. Silk and the Silkworm. |
| II. The Great Sea-Basins | XIII. The Whale and its Products. |
| III. The Nearer East. | XIV. Whale-Fishing. |
| IV. The Rabbit. | XV. Cocoa. |
| V. The Oyster. | XVI. The Cocoa-nut Palm. |
| VI. The Port of Bristol. | XVII. India (two essays)— |
| VII. The Peacock. | (a) Physical Structure. |
| VIII. The Manchester Ship-Canal. | (b) Climate and Seasons. |
| IX. Coal. | XVIII. Sugar-producing Plants. |
| X. The Wolf. | XIX. Cork. |
| XI. Pearls and Pearl-Fisheries. | XX. Autumn in England. |

I. THE SEA-BOTTOM.

(Notes from an essay by Sir Edwin Arnold, in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 3, 1st September 1900.)

In laying submarine cables it has been necessary to probe the depths, and this has led to the exploration of the sea-bottom. To decide how and where it is best to lay a new cable demands some knowledge of what the bottom of the sea is like.

Explorers distinguish between the terrigenous zone of the ocean and the pelagic or deep sea-area.

The terrigenous zone is where the sea washes the earth away and the rivers bring down the debris of the land. The floor of this zone is strewn with earthy products,—shells, and chalky infusoria. Through clear water may be seen reefs of coral, fish of all colours, and submarine forests, where strange creatures creep. The terrigenous zone sometimes extends two or three hundred miles to seaward.

The deep sea-bottom is very different. Here the ordinary depth varies from two to five miles. In these solitudes there is no light except what may come from the electrical bodies of some of the fish. Beyond a certain depth scarcely anything solid will sink, so great is the pressure of water overhead. It is believed that in the lowest depths even a foundered ship does not touch the bottom, and that some of the electric cables remain suspended through the water, never touching the floor. It is certain that in shallower places they are festooned from cliff to cliff of the wide submarine valleys.

Yet something definite is known of the deep sea-bottom. It was discovered by Her Majesty's ship, *The Challenger*, that over the pelagic area of the ocean stretches an immense carpet of red mud. Its colour is found to be red when it is pulled up. At the deep sea-bottom, where there is no light, it must look black.

This redness is due to oxides of iron, manganese, nickel, and other metals. There is no chalk, nor any of the shell siftings common to shallower depths.

Mixed with the red clay are found those relics of whale and shark, which the salt water has not been able to melt; such as the black, flinty, fossil teeth of sharks, and the ear-bones of whales. *The Challenger*, in only one haul of the dredge, brought up 600 sharks' teeth and 100 ear-bones of whales.

The red mud which covers these inaccessible solitudes does not come up anywhere on the visible globe to show itself among the sedimentary rocks. It is older than the hills, and largely made from the pumice and volcanic materials constantly being ejected by huge fumaroles and hidden craters through the sea-bottom.

It is into this black, unapproachable wilderness that we drop our cables, through which messages are flashed almost at lightning speed from one side of the globe to another. The North Atlantic is crossed at this moment by no fewer than fourteen cables, all of which are used day and night for sending messages between America and Europe. The breakages of cable occur mainly, not in the deep-sea, where the cable is beyond reach of injury, but where it skirts a shallow coast-line or encounters the changing currents of big rivers and estuaries.

II. THE GREAT SEA-BASINS.

(Geikie's *Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography*, ch. iii.)

The sea covers nearly three-quarters of the entire surface of the earth. More precisely, the sea spreads over 144,712,000 square miles, and the land over 52,000,000. The deepest abysses that have been measured up to date do not much exceed five miles. The average depth may be taken at about half that amount.

If the earth had a perfectly even surface, the sea would completely cover it—to a depth of rather more than a mile. There would then be an outer layer of air, an inner layer of water, and behind the last the solid ball of earth. As it is, the sea is broken up into separate basins by intervening masses of land.

What has determined the shape of the great sea-basins? Not the action of the sea itself. It is only the upper parts of the sea that eat away the land. The water in the deep abysses does not even stir the fine mud, which slowly settles down on the bottom, like dust in an unswept room.

It is not the action of the sea, but the sinking and uprising of the solid surface of the globe, which has determined the shape and size of the great sea-basins. Our planet, when it cooled down from its original intense heat, necessarily contracted in bulk. It shrank and shrivelled like a dried apple. Some portions sank, others rose. The depressed parts have formed the basins for the oceans. The raised parts have formed the islands and the continents.

The Atlantic.—The best explored of all the great sea-basins. Though narrower than the Pacific, it is longer; for Europe and America, between which it runs, do not approach each other in the Arctic Ocean as closely as America and Asia do. It stretches from pole to pole, and crosses all the zones of temperature which girdle the globe. It receives a far larger river-drainage than any other ocean. Take note of the rivers from America, and those from Europe and Africa, including those which enter the Atlantic *via* the Mediterranean and Black Seas. From the islands in the Atlantic, north and south, it is clear that the floor of the Atlantic cannot be a vast plain like the surface of the water. To the west of the British Isles for 230 miles the slope of the ocean-bottom is very gentle, being only 6 feet in the mile. Beyond that, in the next 20 miles there is a fall of 9000 feet down to the level of the great submarine plain stretching westwards for hundreds of miles. Average depth, 2000 to 3000 fathoms (2 to 3½ miles).

The Pacific.—The North Pacific is believed to have the same average depth as the North Atlantic. But between Japan and Admiralty Island one sounding disclosed a depth of 4475 fathoms, or rather more than 5 miles,—the deepest abyss yet measured. There is one enormous ridge stretching from the American coast through the Aleutian Islands to Japan, thence by the Philippine Islands, New Guinea, and the New Hebrides to New Zealand. In mid-ocean the tops of other vast ridges are indicated by the scattered archipelagoes.

The Inland Seas.—The Caspian and Aral are the most important. Caused by the upheaval, within comparatively recent times, of land

now known as Siberia. There was formerly a Mediterranean that ran down from the Arctic Sea between Europe and Asia.

III. THE NEARER EAST.

The area of what we call the Nearer East begins with the Balkan watershed and stretches thence to the Indian Ocean over all the lands that bind the three continents together. It commands the most vital points in the communications of the globe, and was the cradle of all the civilisations in the past.

The area is bounded on the north by the Balkan watershed, the Black Sea, the Caucasian range, and the Caspian Sea; on the east by the salt deserts which separate habitable Persia from Afghanistan, and by the Persian Gulf; on the west by the Adriatic, the Levant, and the African Sahara; on the south by the Abyssinian highlands and the Arabian Sea. From the Nearer East we come to the Middle East, of which India is the centre; and thence to the Farther East, of which China is the centre.

The bulk of this area has been the seat of four great empires in succession:—the Persian empire, founded by Cyrus the Great, which never included Greece; the Macedonian empire, founded by Alexander the Great, which included Greece; the eastern half of the Roman empire, of which Constantinople was the capital, and which survived the western half by nearly a thousand years; and lastly the Turkish empire, now everywhere on its wane. Napoleon aspired to found a fifth empire on the Turkish platform; but he was foiled by Nelson's naval victory in Aboukir Bay.

What is called the "Eastern Question" is the question, What is to become of the Turkish empire? Greece, with Crete, has recovered her independence; Cyprus has fallen to England; Egypt has fallen to England and the Khedive; Russia is master of the Caucasian territory; the Balkan states have been emancipated by Russia, and are now for the most part independent, though much under Russian influence; the protection of Christians in the east has been undertaken by Russia, France, and Germany; Germany is running railways through Asia Minor and the Euphrates valley. What remains of the Turkish empire has been kept together so far through the jealousies of European powers, which act as a check upon one another.

Historical importance of the area. Greece with her marvellous literature, arts and sciences, and the great lessons in political history that she has given to the world. Egypt with all her dynasties, her ancient civilisation, her strange writing, her strange religion, and her wonderful river. Palestine with the chosen people for her inhabitants and Jerusalem for her capital. Tyre celebrated for her command of the sea and the foundation of Carthage. Asia Minor celebrated for the kingdom of Cræsus, the native country of St. Paul, and the scene of his first missionary travels. The Euphrates valley, the seat of the great empire of Nineveh and Babylon, whose history is as ancient as that of Egypt.

If this area had been covered by the sea, the whole of ancient history anterior to the rise of Rome and a great deal of modern history would be blotted out.

IV. THE RABBIT.

(*Edinburgh Review*, April 1902.)

The two great characteristics of the rabbit are (1) its fecundity, (2) its destructiveness.

Fecundity.—It has been calculated that under favourable conditions the descendants of a single pair would in four years exceed 1,000,000.

Destructiveness.—Mankind has long been a sufferer from this. The western provinces of the Roman empire (as Strabo testifies) complained of its ravages, just as New Zealanders and Australians do now. It has played a great part in the political history of the Anglo-Saxon race. Has set landlord against farmer, and has been the best ally of the Radical.

To the zoologist the rabbit is a small hare, one of the Leporidae. Except the hispid hare of Northern India, it is the only animal of this species that burrows. A collection of burrows intersecting one another is called a rabbit-warren. The name "coney" is from Lat. *cuniculus*, a burrow or burrower.

A rabbit has chisel-edged teeth, which it uses for gnawing the bark of young trees, but not for self-defence. For safety it trusts to running into its burrow. It will sometimes use its teeth, though seldom with much effect, to protect its young from stoats, weasels, etc.

Original home Spain, or perhaps Northern Africa from which it passed into Spain. Imported into the British Isles by the Romans. Much reduced in thickly populated England, but moving northwards. There are parts of Scotland where rabbits, unknown fifty years ago, are now abundant.

From Spain rabbits have spread over France, the sand dunes of the Netherlands, and the forests of Germany. But the German forest-planters and forest-conservators keep them down. In the north and east of Europe the cold is too intense for them.

In America the rabbit is not known in the Northern continent, and is not common in the Southern. In Australia it has become an intolerable pest. The whole breed in this continent is descended from three couples, which a public-spirited man in an evil hour introduced to provide the colonists with food and sport. New Zealand, which should have profited by Australian experience, is equally harassed. Mongooses, stoats, and weasels have been imported to destroy rabbits, but unluckily they prefer fowls and find them easier to catch.

Rabbits multiply in spite of their enemies. The enemies are weasels of all kinds, foxes, badgers, rats, poaching cats, eagles, buzzards. Very young rabbits are devoured by crows and owls. Of all enemies the most inveterate is man, who hunts the rabbit with gun, ferret, and net, but is unable to exterminate it.

It is the most mischievous and irrepressible vermin on the earth. The Hares and Rabbits Bill (or Grand Game Act) was passed in 1880. This gives every occupier of land the right to destroy all hares and rabbits that he finds; and no agreement which the landlord may

impose upon his tenant can deprive the tenant of this right. The landlord may wish to preserve them for sport, but the tenant, for reasons of his own, is bent on destroying them.

V. THE OYSTER.

The oyster belongs to the great division of the animal kingdom called Mollusca, most specimens of which are covered with a calcareous shell consisting of one valve, or of two, or of more than two. The oyster is bivalve. The kind best known in Europe is the "*ostrea edulis*" (the eatable oyster), usually found adhering to rocks or other solid objects in shallow waters along the sea coast, or in brackish waters along the mouths of rivers.

The two valves of the shell are unequal in size and different in shape. The left valve is larger, thicker, and more convex, and on it the bulk of the animal rests. The right valve is flat, smaller, and thinner. The right side of the animal's body is less developed in proportion.

The ova from a single oyster are produced by the million. The larvæ (immature forms) are extremely minute, about $\frac{1}{16}$ inch long and of glossy transparency, except in one or two dark brown spots. They swim about on the surface of the water for a week or two, when they settle down and fix themselves to shells, stones, or any other solid objects. Here they begin to take the appearance of minute oysters, forming white disks $\frac{1}{8}$ inch in diameter. This is what the fishermen call "a fall of spat." They are still too small to be visible to the naked eye.

Out of the million ova produced at once perhaps not more than one reaches maturity. If every one survived, the mass of oysters after eight generations would fill up a large part of the ocean. The breeding season of the European oyster lasts from May to September.

Natural beds of oysters occur at depths of from 3 to 20 fathoms, on stony and shallow bottoms. The water must not contain less than 3 per cent salt. Hence oysters are not found in the Baltic.

In the shell there is a kind of spring which forces the valves apart at one side, except when the oyster closes them, as it will do if it expects danger. When the oyster is too weak to close its shell, it is attacked and devoured by the crab. The star-fish can bore a hole through the shell, and thus render the oyster too weak to keep its door shut.

Before the breeding season commences, oyster-culturists prepare the beds for "the spat" to fall upon, clearing away all loose sand or other unsuitable matter and all star-fish. They often throw down dead oyster-shells, from which organic life of every kind has been destroyed by long exposure to wind and sun. Dead oyster-shells are picked up in inexhaustible quantities from the south of the Nore Lightship. How such enormous supplies of oysters came to be collected in that part of the sea is not known.

The oyster is almost entirely a vegetarian, living on small fragments of sea-weed and the minute pine pollen of the water. When it wants to eat, it opens its shell and lets the water flow in through a sort of gill that detains the food, but lets the water out.

The best-known oyster-fisheries in England are at Colchester and along the mouth of the Thames. The oysters bred in these situations are known as "natives," and are remarkable for the thinness of their shells and the flavour and size of the contents. They are picked up for the table after they are six or seven years old. The oystermen who prepared the bed take note of their age and watch their growth.

VI. THE PORT OF BRISTOL.

Bristol is situated on the Lower Avon, about 8 miles inland from where the river named enters the estuary of the Severn. The Avon winds through the city, and forms the boundary between Gloucestershire and Somersetshire. The city struck the eye of Pope as having its streets full of ships. The river is noted for its high tides, the rise varying from 24 to 40 feet even at Bristol.

The port has a great history. For centuries second only to London in wealth and influence. From Bristol sailed Sebastian Cabot, who in 1497 discovered that portion of America now called the United States. A Bristol privateer brought home Juan Fernandez, the real Robinson Crusoe. It was Bristol that established the first regular steam communication with United States and West Indies. It had a great trade in sugar, and formerly in slaves.

With the rise of Liverpool as the nearest outlet for the great cotton industry of Manchester and other northern towns, Bristol made no advance as a trade centre. Another cause of decline was the tortuous channel of the Avon between Bristol and the Severn estuary.

In 1884 the Corporation purchased the Avonmouth dock, constructed, not up the river, but at the sea-entrance to the port. The dock-gates were then enlarged so as to admit vessels of 2000 tons burden. This led to a doubling of the trade.

A much more useful step was taken in March 1902, when the first sod of the new Avonmouth dock (called King Edward VII. dock) was turned by the Prince of Wales for the new basin. This dock admits ocean-going steamers of 20,000 tons, and is furnished with colossal grain-elevators on the American model, and with the best cold storage accommodation.

The port of Bristol is adapted by its geographical position to be a great centre of trade and distribution. On one side it offers the shortest route from the Midlands, with which it is connected by the Midland Railway. On the other side the Severn tunnel places the town in touch with the industrial field of South Wales. Ocean liners going out west from Bristol have two or three hours' start of those going from Liverpool or Southampton.

Bristol has recently developed a banana trade with the West Indies, in which the cultivation of sugar-cane, once very prosperous, has declined, owing to the importation into England of bounty-fed beet-sugar from Germany, France, Russia, and other countries of Europe. The abolition of such bounties may revive the trade of Bristol in cane-sugar.

The town of Bristol has important industries of its own,—in shoes, chocolate, cocoa, soap, cotton, and stays. All these help to increase the trade of the port.

VII. THE PEACOCK.

One of the few birds equally celebrated in East and West. Indigenous to India and Ceylon; but well known in Europe, and much prized for its beauty in England,

It must have been known to the Greeks at a very early age; for in Greek mythology it is sacred to Héré, the queen of Olympus, and wife of Zeus (Jupiter). It became better known to the Greeks through the conquests of Alexander the Great.

The bird has not easily yielded to domestication in England. Never kept in the poultry-yard, but prized as an ornament to the pleasure-ground or shrubbery. Remarkable for the perfect symmetry of its form, handsome crest, graceful neck, proud strut, and beautiful design of colours on its expanded tail.

In India it may be seen near some rural temple, where it is fed and taken care of as if it were sacred. More commonly, however, seen in its wild state. Reputed to be a great enemy of snakes, and hence called "snake-eater." Must not be killed or shot by a Hindoo. Plumes of the tail are hung up in houses to avert evil.

Tail of a peacock formed not by the rectrices or true tail-feathers, but by a singular development of the upper tail-coverts, *i.e.* the feathers covering the basis of the tail. The mass of tail-coverts overlies and far overreaches the tail itself. The gorgeous train is marked with glittering *ocelli* or eyes; the colours chiefly green and gold. The tail-feathers proper are chestnut: the neck and breast are of a rich tint called "peacock-blue." The brilliancy of its colours has been developed by the bright sun of India and Ceylon.

The bird is now regarded as the symbol of vain-glory: "proud as a peacock." Hence probably the surnames "Peacock" and "Pocock." The *pea* was spelt in Chaucer as *po*, A.S. *pawe*, Latin *pavo*.

Has a very harsh note. According to an Italian proverb, "He hath the plumage of an angel, the voice of a devil, and the belly of a thief."

VIII. MANCHESTER SHIP-CANAL.

(*Encyclopædia Britannica*, 10th ed. CANAL.)

We distinguish between canals which join one sea to another, as the Suez Canal, which joins the Red Sea to the Mediterranean, and those which furnish an artificial waterway for conveying ships to some inland town. The Manchester Ship-Canal is of the latter class.

Manchester had long been connected with Liverpool by a railway. But the trade of Manchester was injured by the high railway rates and by the heavy charges at the Liverpool docks. There was an old canal from the Mersey to Manchester, which could be navigated only by barges carrying fifty tons. So a ship-canal was considered necessary to the prosperity of the city.

The canal was commenced in November 1887. Total length, 35½ miles. First section of the route rather circuitous. Commences at Eastham on the Cheshire side of the Mersey, a few miles south of Birkenhead. From Eastham it winds along the southern fringe of the Mersey estuary as far as Runcorn, after crossing the river Weaver near its mouth. The next section is from Runcorn to

Latchford, in a line almost straight. The third and last section is from Latchford to Manchester, through the valleys of the Mersey and Irwell; but as these rivers take circuitous courses, only very small portions could be utilised in forming the canal. A wide and deep canal, nearly straight, has thus been substituted for winding rivers, shallow, narrow, and almost useless.

The canal is virtually one long dock. At various points wharves and warehouses have been erected for various manufacturing works. Along the canal a large trade is carried on not only in raw cotton and piece goods, but in chemicals, Staffordshire potteries, coal from Yorkshire and Lancashire, petroleum, cold-air meat stores, etc. At Manchester itself the docks cover an area of 104 acres, and there is quay space of 152 acres, having over 5 miles of frontage to the docks.

Two railway companies—the London and North-Western, and the Lancashire and Yorkshire—have made branch lines, with sidings, to the canal docks. There are several smaller inland canals in direct communication with these docks.

The minimum depth of the canal is 26 feet. The lock sills are placed two feet lower, to allow of the canal being deepened if necessary. The minimum width at the bottom is 120 feet, so that large vessels can pass each other at any point. Three entrance locks have been provided at Eastham. These locks maintain the water-level in the canal to that of high tide.

The construction of the canal, including parliamentary expenses, purchase of the land, and all contingent charges, cost over £15,000,000.

The traffic on the canal increased from 925,659 tons in 1894 to 2,778,108 tons in 1899. So it nearly trebled itself in five years.

Before the construction of the canal large works had left Manchester and transferred themselves to other ports, such as Glasgow, where the cost of inland carriage was saved. All this has now ceased. New industries have been started at Manchester and along the canal route; deserted warehouses and mills have been reoccupied; 10,000 new houses have been built for the housing of workmen required to meet the increased trade.

IX. COAL.

Coal is the generic name given to a black or dark-coloured stratified mineral, combustible, consisting mainly of carbon, but also containing some volatile matter which has been called bitumen. Besides the two elements named there is always some earthy matter in coal; after combustion this is left behind in the form of ash. The quantity of ash varies considerably: the less the ash, the better the coal.

Origin of coal.—A stratum or seam of coal is a buried forest, which after the lapse of thousands of years has been converted into a brittle kind of substance that looks like natural rock. The shapes of leaves and woody tissue can frequently be detected.

The conditions most favourable to the production of coal are—(1) a thick forest-growth in swampy ground about the mouths of rivers, (2) rapid depressions of level. During the first subsidence a forest-growth is covered with a sediment of earthy matter brought down by the river, and thus the first layer of coal is formed. This sediment

forms the soil for a fresh forest-growth, which subsides in its turn and forms a fresh layer of coal, and so on. Hence coal is often found in a succession of strata or layers, one over another. The layers may vary very much in depth and in the quality of coal, and there may be much difference in the depth of the intervening soil. The quality of the coal depends partly on the quality of the forest or vegetable matter out of which it was formed, and partly upon the length of time that has passed since the forest was covered with earth.

In coal-mining a central shaft is opened that cuts through as many layers as may happen to be found. A side-passage is cut into each layer that is met with. The layer, when it is opened for excavation, is called a gallery.

Kinds of coal :—

(1) Anthracite or “stone coal.”—This is coal of the *oldest* formation. It is the hardest and driest, and throws out the greatest heat. Has an iridescent lustre. Contains carbon to the extent of 90 or 95 per cent of its entire mass ; hence the amount of bituminous or volatile matter is very small. Emits scarcely any flame when burnt, and no smoke. Especially useful for drying hops and malt. Much used in air and blast furnaces requiring a high temperature.

(2) Semi-anthracite.—Such is the character of the coal of South Wales. Contains rather more bitumen than anthracite proper does, and, being more easily lighted, is more generally useful. Especially valuable for marine steam-boilers : throws out intense heat with very little smoke. Foreign nations buy it up as fast as they can for their navies ; and the English Government is foolish enough to allow it to be sold to any amount.

(3) Bituminous coals.—These contain various amounts of bitumen exceeding that in Welsh coal ; the amount of carbon is proportionately less. These are the coals in commonest use as fuel in private houses or in factories. There is one kind called Cannel or Candle coal found in Lancashire ; so called because it gives a very bright flame. Contains a great deal of bitumen, and hence chiefly utilised for the extraction of gas. Not of much value as fuel.

(4) Lignite, or brown coal.—This is coal of the *most recent* formation. It is in fact imperfectly formed coal, in which the original form of the wood (*lignum*) can be easily recognised by the naked eye. Stands midway between coal and wood. The proportion of carbon is comparatively low, usually not exceeding 70 per cent. Lignite is found in large quantities in the great central prairie of Canada.

Uses of coal.—All the forests of the earth could not supply the amount of fuel required for bodily warmth in cold countries and for the working of machine-engines. Metals are never found in a pure state ; and the pure metal cannot be separated from the dross without the heat that is furnished by ignited coal. Iron cannot be beaten into shape for tools, weapons, ploughshares, etc., until it has been softened by fire. Steam-engines of all kinds,—for paper-mills, cotton-mills, railways, ships at sea, etc., are all worked by the heat that comes from coal. From coal are extracted gas and tar,—both in constant use. The uses of coal are too many to be enumerated in full.

X. THE WOLF.

The wolf belongs to the genus called *Canidæ*, the "dog-like animals." The four best-known species of this tribe are the wolf, the jackal, the fox, and the dog. The dog, through domestication, has been carried to all countries and continents, and is now the most widely extended member of the tribe. The wolf too is spread over a very wide area,—nearly the whole of Europe and Asia, and North America from Greenland to Mexico. In South America and Africa the place of the wolf is taken by various kinds of jackals and foxes.

Owing to differences of climate and temperature the wolf presents some diversities of size, fur, and colour. But the general structure of all wolves is the same. Everywhere it is ferocious and destructive, the enemy of man and beast.

The wolf of Europe is tall, gaunt, and long-limbed. When full-grown, it measures about $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet from nose to tail-tip; height at the shoulder about $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet. Is covered with thick fur of grey, mingled with fawn and black. The inside of the legs is lighter in colour, and hence the Norsemen called it "grey-legs." Has immensely powerful jaws, and when it has taken hold continues snapping, instead of gripping as the dog does. Savage, but not courageous; for, when caught in a trap, becomes very penitent. Afflicted with a perpetual hunger; its life in fact is a continual compromise between hunger and fear. Hunts in packs. A sick or wounded wolf is devoured by its pack-mates.

Has played an important part in mythology and legend. Odin, the Saxon war-god, was accompanied by two wolves. Romulus and Remus, the legendary founders of Rome, were said to have been suckled by a she-wolf. Necklaces of the teeth of wolves have been worn as charms against being attacked by wolves.

Wolves do not lie in ambush for their prey, then steal up to it, and spring upon it, as the cat tribe do, but run it down in open chase. Horses, sheep, cattle are among their favourite victims. Animals closely allied to the wolf,—the domestic dog and the fox,—are readily devoured. The long-drawn howl of the wolf is the terror of the sledge-traveller across a Russian steppe in winter.

In the British Isles the wolf has been extinct for the last four hundred years. The fossil remains discovered in almost every county show that the wolf in Britain was in all respects the same as that still frequenting the continent of Europe. Henry III. gave grants of land to men who destroyed wolves. Wolves became extinct in England in the reign of Henry VII. (1485-1509), their last retreat having been in the desolate wolds of Yorkshire. In Scotland the wolf remained much longer, as late as 1680, if we are to believe the story of the last wolf having been killed by Sir E. Cameron of Lochiel in that year. In 1577 an Act of the Scottish Parliament ordered a wolf-hunt in each barony four times a year.

England owes her release from the wolf, as she owes many other blessings, to her insular position. France is still harassed by them; for there is no sea-barrier to prevent their inroads from Germany and Russia. Rewards for their destruction are offered by the Government.

In India the wolf is not uncommon in the open country, but rare in the wooded districts. Their favourite prey is the sheep or the jackal. Children are carried off and devoured. But stories are current in India of babes being suckled by she-wolves. The Indian wolf has a dingy, reddish-white fur, with some of the hairs tipped with black. A black wolf is found in Thibet.

The wolf is not found in Ceylon, Burmah, or Siam.

In North America there is a distinct smaller species, called the coyote or prairie wolf. It is about as large as a pointer dog, with bushy tail, pointed ears, and rather sharp nose. Colour very much the same as that of the Indian wolf. Noted for its monotonous and reiterated howling at night. It hunts in packs like the wolf in Europe and Asia.

Wherever civilisation advances, the wolf dwindles. Men are bent on exterminating it: and it seems probable that this savage and useless animal will some day become extinct. No one is likely to miss it.

XI. PEARLS AND PEARL-FISHERIES.

The substance of a pearl is the same as that which lines the interior of many shells, and is called "mother-of-pearl." But only a few molluscs produce the pearl itself. The best pearls are produced in the mollusc called the pearl-oyster, found only in marine waters and in tropical or semi-tropical latitudes. There is a river-pearl produced by fresh-water mussels in the mountain streams of temperate climates, as in Scotland, Wales, Ireland, Northern Europe, and Canada. But they are of less value.

The forming of a pearl is an abnormal or morbid process similar to that by which any foreign body, as a bullet, may become encysted in animal tissues, till it ceases to cause further irritation. It is believed that pearls are formed by some minute foreign particle coming in between the mantle of the oyster and its shell; and that the irritation thus produced causes the oyster to secrete nacreous or pearly matter in concentric layers until no more irritation is felt. The Persians believed that pearls were caused by a rain-drop falling in between the valves of an oyster shell.

The value of a pearl depends on its having a perfect form (spherical, pea-shaped, or oval), a perfect "skin" (free from speck or flaw), and a fine "orient" or lustre, *i.e.* of a clear, almost transparent, white colour and a slightly iridescent sheen. Pink, purple, yellow, and black pearls are also found, but are less valued than the white.

The form of the pearl cannot be perfectly spherical, unless it has been secreted in the soft tissues of the mollusc. It loses shape if it becomes attached to the interior of the shell; one side thus becomes flat and the other spherical.

In ancient times the pearl-oysters were obtained along the coast of the Red Sea, especially in the neighbourhood of Jiddah; in the Persian Gulf; in the Gulf of Manaar (Ceylon); and along the Tinnivelly coast of Southern India. At the present time they are also procured from the Sulu seas; the western, northern, and eastern coasts of tropical Australia; the shores of Central America; and some of the South Pacific Islands. It is thus in the tropical seas

that the pearl-oyster is obtained, and the men employed in diving for them are mainly of the dark-skinned races.

In Ceylon and Southern India the pearl-fishing is carried on in the following way:—

It commences in the month of March, and ends about the beginning of May. The Singalese perform various ceremonies before setting out in their boats. They always leave the shore at night, so as to be at the pearl bank before sunrise. Each boat carries twenty persons, together with a pilot. Ten men do the diving; the other ten assist the divers to reascend. Five go down at a time; the other five remain in the boat to recruit themselves for a fresh plunge. Each man, when he dives, has a heavy stone attached to his body to keep him down. He picks up the oysters with his toes, and puts them in a basket or bag tied round his waist. He remains under water one or two minutes, sometimes more; then by means of the rope he makes a signal to be hauled up. Divers will sometimes make forty or fifty plunges a day, and at each plunge bring up about a hundred oysters.

Their great enemy is the shark. Against this danger the divers rely mainly upon supernatural means—the ceremonies performed by themselves, and those performed by magicians before and during their absence. The magicians receive one-fourth of the oysters as a fee.

The oysters are buried in squares about two feet deep, with a mat spread under them. There they are left to rot. When the shell can be opened without difficulty, it is minutely examined to see if it contains a pearl. The magicians are paid in oysters, and run their chance of getting any pearls.

XII. SILK AND THE SILKWORM.

The silkworm was originally a native of China, the Chinese name being *si* (sounded as *see*). From China it passed into India, and through India to Persia, Asia Minor, Greece, Italy, Spain, and the south of France. It thrives best in moderate warmth; England and Northern Europe are too cold; India (for the best kinds) is rather too hot. The Greeks called it *sēr*, and the thread *serik-on*, hence Latin *seric-um*, and English *silk*. The Greek name for the Chinese was "Sēres," the people of the silkworm. The art of rearing silkworms is called sericulture.

The silkworm is the larva or caterpillar formed out of the egg of a white or cream-coloured moth, whose body (in the male) is not half an inch in length. In other insects we think more of the fly, moth, or butterfly that produces the eggs than of the worm or caterpillar formed from the eggs. In the bee, for example, we think only of the wonderful fly which makes honey. But in the silkworm we think only of the worm or caterpillar that produces the silk, and take no notice of the insignificant moth.

Each moth produces about 200 eggs. After a few days the eggs are hatched. The worm at first is not more than a quarter of an inch long, and is of a black colour. Each worm has sixteen legs and fourteen eyes, seven on each side of its head. It feeds voraciously

on leaf, and rapidly expands. Bursts four skins before it reaches full size: the first skin on the sixth, the second on the tenth, the third on the fifteenth, and the fourth on the twenty-third day after hatching. Feeds voraciously in its last skin for about ten days, when at last it ceases to expand, having by this time reached a length of nearly three inches. Then its appetite subsides.

The leaf on which it fattens is that of the mulberry. This tree and the silkworm appear to have been made for each other. Hence the silkworm is called in science "*Bombyx Mori*," the spinner of the mulberry. It consumes 6 lbs. of picked leaf in its first stage, 18 lbs. in the second, 60 lbs. in the third, 180 lbs. in the fourth, and 1098 lbs. in the final,—total, 1362 lbs. of mulberry leaf.

When the appetite has subsided, the swollen caterpillar shows signs of uneasiness, as if it wished to retire into some nook. Sericulturists take care to give it what it wants. It is preparing to spin.

The ball of fibre spun by the worm around its body is called a cocoon,—oval-shaped. The loose outer threads first thrown out are called floss-silk. Within this the finer thread is spun round and round, until the cocoon is completed. The finer thread is all in one unbroken fibre, which emerges from two small holes under the jaw of the worm.

The worm having discharged all its thread casts its last skin,—the fourth, but never reappears as a worm. It now assumes the form of a chrysalis, in which form it remains (apparently lifeless) for two or three weeks, enshrouded in the cocoon.

If it is allowed the chance, the perfect moth emerges, to fly in the air for a short season, lay its eggs, and die. But few are allowed the chance. The rest are placed in an oven hot enough to destroy the chrysalis, but not so hot as to injure the silk. If the chrysalis is not thus destroyed, the silk thread is damaged by the liquid, which the moth throws out in forcing an opening through the cocoon.

The best thread is reeled off on a bobbin. From a single cocoon the amount reeled is sometimes 600 yards or more in length. To obtain one pound's weight of such silk upwards of 2000 cocoons are required. This is called the "raw silk." Being too fine for ordinary use it is twisted and doubled into a stronger yarn.

The floss or loose outer fibres of the cocoon, together with any waste from the twining of the reeled silk, are cleaned and spun into yarn. This is called spun silk. It lacks the smoothness, brilliance, and strength of the raw silk yarn, and sells at a lower price.

Silk manufacture was first introduced into England in the reign of Henry VI. It first became an important industry in 1585, when a body of Flemish weavers settled in London to escape the tyranny of Spain. A fresh impulse was given to silk manufacture one hundred years later, when French Protestant weavers (owing to the revocation of the Edict of Nantes) settled in Spitalfields. The yarn used was imported; for the rearing of the silkworm never answered either in England or Ireland. Silk manufacture in England has declined since 1860, the year of the French treaty; but we still import from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 lbs. of raw silk for home manufacture.

XIII. THE WHALE AND ITS PRODUCTS.

The whale is no more a fish than a cow is. It is a mammal which has to some extent acquired the appearance and the habits of a fish. It differs from a fish in all essential points:—breathes by lungs, and not by gills; has a smooth skin with a few short bristles about the chin, while fish have scales; has warm blood, while fish have cold; produces its young alive, while fish produce eggs; gives milk to its young, while fish do not.

The fore-limbs, that take the place and have some of the appearance of fins, contain the bones, joints, muscles, nerves, and arteries of the human arm and hand, all concealed under a smooth outer skin: with this arm a cow-whale can take hold of her calf or cub when she anticipates danger. The rudiments of hind-legs are found buried deep in the animal's body. It has developed a fish-like tail; but the tail is horizontal, not vertical. It is by means of this tail that the whale moves itself through the water. The tail is immensely powerful.

A whale, though it breathes air as other beasts do, can remain under water for an hour without taking fresh breath. It then comes to the surface and takes in as much air as it can.

When it wants food, it opens its jaws and dives down through a shoal of small fish or ocean-snails: the water flows out again through holes in the sides of the mouth, but the fish and snails remain. The whale's gullet is only about four inches wide; the animal would be choked by a penny loaf.

The head is very long and thick, the upper jaw usually much thicker than the lower. The eyes are no bigger than an ox's; and each eye stands near the far end of the jaw. The ears are very small, but sufficiently active, since sound is carried through water more easily than through air.

The colour of the whale varies from black to white in various parts of the body. It is black along the upper part, the so-called fins, and the tail; white along the stomach and lower jaw; grey in the intermediate parts.

There are two main classes of whales: I. The Toothless (*Mystacoceti*), and II. The Toothed (*Odontoceti*). The point of the distinction will be best seen from the products of the whale, which are three in number.

(1) Whalebone.—The name is misleading; for it is not bone at all. It is utterly unlike bone. It is fibrous, because it can be torn into parallel shreds or fibres; it is flexible, it is tough, it is elastic. A bone is none of these things.

The proper name is baleen. It is found in the mouth of whales of Class I. These whales have no teeth, but they have, on either side of the tongue, a row of about 300 plates of baleen which project from the upper jawbone towards the lower. The length of the longest blades is from 10 to 12 feet. The lower jaw has no baleen plates. This is the largest of all whales, and lives in the icy seas of the northern and southern hemispheres. Its length is sometimes 50 feet or more.

Uses of whalebone.—From it are made women's stays and corsets,

whips, knobs for walking-sticks. Sometimes coarse brushes are made of the fibre.

(2) Spermaceti.—Produced in the enormous skull of the sperm-whale. This is the toothed whale of Class II. It has a row of teeth in the lower jaw, but no baleen-plates in the upper. The head of a full-grown sperm-whale weighs about thirty-five tons, and will yield forty-five barrels of spermaceti oil. After being boiled and cooled, this oil throws off a wax-like substance,—the spermaceti, out of which candles are made. The oil, too, is valuable.

This whale (also known as Cachalot) frequents almost all the tropical and subtropical seas.

(3) Train-oil.—What is it that enables the whale, although a mammal with warm blood, to live perpetually in water, and even in the icy seas? It has no warm coat or fur, like many mammals on land. But it has its body enveloped in a thick layer of fat, varying from 8 to 20 inches in thickness, immediately under the skin. So it never feels cold, however cold the sea may be.

Out of this blubber, the whale-oil of commerce, usually known as train-oil, is extracted. All kinds of whales have blubber. Oil is also extracted from the tongue. A large whale will yield as much as 200 barrels of oil.

The flesh of the whale is eaten by the Arctic tribes. The same people drink the oil, when they can get it, for warmth.

XIV. WHALE-FISHING.

(*Encyclopædia Britannica*, 9th edit. vol. 24, p. 526.)

How is it that such a huge beast, capable of plunging down to any depth in the ocean, can be captured by men? Because it is a mammal, and being a mammal must come up at intervals to take breath. Constantly pursued and wounded, the poor thing, unable to dive any more, dies at last from loss of blood.

A ship sets out, fitted for a long voyage, but bound to no port. It is a vessel of about 400 or 500 tons register; provided with engines of some 75 horse-power; built after the strongest fashion, and strengthened outside by plates of iron. It carries eight whale-boats, and is manned by not less than fifty or sixty sailors. It is provided with apparatus for draining the blubber and boiling the oil, and with barrels to receive the oil. Such a ship is called a whaler.

The whale-boat.—Such a boat is 27 feet long, 6 feet broad, and 2½ feet deep. The bow is planked for a few feet. On the platform are two upright fixtures,—the first holding the harpoon-gun and the second the pulley, on which the whale-line glides. Every boat is manned by five oarsmen and a steerer. The bow-oar acts as harpoon-gunner; the stroke as line-manager.

The harpoon.—A kind of spear or javelin: consists of a long shank, with a broad, flat, triangular head, sharpened at both edges. The two sides of the head are continued backwards, so as to form what in an arrow is called the barb. Thus the head of the harpoon is so shaped that it easily enters the flesh of the whale, but, when once in, is not easily drawn out. The gun-harpoon (the harpoon dis-

charged by the gun) measures 4 feet in length and weighs 12 lbs. The hand-harpoons are much lighter.

The seamen cruise about till a whale is sighted. The sighting is much assisted by the whale "spouting." On the top of its head there is a blowhole or spiracle. If expiration commences before the spiracle has reached the surface, a certain quantity of water or spray is driven up with the violent current of the expelled air. (This has nothing to do with the straining off by side-holes or nostrils of the sea water which the whale takes into its mouth with its food.)

As soon as the whale is sighted, the boats are lowered, and the whale is approached as cautiously as possible from behind. The gun-harpoon is first discharged. If it takes effect, the whale dives down almost perpendicularly to a great depth, taking the harpoon and the rope with it. When it comes up again for breath, other boats come round, and hand-harpoons are hurled into it. At last, after taking several dives, it rolls over to one side and dies of loss of blood.

This is called whale-fishing; but it is really whale-hunting.

The boats then come round the carcass and tow it to the ship, when it is lashed to the ship lengthwise. The carcass is made to rotate by machinery, and the blubber is removed in large slips from different parts of the body as they appear above water. The men stand upon the carcass, hacking into the blubber with sharp spades, as if they were digging into clay. The blubber is afterwards chopped up into small pieces, and stowed away between the decks.

If the whale is a sperm-whale, the sailors stand on its skull, and cut a broad deep hole in it. They then bale out the liquid as fast as they can in buckets, as if they were baling water out of a tank. There is sometimes enough oil to fill forty-five barrels.

If the whale is of the toothless class, the whalebone is removed from each side of the upper jaw as it appears above water in one mass. The separation of the baleen or whalebone into plates is performed subsequently.

When everything valuable has been taken from the body of the whale, the ship returns with its booty to land.

XV. COCOA.

(Murché's *Object Lessons in Elementary Science*, vol. iii. p. 93.)

There is no connection whatever between cocoa (more properly spelt *cacao*, the Mexican name) and the cocoa-nut. The latter is the fruit of a palm; whereas cocoa is a bean contained in the pod of a tree that looks rather like a cherry-tree.

In its natural state the cocoa-tree will grow to a height of about 30 feet. In cultivated plantations it is kept down to 15 or 18 feet by pruning. It bears better at this height, and the fruit is more easily gathered. Its original home, so far as we know, was South Mexico; but it grows anywhere within 15th or 20th parallels of latitude, provided the elevation does not exceed 2000 feet. It likes a humid atmosphere and a fertile, well-watered soil; it must not be exposed to cold or rough winds.

Cultivated in most of the West Indian Islands, as well as in the

mainland of America. Has been introduced into the corresponding latitudes of Asia and Africa; but here the industry has not been pushed as in America. The trees begin to bear a little in the fourth or fifth year, but do not reach their prime till the eighth year, after which they will continue bearing for thirty or forty years.

The tree is an evergreen, with a rather straight and slender trunk, and pointed, glossy leaves. One peculiarity of the tree is that it discards all observance of times and seasons. It bears at the same time bud, leaves, flower, and fruit. The flower is of a reddish-yellow colour, and without scent.

The pod.—By far the most important product of the tree is the pod or capsule that comes after the flower and contains the bean. The pod is a hard, tough, woody case, smooth on the outside, shaped something like a cucumber, and, till it is ripe, of the same colour. As it ripens, it turns red. The pod is divided lengthwise into five compartments or cells, which are separated from one another by thin woody partitions springing from a central core. In each cell or compartment there is a row of from five to ten seeds closely packed together in a line. Thus each pod contains from twenty to forty seeds. These seeds are the cocoa-beans which we use for food and drink. The pod is not gathered till it is ripe. It is known to be ripe, if the seeds or beans begin to rattle when the pod is shaken. In all months of the year there are some ripe pods on the tree, but the principal seasons of gathering are June and December.

There are four different preparations of the cocoa-bean:—

(1) Cocoa-nibs.—The first thing to be done with the beans is to make them ferment a little by placing them in a hot sun under a heap of green leaves, or by burying them in the ground for about two days. (The object of the fermentation is to take away a bitter taste from the beans, and keep them from turning musty.) Then they are spread out to the sun to dry. Then they are roasted in revolving metal cylinders, and bruised in order to loosen the skins, which are finally removed by winnowing. Then they are broken up into smaller pieces. These broken pieces are called cocoa-nibs, out of which, by dint of long soaking and boiling, a beverage is prepared.

(2) Flaked cocoa.—This is prepared by grinding the nibs to a very fine powder, which, with the oil contained in the bean, makes a paste, rolling the paste into thin sheets, and then allowing it to dry and harden.

(3) Soluble cocoa.—The oil (which to some consumers is hard to digest) is extracted. Then the beans are ground into a fine powder, and starch is thrown in. This kind of cocoa thickens, when boiling water is thrown upon it. It is really the starch, not the cocoa, that thickens. The degree of thickness depends on the amount of starch thrown in.

(4) Chocolate.—A paste is made as in soluble cocoa: sugar and other flavouring matter is added. This is moulded into sticks, cakes, balls, etc., and sold as a confectionery.

There is a great deal of nourishment in cocoa. The scientific name given to the tree is *Theobroma*, which means "the food of the gods."

XVI. THE COCOA-NUT PALM.

The produce of a trec, which, from its fruit, is called the cocoa-nut palm. This palm is found all over the tropics,—so widely scattered that its original home is not known. It grows best on the borders of the sea, where the soil is salty. The roots are sometimes washed by the sea-tide. A nut, if it falls into the sea, can be carried out water-tight to any distance. This explains why it is found in all the Polynesian islands scattered over the immense area of the South Pacific.

This tree rises to a height of 60 or 100 feet. The trunk is straight or nearly so, and has no leaves or branches. At intervals it has black rings, from which, as some say, the age of the tree can be calculated, one ring being formed every half year.

The leaves grow only on the top. Until the trec has ceased growing in height, they drop off every half year. They hang gracefully over the trunk. There are only twelve, or fifteen leaves to each trec; but each leaf is about 13 feet long. They are in shape something like a feather.

The tree bears white blossoms, which, seen at a distance, look like bunches of soft white wool.

The fruit grows in bunches under the leaves. It is a nut with a very hard shell. The shell is encased in an outer husk consisting of strong thick fibres.

Inside the nut is the kernel, which fits very closely against the shell and is about a quarter of an inch thick. Hence most of the interior is hollow. This hollow space is filled with a liquid called cocoa-nut milk.

A full-grown tree yields from eighty to a hundred nuts a year; and these, together with the trunks and leaves, are put to many different uses:—

(1) The trunk yields a timber used for building, furniture, and firewood. In European commerce it is called porcupine wood. It supplies beams and rafters for the light dwellings used by the natives of tropical countries.

(2) The leaves supply a thatch for these light dwellings, and mattings for the flooring; they are plaited into baskets, and into shades or umbrellas for protection against the sun.

(3) The shell of the nut is used as a cup or water-vessel. Before it is full grown, it can be used as a bowl for smoking-pipes.

(4) The husk that covers the shell is made into ropes of any size, brushes, and a very strong kind of matting.

(5) The kernel is put to various uses. It is an article of food for the common people, and the milk is a pleasant drink. A valuable oil, out of which candles are manufactured, is pressed out of the kernel. What remains of the kernel, after the oil is pressed out, is given as food to cattle and poultry, or can be used as manure. One thousand nuts will yield twenty-five gallons of oil. The same oil is used for making a soap, which forms a lather with sea-water. Dwellers in the tropics are fond of rubbing their bodies and their hair with cocoa-nut oil.

(6) The buds or unexpanded flower spathes furnish a juice out of

which "toddy" is extracted. This juice may be either boiled down to sugar, or it may be allowed to ferment and form the spirit called "arraek" or palm-wine.

In most parts of the tropical world the cocoa-nut tree grows wild. In Sumatra, Java, Ceylon, and south coasts of India, it is cultivated in groves. The ground is carefully prepared with soft mud from the beach and sea-weed. The palm begins to bear when it is about six years old.

XVII. INDIA—ITS PHYSICAL STRUCTURE, CLIMATE, AND SEASONS.

(a) *Physical Structure.*

India is partly continental and partly peninsular. It is a mistake to call India a peninsula, when more than half its area is shut up in the continent of Asia.

Continental India: its boundaries.—No country has its land-boundaries more clearly marked out by nature—on the north by the snowy crest of the Himalayas; on the west by the Sulaimán and Hála ranges; on the east by the Nága, Patkoí, and Barel ranges. The first separates India from Thibet and Central Asia, the second from Afghanistan and Baluchistan, the third from Upper Burma and the hill-tracts of Arakan. This area is sometimes called Northern India, sometimes also Hindustán.

Peninsular India: its boundaries.—This area commences from the head of the Arabian Sea on the west, and ends at the head of the Bay of Bengal on the east. Juts out into the Indian Ocean like a wedge, the two sides meeting at Cape Comorin. Cape Comorin is the vertex of the triangle. The base is a line nearly parallel with the Tropic of Cancer. This area has been called Dekhan, or the "South."

India, taken as a whole, is divided by nature into three great regions:—

I. The Himalayan region.—This includes the long line of mountainous country lying between the snowy crest and the base of the Himalayas. Length about 1500 miles. Width comparatively narrow, but more extended at the west than at the east. Here lie the independent, but protected, states of Bhután, Sikkim, Nepál, and Cashmere. At the eastern terminus (long. 95) a great river of Thibet makes a sudden bend round into India, and takes the name of Brahmaputra. At the western terminus (long. 75) a similar bend is taken by another Thibetan river, the Indus. The one flows into the Bay of Bengal, the other into the Arabian Sea.

II. The Great Northern Plain.—This plain contains the most densely inhabited provinces and most of the great cities of India. The greater part of the plain is well-watered and fertile, but a portion of it (Rajputana) is for the most part desert. This plain contains three great river-systems:—(1) The Indus, with its great affluent, the Sutlej, and four tributaries between them. (2) The Jumna and Ganges, with their numerous tributaries north and south, running mainly parallel with the Himalaya range. The watershed between the Sutlej and the Jumna is raised so little above the general level as

to be imperceptible. (3) The Brahamaputra, which unites with the Ganges as it approaches the Bay of Bengal.

III. The Southern Tableland.—A three-sided mountainous region of nearly the same outline as the coast-line of the peninsula;—the Vindhya mountains on the north, the Western Ghats on the west, and the Eastern on the east. The western range has a much higher level than the eastern, and hence the main rivers of the Dekkan flow into the Bay of Bengal. A few other rivers flow northward into the Ganges.

Besides the three great divisions described, there are seven smaller ones:—(1) the peninsula of Kathiawar, (2) the valley of the Narbada, with hills north and south, (3) the valley of the Tapti, with hills north and south, (4) the narrow strip of plain between the sea and the Western Gháts, (5) the broader strip between the sea and the Eastern Gháts, (6) the valley of Sylhet, with hills north and south, (7) the valley of Assam (noted for its tea), with hills north and south.

The isolation of India by means of its strong mountain-barriers has had three effects on the history of the country. (1) It kept India free of invasion for many hundreds of years. The only invasion recorded in ancient history is that by Alexander the Great. (2) It favoured the growth of a very singular form of society,—the minute subdivision of the people into a system of castes, of which the Brahman caste stands at the head. The growth of this system would have been disturbed by foreign conquest or invasion. (3) It gave India time and leisure to produce a religion—Buddhism, which, though it was extinguished by the Brahmans in India itself, has overspread Thibet, China, and the Indo-Chinese peninsula.

(b) *Climate and seasons.*

The alternation of the monsoons. The main factor in determining the climate and seasons of India is the alternation of the monsoons or “trade-winds” (winds that have a periodic *trend* or *trade*; no connection with trade in the sense of commerce). “Monsoon” is merely a corruption of Arabic *mausim*, “season.”

During the half year from April to October the north-east trade-wind receives a check, and with occasional interruptions an opposite wind blows an almost steady gale from the south-west. The collision of the two monsoons is often accompanied by violent storms, and sometimes by destructive cyclones, which occur chiefly in April or in October.

The south-west or “summer monsoon” (from April to October) is much the stronger of the two. In India it is often called “*the monsoon*,” the weaker current (the winter monsoon) being tacitly ignored.

It is the south-west monsoon which brings the annual rainfall and saves India from being a desert: and it is the mountains of India which intercept the rain-clouds in their annual flight from south to north and force them to shed their moisture on India.

The periodic alternation of the monsoon, assisted of course by the inclination of the earth’s axis in its orbit, produces three main seasons,—the temperate or cold (November, December, January, February); the hot and dry (March, April, May, and most of June); the

wet or rainy season in the remaining months. These three seasons are more marked in Northern than in Southern India. In the south the winters are warmer, and the rains come earlier and last longer.

What causes the setting back of the north-east monsoon, and draws the opposite current laden with moisture from the equatorial seas, is the intense heat accumulated by the soil of India during the hot and dry season. In that season India, especially in the plains and valleys, is one of the hottest countries in the world. The air of the equatorial seas, though decidedly hot, is cool in comparison. From natural causes, which are well known, wind blows from a cooler to a warmer region. Hence the south-west monsoon sets in.

The shape of the Indian peninsula divides the current of this summer monsoon into two main branches.

The western branch travels up the Arabian Sea and beats against the Western Gháts, which are high enough to intercept the rain-clouds, causing a very heavy fall on the windward side, and a much slighter one on the lee-side. The same branch runs inland up the valleys of the Nerbada and Tapti, and meets the hills of Central India, which receive a good deal of rain. Being opposed by no hills in Seinde, it passes over that province, leaving it rainless; but being met at last by the immense barrier of the Himalayas, it gives abundance of rain to Cashmir and a less abundant supply to the Punjab.

The eastern branch travels up the Bay of Bengal, leaving the Coromandel coast almost untouched, but beating violently against the upper part of the Bay of Bengal. Here it meets on its path the hill-tracts of Orissa, the Khási hills, and the Himalayas, and sheds a heavy rainfall on all the intervening country. The great Himalaya barrier, by not allowing it to travel northwards into high Asia, forces it to travel along the line of the Ganges valley, till it at last reaches the Punjab.

In the Punjab the two branches of the monsoon meet, but by this time both have been so weakened by the long distances traversed, that the Punjab gets less rain than any other province in Northern India.

The Coromandel coast (Madras) gets most of its rain in October, when the south-west monsoon is met by the north-east.

Agriculture has two seasons: (1) the temperate, when India will produce the same grains and vegetables that are grown in Europe; (2) the wet, when only tropical grains and vegetables flourish. In the dry and hot season nothing can be sown, and the earth cannot be ploughed.

XVIII. SUGAR-PRODUCING PLANTS.

(Murché's *Object Lessons in Elementary Science*, vol. iii. p. 282.)

The consumption of sugar in the United Kingdom is about 75 lbs. per head of the population. All this is imported in ships from various parts of the world, and produced from various different plants.

(1) Grape sugar.—A raisin is a ripe grape dried. Observe the white crystallised substance inside. This is sugar.

Such sugar is produced not only in grapes, but in currants, apples,

pears, plums, gooseberries, cherries,—in fact in all fruit which tastes sweet when it is ripe.

Very little sugar is extracted from such plants, because there is better economy and more pleasure in eating the fruit itself.

Similarly sugar could be extracted from potatoes, wheat, barley, rice, or sago. But it is much better economy to eat these as vegetables. They owe their nutritive property largely to the saccharine matter which they contain.

(2) Cane sugar.—The total yearly production of sugar from the sugar-cane is upwards of 5000 millions of pounds, and by far the greater part of this comes from British dominions, chiefly the East and West Indies.

The cane is a tall, thick, strong grass, full of sweet juice. In tropical countries it is often used as an article of food. A stalk is chopped up into small pieces, which are chewed by men, women, and children.

This plant was originally a native of the Old World, but was introduced into the New by the Spaniards in 1520.

(3) Beet sugar.—This is produced from the well-known root-vegetable called beetroot. There is one kind in particular that is cultivated especially for sugar. The saccharine matter makes up about one-eighth of its weight.

Beetroot is very widely grown for the sake of its sugar in France, Belgium, Russia, Germany, and other countries of Europe, but not in England, where it is grown only for food. Beet-sugar is now more extensively used than cane-sugar, and its large importation into Britain has done much injury to our West India colonies.

(4) Palm or date sugar.—The date-palm and many other palms, including the cocoa-nut tree, yield a sweet juice which, when boiled down, gives a brownish-coloured sugar called jaggery. It is from the top of the tree that the juice is chiefly drawn, and this by wounding the shoots of the flower and causing the juice to flow out. This sugar is largely produced by the people of India for home use. About 150,000 tons are produced annually.

(5) Maple sugar.—The maple tree is a native of North America, especially of Canada and the lake districts,—a large, handsome tree, attaining a height of from 60 to 80 feet.

The sap begins to rise in March, when parties of sugar-makers start for the forest. They make incisions into the trunks, and fit into the holes little pipes of elder shoots to assist the flow of the sap into the buckets. About 45,000,000 lbs. of this sugar are produced annually.

(6) Sorghum sugar.—Sorghum is a cane-like grass, with the stature and habits of the taller varieties of Indian corn or maize, but it has no ears or cobs. A native of China, and also of some parts of Africa, where it is largely used by the people. Now it is also grown largely in the United States, where it is chiefly used for making syrup. Hitherto it has not been found quite so useful for making sugar.

Sugar can also be extracted from the stalk of maize or Indian corn. But the stalk, when chopped up, is more valuable as a fodder for cattle, while sugar hardly repays the labour of extraction.

XIX. CORK.

The nature of cork is disclosed by the etymology of the word. "Cork" is from Latin "*cort-ex*," the bark of a tree. The interchange of *t* and *k* is common in word-formation. Thus "mate" (comrade) was in earlier English "make," Anglo-Saxon *maca*. "Apricot" was once spelt as "apricock." "Cork" then is merely another spelling of "cort" and means "bark."

The tree on which this particular kind of bark grows is found chiefly in Spain and Portugal, but also along the North African coast. It is a kind of evergreen oak (*Quercus Suber*).

It is only the outer layer of bark that is removed from the tree for the manufacture of cork. In removing it great care is taken not to injure the inner bark: for this would kill the tree. The outer layer, by annual additions from within, becomes a thick soft mass, compressible and elastic,—two of the properties on which its value depends.

The first stripping does not take place till the tree is fifteen or twenty years old. Even then the yield (called "virgin cork") is too tough and woody and too full of holes to be used as cork. It is very useful, however, for tanning leather, and for ornamenting rustic bowers or chairs in gardens.

The second barking is not made for another eight or ten years. The bark even then has not reached perfection, and the cork made from it is used as floats for nets, or for making lifebuoys, belts, or cork jackets.

The subsequent barkings are at similar intervals. By the time of the third barking the tree has reached perfection, and will go on flourishing and yielding bark for about 150 years. The removal of the outer layer of bark does the tree no harm whatever.

Stripping is carried out in July and August. Two cuts are made round the stem, one at the bottom of the trunk near the ground, the other near the top of the trunk, from which the main branches ramify. Lines are then cut into the trunk from top to bottom at intervals. The outer bark then begins to dry and detach itself from the inner. Men tap it gently all over with a hammer to loosen it, and then wedges are inserted at places. Eventually it is all picked off, or it drops off by itself.

The manufacture of the bark into cork is very simple. The outer surface is scraped and cleaned. The pieces, being slightly curved from the shape of the trunk, require to be flattened. This is done by first heating them over a gentle fire and then pressing them between two even surfaces. The heating process is useful in another way: it closes up the pores and gives more compactness to the material, rendering it more air-tight and water-tight. The older the tree, the fewer are the holes in the bark.

The main use of cork of the best quality is for forming bungs and stoppers to bottles and jars intended to hold liquids. Its compressibility, durability, elasticity, and almost complete imperviousness to air and water render it peculiarly useful for this purpose.

Another very valuable property is its lightness. This renders it peculiarly useful for life-belts, life-jackets, hat-linings, the soles of

shoes, pommels for saddles, cork legs, linings for cases to hold entomological collections.

What is called cork linoleum is made by throwing a mixture of boiled linseed oil and ground cork on a canvas foundation. This makes a good covering for floors, does not harbour dust, and is impervious to water.

XX. AUTUMN IN ENGLAND.

(*School World*, p. 401, October 1901.)

Autumn is the evening of the year, preceded by the noonday of summer, and followed by the night of winter. We can best describe this season by noticing the changes that are taking place in nature. October may be taken as the most typical of the three months; for September may be warm and genial, and November wintry.

(1) The withering and falling of the leaves. Most leaves before they fall undergo many changes of tint, and these give to the season a beauty all its own. The colour-changes are due to the drying up of the sap, which ceases to rise from the stem and fails to maintain the moisture of the leaf. The drying up of the sap causes the leaf to separate from the branch.

(2) With the falling of the leaf there is also a falling of the seeds. These do not all lie on the ground under the tree or bush. Some are carried away by the wind, others by birds, others by the feet of cattle or the boots of foot-passengers. They are thus scattered far and wide, to spring up again and renew the face of nature with returning spring.

(3) Many animals lay by their stores for the coming winter. Squirrels store nuts, field-mice grain, moles worms. The beehive is filled with honey, and the drones have all been massacred, while the wasp's nest is empty and only the queen wasp is left in hiding. Ant-hills are filled with seed.

(4) To many animals autumn is literally the evening of the year, when they prepare to go to sleep during the night of the winter and await the dawn of another spring. Chrysalids lie dormant in their quiet resting-places; snails with their shells sealed up in the nooks of walls; mason-bees make mud-nests within snail-shells whose tenants have died; frogs bury themselves in the mud of the pond; the hedgehog and dormouse retire into their holes; such few snakes as still remain disappear in the earth; the white grub lies quiescent in the centre of the oak-apple.

(5) The birds, that cannot endure the winter and are forced to migrate in late summer and autumn, have gone to the warmer south. But others, chiefly seabirds and waders, have come in their place. We are now visited by birds which have come from their colder breeding-places in the north, preferring the milder winter of Britain.

(6) The autumnal restlessness of migratory birds is paralleled by the aerial voyages, which a number of our little spiders take in autumn. They pass from field to field, and even across lakes and lochs, on silken parachutes of gossamer, which form sails for the breezes. One of the most impressive sights in autumn is the

multitude of threads and webs made conspicuous on hedgerow and heath by the morning dew that glistens in the sun.

For an object-lesson on autumn what is needed is a handful of leaves of vine, virginian creeper, bramble, and bird-cherry; a plate of autumn fruits; the nuts from one of the squirrels' many stores; a few dormant chrysalids, and some bunehes of oak-apples; a shelf of birds' nests whose tenants have crossed the seas; a skein of gossamer; and an empty wasp's nest. With such objects before us there is ample material for study and reflection.

125. Notes for Reflective Essays.—No attempt need be made to classify the kinds of subjects that may be brought under this heading. The following is a list of subjects to which notes have been appended:—

- I. True and False Imperialism.
- II. The Uses of Prosperity.
- III. The Oxford Scholarships founded by Ceeil Rhodes.
- IV. The Choice of a Candidate at Municipal Elections.
- V. The Shortening of Spae: its Causes and Effects.
- VI. Letter-writing: what it was and what it is.
- VII. The Influence of Shakespeare.
- VIII. What is a Gentleman?
- IX. Review of Historical Literature in the Victorian Age.
- X. Millionaires: are they a Benefit or a Danger to the Community?
- XI. Comparison of Misers and Millionaires.
- XII. Are Prose and Poetry inherently opposed?
- XIII. Speed and Commeree.
- XIV. Happiness among Rich and Poor.
- XV. The Attraction of Rank: its Causes and Effects.
- XVI. Pride in Ancient and Modern Times.
- XVII. The Force of Example.
- XVIII. National Character.
- XIX. Zeal: the Business side of Love.
- XX. Self-discipline.
- XXI. Serenity of Mind.
- XXII. Manners make the Man.
- XXIII. Judging of other Men.
- XXIV. The Exercise of Benevolence.
- XXV. The giving or taking of Advice.
- XXVI. Patriotism true and false.
- XXVII. Need of reform in English spelling.

I. TRUE AND FALSE IMPERIALISM.

(Partly based on *Spectator*, p. 716, 10th May 1902.)

There are two Imperialisms—one false; the other true; one built on material, the other on moral greatness. True imperialism does not consist in the expansion of the empire, but in the healthiness of

the centre and in the loyalty of the colonies and dependencies that gravitate round the centre.

If the empire is to stand and endure, it must in the last resort be founded not upon ships and soldiers, not upon swift cruisers and all-shattering guns, not upon blood and iron, but upon the character of the British people and upon the spirit that possesses them. The first and foremost care must be the betterment of ourselves at home, the betterment of all our people of every class. We are, and must remain, the heart of the empire. The sounder the heart, the sounder will be the members and the longer will the empire last.

How is the central character of the nation to be preserved? Firstly, by fostering the traditions of a great past and living worthily of them. Secondly, by improving the educational forces of the country. We must not only have schools where the pupils will learn to be successful, to make wealth rapidly, to become learned, and to cultivate their intellects, but schools where they will also learn to serve the right, to do that which is noble and avoid what is sordid and unworthy of a great people. Material prosperity will not last, unless the State is made up of good citizens; for without good citizens the heart of the empire will be of stone and will meet with the fate of all the empires of the past.

The Roman Empire fell; why? because it became corrupt at the centre. The noble traditions of the republic, by whose citizens the empire was won, were forgotten. It was the fresh blood brought in from the distant provinces which made the empire last as long as it did.

If we appeal to our own history, we shall find that what we have said is not a fine-spun theory, but a fact. Never was England more corrupt than in the days of Charles II. Did the empire flourish in those days? In those evil days we did not win, but we lost, provinces. In an hour of shame (1667) the Dutch came up the Thames and burnt three of our ships. The years of imperial retrogression were years in which we forgot our virtue and the better traditions of the past.

Look again at the end of the eighteenth century, when the hard materialism of the age was joined to an outburst of sensuality and profligacy,—the epoch typified by the political dishonesty of Charles James Fox and the Coalition Government of North. In that day the empire was almost at its lowest ebb. Never had the standard of public duty fallen so low, never had the empire been in such danger.

Another essential condition of true as distinguished from false imperialism is that the parent state shall consult the interests, the feelings, and legitimate aspirations of her colonies and provinces, and not tax or plunder them for her own benefit. Rome did this and fell to pieces. Spain did this and has lost everything. England, under the evil auspices of her ignorant and short-sighted king, George III., entered upon a similar kind of selfish policy with her American colonies, and lost them.

It is of no use to read history if its lessons are thrown away. Happily, England has profited by these lessons, and this is why her colonies have become a source of strength and imperial greatness.

II. THE USES OF PROSPERITY.

(*Spectator*, p. 558, 27th October 1900.)

The doctrine "Sweet are the uses of adversity" is a comfort to the miserable and the unfortunate. It teaches resignation and fortitude. It makes men disregard or despise the good things of this life and "set their affection on things above."

Yet a great deal of this praise of pain is traditional only, having come down from a less happy past or from monastic notions of self-inflicted suffering. In these days it is apt to produce a very rank type of hypocrisy; for though every one says that prosperity is a snare, every one is trying to be prosperous.

The effort to be prosperous tends, if widely diffused, to the general good of mankind. It stirs up industry, keeps the community awake, and leads men to appreciate and respect one another. The better qualities in human nature are likely to be stifled in an atmosphere of general misery and suffering.

A man who has been successful in the career of life either chosen by himself or imposed upon him by circumstances, is not placed under the spiritual temptation of discontent, jealousy, envy, or class-bitterness. He takes a more cheerful view of life. He is likely to have more charity, more pity, more consideration, more power of being sympathetic. On the other hand misfortune is apt to make a man sour, exacting, and self-absorbed.

It is not often that prosperity comes by accident. It comes of hard work, patience, watchfulness, clear-headedness, honesty, tact and temper in dealing with others. If such qualities are rewarded, as they should be, by success, it has a wholesome effect on the mind and character. Compare such a man with one who has been unfortunate through no fault of his own. One feels sorry for the latter; yet of the two the former is more likely to take a just and reasonable view of life and of what he owes to his fellow-men.

National prosperity like that of England need not be followed, as happened at Rome and as some have predicted for England, by national degeneracy. Prosperity need not be followed either by self-indulgence or by avarice. It tends rather to diminish greed, which among very poor races or classes often provokes to crime. There is less crime and a more widely spread philanthropy in England than elsewhere, because there is a wider spread of general prosperity.

III. THE OXFORD SCHOLARSHIPS FOUNDED BY CECIL RHODES.

(*Spectator*, p. 541, 12th April 1902.)

In the spring of 1902 died Mr. Cecil Rhodes, the great empire-builder of South Africa. He left by his will a large number of scholarships of £300 a year each, tenable for three years at Oxford. Two were allotted to each state or territory in the United States, two to each province in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, fifteen to Germany, and several more to South Africa.

He thus made Oxford, his old university, a kind of academic centre for the Teutonic race, and especially the Anglo-Saxon part of

it. He realised what Oxford had done for himself, and desired that the same influence should be utilised for the English-speaking world as a whole.

The last thing intended or desired by this bequest was to turn a number of lads, born elsewhere, into Englishmen, and make them less attached to their own country. If a residence at Oxford is likely to raise the character, one of its first effects will be to make the scholarship-holders not less, but more, attached to the land of their birth.

One of the things that students learn at Oxford is that man does not live by bread alone, or by the making of machinery, or by any exhibition of mere mechanical force, but by the cultivation of literary taste and the training of the intellectual faculties. They will become initiated into that spirit of criticism and research, which regards the power to learn and to originate as of higher value than the mere accumulation of fact,—an attitude well illustrated in the world of sport by those who value the game above the prize.

The teaching at Oxford is based upon the humanities. The thing denoted by this much used, but much misunderstood, word does not denote the classics—Latin and Greek. It signifies the theoretical basis of every form of learning as opposed to the practical part in daily use. Case-law is the practical side of the profession of lawyer; the principles of law are its humanities. Philosophy, history, the classics of all languages, whether ancient or modern,—these are the material; but the essence is the mental attitude, the spirit in which they are approached, the point of view from which they are looked at.

If there is much in the teaching, there is still more in the life. The young man on leaving Oxford goes out into the world with the strenuousness born of cultivated ambition, and the confidence which the contact and opposition of vigorous minds have given him. If he fails, he fails by himself and does not screech against fate. If he wins, he has learnt to value distinction at its proper worth and to keep his head cool.

The young men selected from all parts of the empire to reside at Oxford will carry back with them to the ends of the earth a local patriotism strengthened, not weakened. They will also carry back a love for English life and for English friends, and a genuine understanding of the mother-country.

IV. THE CHOICE OF A CANDIDATE AT MUNICIPAL ELECTIONS.

(*Spectator*, p. 231, 16th February 1901.)

Municipal elections should not be conducted on the lines of party politics. Local patriotism has nothing to do with national, still less with imperial, questions.

Some might say that such advice is both impracticable and unwise,—impracticable, because to one who has paid no attention to municipal affairs, but is interested in national questions, party politics may be the only means of knowing a candidate's ability or worth,—unwise, because no better test could exist.

The alleged impracticability is not admitted. A man can always

enquire amongst neighbours, who have kept their eyes and ears open to municipal matters, and who know the kind of man that is wanted.

The alleged un wisdom is equally baseless. A man's political prejudices have nothing to do with his fitness for municipal office. Even if they had, the candidates elected cannot be expected to do their work well, unless they are followed and criticised, blamed, or supported by an intelligent opinion on the part of the community which they represent. A man who has given proof of practical ability in any line of life is likely to be fit for municipal office, whatever views he may happen to hold about the affairs of the nation.

The London County Council, the largest and most important in the empire, is a good example of the dissociation of local from imperial or national politics. Most of its members (1902) are Conservative in imperial politics, but "Progressive" or radical in local ones. Many other such examples exist elsewhere.

If a man has no time or no inclination to mix himself up with local affairs, he is not obliged to vote at all, and it is better to abstain from voting than to vote upon a false issue. But if he is determined or persuaded to use his vote, yet disinclined to study local questions on his own account, he can be guided by the Rate-payers' Association, which exists in most boroughs for the very purpose of supplying information or helping to secure the return of suitable candidates.

The qualifications to be looked for in a candidate for office are that he possesses the necessary leisure, that he takes a genuine interest in the well-being of the locality, that he is a man of business-experience. The second of these is the most important of the three. It is the duty of the elector to find out such candidates, and not allow himself to be led away by any other consideration than that of securing the best man.

V. THE SHORTENING OF SPACE: ITS CAUSES AND EFFECTS.

The great work of the century last past is the shortening of space. Till the first quarter of that century was past nothing had been done. No one could travel faster than a man could run, or a horse gallop, or a ship sail. Napoleon when he invaded Italy could not cross the Alps with more speed or facility than Hannibal did some two thousand years before him. The world had been stationary in the matter of locomotion.

Now all is changed. The steamship crosses the water in much less than half the time that the sailing ship took. The steam locomotive traverses the earth at extraordinary speed. Not only countries, but continents have been spanned. Electricity (all the resources of which have not yet been explored) promises to make travelling still more rapid. The electric telegraph enables men to converse at immense distances apart, and almost at lightning speed. Even the cycle far outstrips the pace at which men can run, and it does so without taking away the rider's breath. A man mounted on a bicycle can outstrip in the long run a man mounted on a horse.

The effect might be called either the shrinkage or the expansion of the world. It is "skrinkago" in the sense that the world has

become apparently, though not actually, smaller. It is "expansion" in the sense that nations and individuals are no longer confined within the narrow area of their own country, but can open out into new channels of enterprise and extend their influence.

Now what is the effect? Is it wholly beneficial? or is there another side to the picture?

Of the benefits we need hardly speak. Knowledge is increased, the thoughts of men are widened. Nations understand or ought to understand each other better. The sense of remoteness disappears; experience is fuller. See *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, i. 1.

Another advantage is the development of trade. This opens up new sources of employment and promotes the general prosperity. Trade-relations tend to reduce the probability of war or to shorten its continuance. Another "hundred years' war" could not be.

But the effects are not all advantageous. Frequent and rapid travelling, known as "globe-trotting," distracts attention, and makes the observation of men and manners more cursory and more superficial. A globe-trotter takes a hurried tour through India by rail, and on his return sets up to be an authority on Indian subjects, of which in fact he has learnt nothing.

In some cases race-antipathy is accentuated by more frequent intercourse; for intercourse does not necessarily produce either friendship or respect. Increased intercourse from Europe has made the Chinese hate "the foreign devil" more than ever. No one dislikes a negro so much as an American does, who has seen most of him.

The higher races sometimes deteriorate through increased intercourse with the lower, or through living in unsuitable climates. A man born and bred in the backwoods of America among Red Indian tribes is likely to learn their ways. The mixture of blood which sometimes follows a foreign residence may produce an inferior type. An Englishman born and bred in India is apt to deteriorate through the effect of a climate not suited to his hereditary constitution.

VI. LETTER-WRITING: WHAT IT WAS AND WHAT IT IS.

There was a time when letter-writing was accounted a literary accomplishment. See, for instance, the letters of Cowper, Goldsmith, Horace Walpole, Miss Burney. Such letters take rank among the classics of English literature.

News-letters preceded newspapers. A man of rank or political influence, when he left the metropolis and returned to the country for a time, employed some professional letter-writer to keep him posted up in current politics and the news of the Court. It was not till after the Revolution of 1689 that printed newspapers began to supersede written news-letters.

The epistolary form was used in many branches of literature:—Descriptive, as in the *Paston Letters*, White's *Natural History of Selborne*, and in Lady Mary Montague's accounts of her travels and residence in the East; Reflective, as in Lord Chesterfield's *Letters to his Son*, Bolingbroke's letters on the *Study and Use of History*, Goldsmith's *Letters from a Citizen of the World*, Locke's *Letters on*

Toleration, Burke's *Letter on a Regicide Peace*; Fictional, as in Richardson's novels, all of which are told in the form of correspondence, Smollett's *Humphrey Clinker*, and Scott's *Redgauntlet*; Satirical, as in *Drapier's Letters* by Swift, and *Junius's Letters* by some unknown author.

Now all this is changed. The railway and the steamship have altered everything. The classic age of letter-writing is gone. Men took a great deal of pains over their private correspondence, when letters were slow in travelling and the postage was heavy. Letter-writing was then studied as an art (especially the art of concealing art); and it was brought to such perfection that the epistolary form was used, as we have seen, in general literature.

What was once a cherished art and solace is now for the most part looked upon as a burden, a weariness of the flesh. Business men and women have but little leisure for private correspondence. Amongst the leisured classes more time is given to outdoor amusements and to the calls of society. Since travelling has become so easy and cheap, people prefer visiting their friends to writing to them.

Though the leisured artistic product has become almost a thing of the past, letters are still a great source of comfort and happiness to friends or relatives separated by long distances. In this great empire of ours, most families become broken up; the tendency of the age is to scatter. The inventions which have produced this general dispersion have also provided that, if bodily separation there must be, there need be no separation of mind.

The daily letter-bag is now mostly filled with correspondence on business, hurried notes answering or giving invitations, post-cards. Love-letters have a place here and there.

The men most persecuted by correspondence are great writers. They are bombarded by strangers asking their opinion on questions, calling for explanations, suggesting new points of view, disputing their statements, etc.

Sometimes, however, an author receives letters which must be very gratifying; such was Goethe's letter to Carlyle. A letter of thanks or congratulation from a serious and competent student who signs his name is more gratifying than an unsigned review, however favourable.

VII. THE INFLUENCE OF SHAKESPEARE.

(Partly based on *Spectator*, p. 81, 19th January 1901.)

The great link that binds all parts of the British empire together is the possession of a common literature and a common language. A common religion, a common jurisprudence, and common traditions have not united the peoples of Western Europe—France, Spain, and Italy: the essential link is wanting.

We hear of Shakespeare being acted and Shakespeare societies being formed in our most distant colonies. A spiritual link is thus forged, stronger than any political links could be. The spirit of a great genius moves upon the face of the waters that divide the remote colonies from the motherland.

Whatever may be the fate of the empire, we feel sure that the pedestal of Shakespeare will stand. We do not feel quite the same confidence about his greatest contemporaries,—Bacon, Ben Jonson, or his greatest successors,—Milton, Wordsworth, Tennyson.

What then is the secret of Shakespeare's influence? Not the originality of his plots; for all his plots (with one single exception) are borrowed;—not the remodelling of the English drama; for this was the work of Marlowe, who wrote plays of a high order before Shakespeare did;—not the introduction of blank verse as the metre of dialogue; for this had been done already;—not the depth of his learning; for he consulted translations whenever he could, in preference to the originals, and many of his classical allusions are wrong. (His geography is sometimes at fault. He gives Bohemia a sea-coast, and makes Milan a seaport.)

The main secret of his influence lies in his humanity,—his extraordinary susceptibility to every phase of human feeling in all ranks of life, his prodigious faculty of assimilation, his power of identifying himself with the characters that he portrays. This was the genius born in him: a similar genius, though not of so wide a range, was born in Dickens. He enters into the terrible remorse, yet stern unyielding courage, of Macbeth, as truly as into the humble piety of Henry VI. Nothing that pertained to man was alien to this universal spirit. He has well been called “the thousand-souled Shakespeare.” In Shakespeare character occupies the place taken by fate in Greek tragedy.

Another secret of his influence lies in his power of expression. He was a poet before he became an actor or a dramatist. To express the workings of the human heart in all its phases he needed a perfect mastery of language, and he possessed it. “Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh.” His vocabulary amounts to 21,000 words, while that of Milton numbers only 7000. In the turn of his phrases he surpasses every other English writer, and no other writer is so much quoted.

Considered merely as a dramatist, he excels all rivals in the mastery of stagecraft,—knowledge which he acquired by his experience as an actor. The craft of Shakespeare is especially seen in his exits and his entrances. The knocking at the palace gate after the murder of Duncan is the stroke of fate heralding the entrance of Macduff and the disclosure of the crime. Many other examples could be given.

As regards his religion we cannot say from his writings what he was. He lived in an age of transition, and shows no leaning to one side more than the other. Didactic he could not be; this is not possible in a dramatist. Indifferent to right and wrong he never is. In all his dramas the subtle poison of evil works out its natural result; and goodness meets with its reward in becoming more and more perfect.

In some of his plays Shakespeare speaks with great pride and love of his country. This is one of the links that binds him to the English-speaking race throughout the world.

VIII. WHAT IS A GENTLEMAN?

The word "gentleman" is difficult to define, and it would be best not to attempt it. One can describe a thing without defining it.

To be a gentleman is not a matter of birth, though this is what the word originally meant. It is derived from Latin *gens*, "a clan of the patrician order." To be a *gentilis*, *i.e.* a member of such a clan, distinguished a patrician from a plebeian or man of low rank. From *gentilis* we get "gentle," "genteel," "gentleman." According to the Heralds' College, "gentleman" still means one who possesses an hereditary coat-armour. But this is not the sense in which the word is now understood, though good birth is still a very common and a very natural accompaniment of what we mean by a gentleman. We now give the name to those who deserve it on grounds of *nature*, *conduct*, and *bearing*. Even Chaucer, who wrote 500 years ago, speaks of "gentilman" in the modern sense. The French, however, up to a recent date preserved the etymological meaning of "gentilhomme," and its preservation may in a sense be said to have helped to produce the great revolution of 1789.

Gentlemanliness does not depend upon a high degree of virtue or religion, though moral excellence, like good birth, is a common and a natural accompaniment. We can hardly conceive of a man, who behaves like a gentleman in public, leading a dissipated or vicious life in private; and hence the 15th Psalm has been called the gentleman-Psalm. Dekker, the dramatist, calls our Lord "the first true gentleman that ever breathed." Yet a man may lead the purest life without being a gentleman. A lady said of her country neighbour that he was so hopelessly vulgar that she could not know him in town, but hoped to meet him in heaven.

The characteristics of a gentleman may be summed up, we think, under five different headings:—

(1) A certain gracefulness of manner and bearing.—There is something even in the walk, the gait, the dress, and the expression of the face. A coarse, ill-bred face, a slouching or ungainly walk, an uncouth dress, does not harmonise well with refinement of manner. The manners must be not only refined, but easy and natural,—not affected or assumed or practised with difficulty. To a man of low birth or bringing up it may be difficult to acquire such ease of manner, yet the acquisition is not impossible if there is refinement of feeling to back it.

(2) A high sense of honour.—If a gentleman gives his word to a thing, he will do it; there will be no evasion, because it was not written down. If he sees an open letter lying on a table, he will not read it. He will not repeat all that passes in conversation with a friend, even though he was not bound to secrecy. He will be true to his associates, and if he has enemies he will not be malignant.

(3) An average stock of general knowledge.—Without this he cannot take part in conversation or exchange ideas with other gentlemen. Dr. Johnson once said of a certain military officer, that he was not a real gentleman, because he could talk of nothing but soldiering. A man should find out the mood of his company, and restrain his individual mood. He should not thrust his own

particular subject upon people not interested in it, as if he had nothing else to talk about. He should allow others to talk as well as himself.

(4) Consideration for the feelings of others.—If a man or woman is sore upon a certain subject, the subject should not be brought up. A man should repress the display of his own feelings, if the occasion requires it. A gentleman will not ask inquisitive questions. Rude or thoughtless remarks sometimes wound more deeply than injuries, and, even though no offence was meant, are less easily forgiven. This want of consideration is one of the marks of a snob,—a person who affects the gentlemanly exterior, but lacks the inward feeling. Regard for the feelings of others is often met with in a working man, who is wanting in qualities (1) and (3). This is the truest kind of courtesy. Many so-called gentlemen are without it. A gentleman in this sense may be defined as one who has too much self-respect to show disrespect to others. A scholar who, without provocation, laughs at another's ignorance, is a snob.

(5) Delicacy.—The avoidance of words or actions that offend the finer susceptibilities. A man of delicate feeling will not enter into particulars about his ailments or about disgusting sights that he may happen to have seen or heard of.

Lastly, a man is not a gentleman, because he has a good income, lives in good style, and keeps up a good appearance. A poor man may have more of the gentleman in him than a rich. "The appellation of gentleman," says Steele, *Tatler* No. 207, "is never to be affixed to a man's circumstances, but to his behaviour in them."

IX. REVIEW OF HISTORICAL LITERATURE IN THE VICTORIAN AGE.

The reign of Victoria was in the matter of historical composition the most brilliant in our literature. The principal writers are—

1. Carlyle (1795-1881): *French Revolution; Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell; Frederick II. of Prussia.*
2. Grote (1794-1871): *History of Greece*, in twelve volumes.
3. Macaulay (1800-1859): *History of England* (from accession of James II. to the death of William III.).
4. Froude (1818-1894): *History of England* (from the fall of Cardinal Wolsey to the death of Queen Elizabeth).
5. Freeman (1823-1892): *History of the Norman Conquest; History of Sicily; William Rufus.*
6. Stubbs (b. 1825): *Constitutional History of England.*
7. Gardiner (1829-1902): *History of England* (from the accession of James I. to the end of the Protectorate).
8. Lecky (b. 1838): *Rise and Influence of Rationalism in Europe; History of European Morals from Augustus to Charlemagne; History of England and Ireland in the Eighteenth Century.*
9. Green (1837-1883): *Short History of the English People; The Making of England; The Conquest of England.*

The chronological order of these historians happens to fit in with our classification of them into—(a) the partisan historians, 1, 2,

3, 4; (b) the impartial historians, 5, 6, 7; (c) the philosophical historians, 8, 9.

The partisan historians.—These are celebrated for the freshness which they put into their narrative, the keen interest which they excite, and the vigour with which they set forth their personal views on the events which they describe. What they wrote, they wrote from their hearts. Carlyle's greatest work (on the French Revolution) is a great epic poem, full of passionate emotion, written in the form of prose. Grote, it has been said, produced a gigantic and very learned party-pamphlet in glorification of the Athenian democracy. Macaulay's history is avowedly the Whig version of the Revolution of 1688. Froude's work is a brilliant, but one-sided, account of English and Scotch history in the Tudor period.

The impartial historians.—These represent a theory of historical composition exactly the reverse of the preceding. The truth, told simply, literally, impartially, and with great minuteness of detail, is all that they care about. Having made a laborious and exhaustive study of first-hand authorities, they would deny that there is any duty resting on the historian to set forth the facts pictorially or with literary finish. There must be no dramatic interest, no atmosphere of romance, nothing but the dry light in which alone the personages and events can be viewed without distortion.

The philosophical historians.—These writers combine some of the characteristics of the two preceding. Lecky, like Freeman, is very patient in his investigation of fact, and very accurate in his researches, but he avoids great minuteness of detail, preferring to take a wide and philosophical view of the great questions of history. Moreover he throws a great deal of life into his narrative, and is read with much interest. The same remarks apply to Green.

We have great respect for the industry and judicial fairness of historians of the second class. But we place them on a lower level than either of the other two. They cannot be classed as great writers, and as historians they are not of much use; for in the first place very few persons read them, and in the second place, they fail to give us a real insight into the spirit of the age which they describe. They are what Carlyle called with scorn, "Dry as dust." Froude's reading of the character of Henry VIII. is admitted to be a gross piece of inaccuracy; but in other respects what an insight he gives us into the England of that age! The sympathetic treatment of a great historic period may furnish the critic with a few errors to correct, a few judgments to question or modify; but to the general reader it gives an intelligent presentation of the past, while it enables him to live in it over again, to understand its problems as he never did before, and to perceive how it has affected our life of to-day. A sympathetic historian can be and often is (witness Grote) quite as accurate and painstaking in his exploration of facts as the most rigidly impartial one; but he makes a different use of them. In order to prove or justify his own reading of the facts, he plays for particular points and takes care to give greater prominence when it suits his case.

History is not a mere question of correct narrative, fortified by appalling notes in which we are referred to the original authorities.

It cannot be instructive if it is written with a cold, entirely even, impartial mind. The sympathetic treatment of a period may contain deeper truth than a history which possesses no merit other than that of the most rigorous accuracy. The more accurate a writer is, the better. But accuracy need not compel him to stifle his individual leanings when he attempts to explore the spirit of an age that is past. English history will be read in Green long after Stubbs, Freeman, and Gardiner are forgotten.

X. MILLIONAIRES : ARE THEY A BENEFIT OR A DANGER TO THE COMMUNITY ?

One of the characteristics of the present age is the increase of millionaires and multi-millionaires. There are a few in England, some in South Africa, many more in the United States. Is it good or bad for the community that such huge fortunes should exist? The amount of good or bad must largely depend upon the character of the individual owner. We can only state general principles.

Millionaires are the chief owners of capital. Without capital, industries cannot be carried on. What occupies the thoughts of a millionaire is how to lay out his savings to the best advantage to himself. This, though done from self-interest, is not, so far as the community is concerned, a purely unprofitable process. In all ranks of life many besides the millionaire profit by the way in which he invests his capital.

Millionaires have given large sums for public purposes. In America colleges and universities have been endowed. Astronomical observatories have been set up and maintained at enormous cost. Examples : the Cornell University, the Lick Observatory, the great telescope in Chicago. There may be some personal pride or ambition at the bottom of these public benefactions. But the community reaps the benefit all the same. Mr. Carnegie has made liberal endowments for public libraries in England and America, and for Scotch universities. Mr. Cecil Rhodes founded a large number of scholarships for all parts of the British empire, for the United States, and for Germany,—all tenable at Oxford. Peabody left enormous sums which have been spent on the housing of the London poor. The Rothschilds have been liberal in public benefactions of various kinds.

Now for the other side. Granted that industrial or commercial projects require capital to start them, the capital need not come from a millionaire. It can be got together from a large number of investors of small or moderate incomes ; and this method is very much better for the general community. The best thing of all is when workmen themselves become shareholders, and thus have a personal interest besides that of earning wages in the firm to which they belong. As compared with the United States, there are few millionaires in England. But this has not prevented the growth of industries or the forming of joint-stock companies in abundance. The consequence is that wealth is more widely shared and more evenly distributed.

There is much danger to the community when the control of

industry is centred in the hands of a few men of immense wealth. The power which can create an industry can also destroy one. Smaller undertakings, which might do very well in fair competition, can be wrecked (as they often have been) by a great capitalist or combination of capitalists establishing a monopoly. The greater can wreck the smaller by lowering prices for a time, and then raising them again higher than they ever were before. A combination (or "trust" as it is called in America) by raising the price of commodities in general demand, such as meat, wheat, hardware, etc., can inflict great hardship on consumers.

Another evil of millionaire-control is that most of the men employed by it are reduced to servitude. Few have any chance of rising, or of starting on their own account. The man of original views cannot get a hearing. The energy of character is lessened, and there is no scope for independent action. Supposing that a "Dry-goods Trust" or union of drapers is formed, not many little shopkeepers will fight their way up to be "warehousemen" or wholesale dealers, as has been done heretofore.

There are thus two great dangers to the community in the system of millionaire-trusts: the loss of competition, which affects the consumer; and the loss of independence, which affects the workman. At present such evils are only beginning to be felt, and hence hostile opinion against millionaires is hardly yet born. If such evils take root, they will scarcely be atoned for by the grant of public benefactions.

The growth of millionaires implies that wealth is being more and more concentrated in the hands of the few, instead of being more and more widely spread among the many. This cannot be a good thing for the community at large. Millionaires may become great nuisances in the world. Their enormous wealth gives them enormous power.

XI. COMPARISON OF MISERS AND MILLIONAIRES.

(Partly based on *Spectator*, 13th April 1901; 4th January 1902.)

We might fancy two young men, A and B, beginning life at the same time, with equal abilities and equal resources. No great difference of character is then discernible. By the age of fifty, A has become a miser, and B a millionaire. Both have made money the object of their lives; A never ceases to hoard; B never ceases to invest. What difference exists in their characters and in their motives?

The peculiarity of a millionaire is that he perpetually risks his money in order to make more. He pursues riches with the same ardour that a scientific man feels in exploring the secrets of nature, a traveller in discovering new lands, an inventor in making new machines, an artist in drawing new pictures that will surpass his former ones, a scholar in acquiring fresh knowledge, a conqueror in adding new territories to his empire. One millionaire will strive to surpass another for the sake of victory rather than of profit. He has no hereditary title or rank; so in his own line he strives to be

a king. Kings they are often called,—as the Oil King, the Silver King, the Railway King, the Steel King. One millionaire in fighting another will spend enormous sums rather than be beaten. An example of this occurred in the conflict (May 1901) over the control of the Northern Pacific Railway. To obtain the coveted control, Mr. Pierpont Morgan on one side, and Mr. Harriman on the other, began buying furiously at prices far beyond any profit that the shares were ever likely to bring in.

Mr. Carnegie, late Steel King of the United States, decided at the age of sixty to retire from dollar-hunting. Such an example is rare; and even in his case it occurred very late in life. As a rule millionaires never rest. They have been accustomed to excitement, and they must have something to do. The management of an immense concern is as full of human interest as the Secretaryship of the Colonies, and is not dependent, like the Secretaryship, on the popular will.

The character of a miser is altogether different. He will not risk his money by investing it. He hoards it; and for this purpose denies himself the commonest comforts. He will even die of privation (as in fact has often happened) rather than spend money on what is needed for his health. He will hide his money about him, in order to feast his eyes on the glittering heap.

How is such a character to be accounted for? "Insane," some will say; but this cannot be, unless all ascetics are insane. A miser who dies of self-inflicted suffering is as true an ascetic as any monk that ever lived, however much he may differ from a monk in motive. Moreover, a miser has a great deal of method: he never rambles, never swerves. He is honest too: he does not rob other people: he is much too cautious for that. But a lunatic sticks at nothing.

Miserliness is thrift carried to a vice. The root-cause of thrift is fear of future want. That fear, if it grows, as it may do in a man of morbid temperament, becomes by degrees the master-motive of his life, and makes him at last a miser. A man does not become a miser in a day; it takes years to make him one. He begins with loving money for the sake of the safety that it gives him, and ends with loving it for its own sake. The passion for safety—the object—is transferred to the means of safety—money.

For a millionaire one can feel respect; for a miser only contempt or pity. We respect the former for his ability, energy, and cleverness. Millionaires distribute money through the community by their expenditure (which is sometimes lavish) as well as by their investments: misers merely lock it up. A millionaire is a man of enterprise and courage: a miser is a coward and a starveling. A millionaire will sometimes give very large sums for public purposes. It is sickening to make a hero of him for this reason; for there may be far less self-denial in the gift than when a widow gives away her mite, and there may be a good deal of self-glorification in the motive. Yet we must give him credit; for in parting with a million to endow a university, or a museum, or an observatory, he parts with what it cost him a good deal of labour to get, and what it is very valuable for the public to have.

XII. ARE PROSE AND POETRY INHERENTLY OPPOSED ?

The wording of the title shows that the question asked is not whether prose and poetry differ in form (which they obviously do), but whether they are opposed in character or spirit. The point may be discussed both on historical and on critical lines. We shall find that these lines do not clash.

In the history of literature poetry everywhere preceded prose; even great poetry could be produced in an early and primitive state of society as well as in a more advanced one, while the best prose appears only in the latter, and becomes by this time more abundant than poetry. Examples: In Greek literature we have at an early age the great epic and lyric poets (Homer, Hesiod, Sappho, Anacreon, Pindar, etc.); at a later age few poets, but many great prose-writers, as Democritus, Thucydides, Plato, Demosthenes. Creative power, imagination, spontaneity, is the mark of one, — critical acumen, research, elaboration, the mark of the other. This, in the main, is the distinction between poetry and prose. The one belongs to the youth of a nation; the other to its manhood. The poetic gift may, it is true, be seen in an advanced state of society contemporaneously with the production of the best prose. In English literature, for example, we have poets of the highest inspiration (Shelley, Wordsworth, Byron, Keats, Tennyson) side by side with the most brilliant prose-writers. But yet prose-writers vastly preponderate. We have great prose-writers now living, but no great poet.

The precedence of poetry to prose is also seen in the literary careers of distinguished authors. We know of no example in history, in which an author began his literary career with prose and ended it with poetry. The examples are all the other way. If such a man writes poetry at all, he writes it when he is young, when his mind is imaginative, impulsive, and fresh; and he takes to prose, when he finds that his mind has acquired a new bent and his judgment is more matured. Of Addison, Scott, Southey, Coleridge, Macaulay, and (greatest of all) Milton it may be said that their earliest literary efforts were all in the direction of poetry. Milton could hardly have written his greatest poems when he was an old man, if he had not proved and cultivated his poetic powers as a young one.

One's own experience as a reader points to the same tendency. We love poetry most when we are young. We have less desire to read poetry when we are older, unless it be to read over again poetry which we admired when young. Prose gains the upper hand as we advance in years.

Another fact which points to the inherent difference between poetry and prose is that the greatest poets have scarcely written prose at all, and have seldom or never risen to an equal eminence in both. In the whole range of Greek and Roman literature (which has been the model of modern literature) we know of not even one example. In English literature Milton's prose works will hardly compare with his poetry; the poetry of Scott, Southey, Addison, Dr. Johnson, Macaulay, is not of the highest order and will not compare with their prose.

Prose may argue in the treatise, exhort in the sermon, persuade in the oration, narrate in the history, converse in the novel, expound in the lecture, censure in the harangue, laugh in the comedy, criticise in the essay. But poetry does not argue, exhort, persuade, narrate, converse, expound, censure, laugh, or criticise. It enters the citadel of the soul, as music does, by an entirely different channel. We get the note of poetry sometimes in the prose of Carlyle and Ruskin and Burke. But the predominant note in the writers named is that of criticism and analysis.

The difference between poetry and prose comes home to the student when he is told to paraphrase the one into the other. He finds it impossible to turn the best poetry into good prose. Here is a practical test. They are distinct kinds of composition; no converting of the one into the other should be demanded or expected.

XIII. SPEED AND COMMERCE.

(*Spectator*, p. 483, 13th October 1900.)

Quickness of locomotion was the great achievement of the nineteenth century, and increased quickness will be that of the twentieth. The steamship, the railway, the bicycle were all English inventions: so too the application of steam power to weaving, ploughing, printing, and many other industrial arts. Other countries borrowed these from England; but of late England has been falling behind in the matter of speed. Express trains run faster on the Continent than in England. In 1900 Germany built steamships whose pace surpassed that of any made in England.

No matter, some will say. An hour or two makes no difference. The race is not always to the swift. Extreme speeds are dangerous.—To which the answer is that if it is dangerous to sail at 20 knots an hour, it can hardly be safe to sail at 15 knots; and in commerce the effect of such difference is appreciable. The quickest ship secures the best cargo and meets with the first purchaser at the port of arrival.

To have been beaten on our own element, the sea, and in our own invention, the steamship, is not creditable. If we wish to retain our commercial pre-eminence, we must not yield to self-complacence or what Carlyle calls "pot-bellied equanimity." The same cause—speed—which has done so much to promote the increase of commerce will certainly conduce to its success. The latter is the sequel of the former.

All manifestations of energy, either mental or physical, are but modes of motion. He who is content to go slowly or to dispatch his goods slowly will think slowly. In commerce, as in war or in statesmanship, the man of quick thought and prompt decision will win. Quickness must not be confounded, however, with rashness. The one implies decision with facts to go on; the other is decision without them.

So too with the instruments that man uses. Quick carriage by ship or by rail will draw the keenest and most successful, and therefore the wealthiest, customers. Quickness secures reputation, and reputation is the best asset to any company which has competition

to contend against. It is easier to lose reputation than to win it back.

Indifference to speed, if any such exists, in thought or action or in the use of these mechanical appliances on which quickness of action depends, is a symptom of national decline. "No changing of place at a hundred miles an hour," says Ruskin, "will make us one whit stronger, happier, or wiser. It does a man no harm, if he be truly a man, to go slow; for his glory is not in going, but in being." True; but to go slow does him a great deal of harm in trade and in professional work of any kind, if he has to compete against men whose first endeavour will be to surpass him in the race.

XIV. HAPPINESS AMONG RICH AND POOR.

(*Spectator*, p. 754, 16th November 1901.)

Wealth alone, as every one knows, will not give happiness. The main factors of happiness are food, sleep, exercise, love, and health,—five essentials in all. There can be no happiness for one who suffers from a guilty conscience, a painful disease, a total lack of interest in life, keenly-felt and lifelong disappointment, or some irremediable domestic affliction.

Lecturers may prate about the vanity of riches. But to an average man with a clear conscience, good health, a few tastes to cultivate, happy recollections, and agreeable companions, riches add greatly to the enjoyment of life.

Riches, if they do nothing else, give power, and power may be exercised, with great happiness to the doer, for unselfish objects, such as the diffusion of cherished opinions, the advancement of some much-loved cause, the removal of some hated abuse, the working out of some great literary scheme. Even if the owner of wealth has no such purposes, wealth judiciously spent amongst his neighbours secures social position and promotes good feeling.

From riches we come down to the bare wage that suffices for a decent subsistence. A person so situated may have happiness, so far as this consists of the five constituents noted above, and many do have it. But there are certain drawbacks, to which poor men are for the most part liable.

(1) Insecurity.—A man is liable to be thrown out of work by illness, the want of an employer, the failure of his employer, the injustice of his employer, the loss of strength through age.

(2) Inability to provide for children, especially daughters.—A working man may be cut off before his children are old enough to take care of themselves. He has as great a horror of the workhouse for them as he has for himself.

(3) Servitude.—He cannot choose his work or change his occupation. He is tied to one thing. Like Ixion on his wheel, he must go the same perpetual round. Some feel this less than others. A man who loves his work does not feel it at all; but such men are rare.

The three drawbacks named are felt as keenly, perhaps more keenly, by the educated man than by the working man. In all callings, high or low, there is a large number of men who can make only a bare living. No. (2) is a terrible trial to a gentleman in poor

circumstances ; and No. (3) is very distressing to a cultivated man placed under an arrogant, uncultured employer.

The mind is its own place, and of itself
Can make a heaven of hell, a hell of heaven.—MILTON.

This sounds well in poetry ; but no one finds it to be true in real life. Every one tries to secure a competence if he can.

XV. THE ATTRACTION OF RANK : ITS CAUSES AND EFFECTS.

(*Spectator*, 19th October 1901).

An Englishman loves rank. He does not respect a rich man because of his riches, nor a poor man, who can boast of a high pedigree, but has fallen below the rank of his forefathers. He loves rank and the social status accompanying it. If the title is not hereditary, but has been given by the sovereign, he respects it, both because the winner has done something to deserve it, and because it stamps him as one fit to move in a more dignified circle than his own.

To what is this deference for rank due? "All snobbishness," says Thackeray in his book of snobs. We disbelieve this explanation. Britons of the true metal, although they respect title, will not tolerate in private life the slightest indignity from a titled man, nor in politics over-much resistance. They would resent a wrong done by him more keenly than one done by an equal. This is not snobbishness. It is self-respect.

The real explanation, we think, is this. In every grade there is a perpetual struggle to enter the grade above, or at least to imitate its ways and fall into line with it. It is creditable to the nation that such ambition exists. Rank is respected, because it is the social label attached to men who have won their way, or whose forefathers have won their way, to a high rung of the ladder.

We are a free people,—stubborn, self-reliant, self-opinionated, and fond of personal independence. But with all that we are very conservative in our ideas. Our social system has come down without a break from a remote past. An Englishman has never ceased to love a lord,—a strange, but healthy, mixture of aristocratic with democratic sentiment.

This respect for rank has had a good effect on manners. A working man, if he is spoken to courteously, knows at once that the speaker is a gentleman, and shows him all the civility that he can. He wishes to acquire such manners himself. A rich man seeks to add to his importance by acquiring a title, by associating with men of rank, and assuming their manners and tastes.

Americans, with all their boasted love of equality, show as much respect for wealth as an Englishman for rank or title. And even Americans love rank at heart. Look at the popular excitement displayed in the reception given to Prince Henry of Prussia, who visited New York in 1902. Rich American heiresses frequently marry men with English titles.

At school what boys respect is not title or rank, but the ability which makes one of them the captain at cricket or football, the best diver, the best boxer, or the best scholar. This is not snobbishness ; it is genuine respect for one who has beaten them. When they go

out into the world, they transfer their respect to those who can beat them on larger issues. They respect a title, because the holder of it has either beaten them himself, or because his forefathers have beaten their forefathers.

Respect for rank or position is the mortar of society. Without it there is no standard of manners.

XVI. PRIDE IN ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES.

In ancient history, and even up to the dawn of modern history, pride was the vice of the powerful and the high-born. The pleasure of possessing power and rank consisted in making others feel their inferiority and in exacting a high degree of deference. The Spartans long maintained their precedence over the Lacedaemonians and Helots; and in Rome the patricians never willingly yielded to the plebeians. All through the Middle Ages we hear of one king forcing another to do homage to him as a proof of submission and a condition of peace. Haman, in the Persian court, is said to have planned the destruction of the Jews, because Mordcaï did not bow to him. Cardinal Wolsey is said to have sent Buckingham to the block for a similar offence.

The opposite virtue, humility, *i. e.* humbleness of spirit, meekness, is very strongly inculcated in the Sermon on the Mount, and in fact in all the teaching of Christ. "He that exalteth himself shall be abased, and he that humbleth himself shall be exalted."

The old vice of pride in the possession of power and rank is now almost extinct, or if it is felt, the possessor is careful not to show it. Its place has been taken by two other forms of the vice, the pride of purse, and the pride of superior piety, which is generally called self-righteousness. The equality of all men before the law has left no room for oppression and tyranny; but the law cannot prevent one man from becoming richer than another and making an offensive display of his riches, nor can it prevent any one from laying claim, like the Pharisees of old, to superior godliness.

Of the pride of intellect we see few or no signs. Knowledge is too widely spread to admit of the prevalence of such a vice. Men of the highest intelligence are too well aware of their own imperfections to be susceptible to any such mental disease. As a general rule, the most intellectual men are the most modest and the least conceited.

Men of high rank or high position are now remarkable for their courtesy. Great respect is still shown everywhere for high rank and high lineage; but an insolent demeanour is resented at once by all classes down to the lowest.

There is a reason for this. Self-respect has become, in Britain at least, well-nigh universal, and no one will allow himself to be rudely spoken to, and least of all by any one of higher position or birth.

Self-respect is the virtue that has taken the place of pride. It is the virtue that holds a middle place between pride on the one hand, and servility or the extreme forms of humility on the other. Both pride and servility are becoming or have become things of the past. Under the humanising and equalising influence of English law there is no room for the excessive display either of self-assertion or self-abasement.

XVII. THE FORCE OF EXAMPLE.

(SMILES on *Character*, ch. iii.)

Men are by nature imitators. All persons are more or less impressed by the speech, the manners, the gait, the gestures, and even the habits of thinking of those around them. "Example is the school of mankind," said Burke, "and they will learn from no other."

In man, as in the lower animals, imitation is for the most part unconscious. Impressions are made without our knowing it. But though they are unheeded, the effects are none the less permanent.

Though the force of example is for the most part spontaneous and unconscious, the young need not necessarily be the passive followers or imitators of those about them. Not only can they select their companions and decide which are most worthy of imitation, but their own conduct tends to fire the purpose and form the principles of their lives.

Let a young man seek, if possible, the society of men better than himself, and especially of those who do not possess the kind of fault to which he finds himself peculiarly liable, or who possessed it once, but have conquered it. Their example is always inspiring. He corrects his own conduct by theirs, and becomes a partner in their wisdom. If they are stronger in will or character than he is, he becomes a participator in their strength.

Dr. Arnold's own example was an inspiration, as is that of every great teacher. In his presence young men learnt to respect themselves; and out of the root of self-respect there grew up the manly virtues. The example of a good and great man is contagious and compels imitation.

Most young men of generous minds, especially if they are readers of books, find heroes to admire. On the contrary small and ungenerous minds cannot admire any one heartily. To their own misfortune they cannot recognise, much less reverence, great men and great things. The mean man admires what is mean, as the toad admires nothing but a toad. The small snob finds his ideal of manhood in the great snob. The slave-dealer values a man according to his muscles. Dennis, the hangman (in *Barnaby Rudge*), admired nothing but a man's neck. A glutton cannot look beyond his dinner. A man of the world can see nothing to admire but success. Men of inferior type, instead of trying to raise themselves to the level of their betters, are smitten with envy, and regard the success of others, even in a good cause, as a personal offence. On such men example is thrown away, for you cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear.

It is the function of biography to teach what a man can be and what he can do. The humblest, when they see this, may admire and take hope. The examples set by the great and good do not die.

He is not dead whose glorious mind
Lifts thine on high;
To live in hearts we leave behind
Is not to die.

XVIII. NATIONAL CHARACTER.

(SMILES on *Character*, ch. i.)

In what does it consist? Where are we to find it? It is not to be learnt from its fine folks; for in every nation these are much the same. While statesmen, philosophers, lawyers, and divines represent the thinking power of a nation, the men who found industries and carve out new careers, as well as the working people, from whom the national spirit is from time to time recruited, furnish the real backbone of every people.

Nations have a character to maintain no less than individuals. True patriotism consists, to a large extent, in acting up to the national ideal and national traditions, or if no worthy ideals or traditions exist, in making them by their example and handing down their example to posterity. In this way Alfred the Great helped to found and form the character of Englishmen, and Brutus (who expelled Tarquin the Proud) that of the Roman citizen.

In the long run national character will depend more upon the moral qualities of the many than of the few. There will be no national greatness, unless the bulk of the people is high-minded, truthful, honest, chaste, and courageous; and these qualities must permeate all classes from high to low. The nation that has no higher god than pleasure, or dollars, or the sale of calico, cannot be great.

The character of a nation depends to a large extent upon its amusements. The greatness of England is largely due to its many sports and pastimes,—cricket, football, swimming, boating, diving, hunting, hockey, golf, polo, shooting, etc. The English are the most athletic people in Europe.

The way in which a country is governed may help very materially to form the character of the nation. The vile rule of Charles II. had for a time a debasing effect on the English character. The change of judges and of government officers with every change of President in the United States has not conduced to the purity of the administration or given a good example to the citizens. The free press and free parliament of England have certainly helped to form the character of Englishmen; and hence, wherever an English colony is founded, its members insist on setting up representative institutions similar to those of the mother-country. What led, more than anything else, to the South African war was the denial of political freedom to the English living in the Transvaal.

But sometimes a nation will rise superior to its government. Never did England produce greater men than when she resisted the tyranny and corruption of the Stuarts or of George III. Never did ancient Greece stand higher than when she expelled her "Tyrants." Never did Rome stand higher than when she expelled Tarquin.

Nations must not be judged according to their size. The entire population of Attica was less than that of South Lancashire. Yet how great was Athens in art, literature, philosophy, statesmanship, and patriotism!

Nations that are idle and luxurious must die out, and laborious energetic nations take their place. Rome, when her citizens lost

their old republican energy and purity, drifted into a long period of decay, and fell before the vigorous Goths. But the whole power of Louis XIV. could not subdue little Holland, because her people were frugal and energetic and had inherited a great tradition.

XIX. ZEAL: THE BUSINESS SIDE OF LOVE.

Love is the inspiring motive. Zeal is the motive in operation. The relation between love and zeal is analogous to that between faith and works. "Faith without works is dead, being alone." Love is of no use by itself, if it does not take the form of action, when the opportunity for action has arisen.

Three things are necessary to the due discharge of business, and the same are necessary to the effective operation of zeal:—(a) promptness, (b) regularity, (c) exactitude or attention to details.

(a) Promptness, or doing things at the most opportune moment.—Delays are dangerous. If you are interested in a cause, and wish that cause to succeed, never put off till to-morrow what can be done to-day. The loss of a day may be fatal. Promptness includes punctuality, or doing things up to the stipulated time.

(b) Regularity.—Business, whatever its nature may be, must be carried out on some regular system. Irregular, desultory, or random work never produces a great result. Regularity is necessary to bodily health, and without bodily health the brain loses its balance and its power of work. If the idle man kills time, it is the methodical man who makes it.

(c) Attention to detail.—Let a man set a definite aim before his eyes. He will have no chance of gaining his end, unless he attends to the means and considers them in all their minutiae. Mistakes must be discovered and corrected in time. New means must be adopted, if other means have failed. Opportunities must be watched. Probabilities must be weighed. Characters must be studied. Risks must sometimes be run.

"Zeal is the business side of love." We have shown the business side. But the element of love is very apt to be forgotten. Zeal may degenerate into jealousy, and jealousy to hatred. Without love a man can be so carried away by zeal, that he becomes a bitter and violent partisan, imputes evil motives to the opposite side, sees no good in the opponent, whom he regards as an enemy to be defeated, not as a possible friend to be won over to his own cause.

Zeal, in which the element of love is wanting, defeats its own object. It not only creates antagonism, where none need have existed, but it discredits by its excesses the character of its own cause. It may be difficult to hit the mean between zeal that is intemperate and zeal that is lukewarm. But the difficulty will be very much lightened if men will remember that love is the corrective to both extremes.

XX. SELF-DISCIPLINE.

(ARTHUR HELPS, *Essays written in Intervals of Business.*)

There is always some danger that self-discipline may lead to self-conceit or self-confidence, especially if the motives to it are of a

worldly character or the results are outward only and superficial. But the sensations ought not to be those of exultation only; they should be rather akin to the shuddering faintness of one who surveys a chasm into which he has narrowly escaped from falling.

Self-discipline is grounded on self-knowledge. But the self-knowledge must be thorough; otherwise it may be nothing better than self-flattery. A man must learn the whole truth about himself.

To thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man,—SHAKESPEARE.

The aim of self-examination should be not only to find out and correct particular faults, but to discover principles. It is not enough to reproach one's self with a bad act or a bad habit: we should try to see what fundamental principle of conduct has been violated, and then make a study of it. We could never sweep away a mist, however much we tried; but by ascending to higher ground, we may get out of it and look down upon it. So it is with moral improvement. Look upon conduct from a higher level.

Bad inclinations can be best combated by fostering those of an opposite tendency. One nail drives out another. A higher aim will overrule a lower one, just as a stronger nail will drive out a weaker one. Small, selfish ends will appear disgusting by the side of nobler ones. Uncharitable judgments will appear unjust, when we begin to think of the better side of a man's character and actions.

In the efforts for self-improvement a man may sometimes need the support of some outward circumstance. There is the Eastern story of a ring, which by its change of colour reminded the wearer of his want of shame. Such support, though it is a confession of weakness, is necessary to some men, and should not be despised. Thus the signing of the pledge has been found a great support to some in their attempts to give up the habit of intemperance. A man carrying a pledge in his pocket feels ashamed to do anything in violation of it. A man will sometimes bind himself by a promise to some one whom he respects that he will not do such and such a thing again: or he may join some society which forbids such conduct. Such auxiliaries, though they are mechanical and cannot of themselves maintain progress, serve as aids to resolution and landmarks of progress.

Another aid to self-discipline is the consideration of prudence or self-interest. We may avail ourselves of such aid so long as we do not rest on it. Prudence may enable a man to conquer the world, but not to rule his own heart; it may change one passion for another, but it cannot make a man change his nature.

Self-discipline, if it is to be permanent and effective, must rest, as we have said, upon the cultivation and study of high principles. Form a high ideal and keep it steadily before the mind: baser passions will then wither away at the root; for no soil will remain from which the root can be fed.

XXI. SERENITY OF MIND.

(ARTHUR HELPS, *Essays written in Intervals of Business.*)

The object of the present essay is to suggest some thoughts which may serve as antidotes against the manifold ingenuity of self-tormenting.

Consider how much fretting might be prevented by a thorough conviction that there can be no such thing as unmixed good in this world. After having made a free choice and chosen to the best of one's judgment, what is the use of seeking for reasons for blaming one's own decision?

Much discomfort arises from over-sensitiveness about what people may say of one's self or one's actions. Such over-sensitiveness requires to be blunted. Does your action concern them in any way? Are you sure that they care to say or think anything about it? You think you are moving in an amphitheatre; whereas all the while you may be playing to empty benches.

But suppose that you are really the object of obloquy. The question then is, Have you deserved the obloquy? If you are guiltless, the obloquy ought not to hurt you any more than if it were said of another person, with whom you are not even acquainted. But perhaps the unmerited obloquy may be expressed by some one whose opinion you respect. If so, this is a palpable injury. Some satisfaction may, however, be found in attempting to measure accurately its nature and extent. Perhaps you have exaggerated it. Perhaps it is partly your own want of tact, if your friends think worse of you than they should do.

Men are sometimes very sore at not meeting with the gratitude which they expected. One antidote is to measure your expectations of gratitude by the extent of your beneficence. Perhaps you have set too high a value on your services. Anyhow, one ought not to expect from gratitude the attentions which love and respect alone can give.

A man sometimes chafes at not being as widely esteemed as he thinks he ought to be. He should reflect that the public do not look about for anybody's merits or admire what does not come in their way; that the number of those who have had a chance of knowing accurately what his merits are is very small, and of those whose judgment would weigh with him still smaller. The good opinion of the public is not the test of merit; nor is popular applause the principal reward for exertion.

A habit of mistrust is the torment of some people. It taints their love and their friendship. They take up small causes of offence. They expect too much of human nature: for one's friend cannot be at all times exactly the same. Why take offence if none was intended?

Serenity of mind abides with truth. If you wish to appear richer, better, or cleverer than what you are, you will be found out, and the mask soon becomes an instrument of torture.

The fit employment of leisure is a great help to serenity. Listless apathy is not quiescence or rest. A man should have some pursuit which may be always in his power, and to which he may turn in his

hours of leisure. But the worst kind of idleness is that of the heart. The man who feels weary of life may be sure that he does not love his fellow-creatures as he ought.

Some persons attach a ridiculous importance to their little projects, and fret at their failure, as if such projects were the only things worth living for. The success or failure of a project is of far less importance than the motive under which the project was formed :—

'Tis not in mortals to command success ;
But we'll do more, Sempronius, we'll deserve it.—ADDISON.

So long as there is anything *to be done* in a matter, the time for grieving about it has not come. But when the subject for grief is fixed and unalterable, sorrow is to be borne like pain. It must be remembered that sorrow is at once the lot, the trial, and the privilege of man.

XXII. MANNERS MAKE THE MAN.

(See SMILES on *Character*, ch. ix.)

A man may be rough in manner, yet good at heart. But he will be a more agreeable, a more useful, and, in short, a more successful man, if to goodness of heart he adds suavity of manner.

As a general rule a man's manner indicates his character. It is the external exponent of his inner nature. It indicates his taste, his feelings, and his temper ; it indicates too the society to which he has been accustomed, or at least the society into which he is fit to be received.

Artificial rules of politeness are of very little use. Conventional manner, though better than nothing, carries but little weight. What passes by the name of etiquette is at best but a substitute for good manners, and is sometimes merely their counterfeit. Yet etiquette, though insufficient and hollow, must not be neglected.

Good manners spring for the most part from courtesy, and courtesy springs from two sources—(a) sincerity, (b) kindness.

(a) The truest courtesy comes of sincerity. It must be the outcome of the heart, or it will make no lasting impression ; for no amount of polish can dispense with truthfulness. The natural character must be allowed to appear, freed of its angularities and asperities. Without genuineness and individuality human life would lose much of its freshness,—much that makes it interesting.

A man who wishes to be respected himself must respect the individuality of another as much as his own. He should have due regard for the views and opinions of another, even though they differ from his own. A well-mannered, courteous man will be a patient listener. He refrains from judging harshly. He is tolerant and forbearing.

(b) True courtesy is kind. It seeks to contribute to the happiness of others, and to refrain from anything that may annoy or injure them. It is grateful as well as kind, and readily acknowledges kind acts or kind intentions.

It is against good manners to assume to be better, or wiser, or richer than your neighbour. A well-mannered man does not boast

of his rank, or his birth, or his country, or his attainments, or of the school or college at which he was educated, or of the honours that he won there. In short there can be no good manners without modesty. He exhibits his character in performing rather than in boasting, in doing rather than in talking.

A man may show his bad manners and make himself almost insufferable through want of self-restraint. For want of this quality many men bring upon themselves difficulties of their own making, and incur an opposition which mars the success of their careers or in fact renders success impossible. Other men, less gifted, may by dint of better manners leave them behind in the battle of life.

A man may show his bad manners by neglect of propriety in dress, by the absence of cleanliness, by talking "shop" to an audience not interested, by indulging in repulsive habits, as smoking, spitting, or shouting in company. The slovenly, dirty person, by rendering himself physically disagreeable, sets the tastes and feelings of others at defiance, and is rude and uncivil only under another form.

The perfection of manner is ease. Nothing so much prevents our being natural as the desire of appearing so.

Good manners are by no means confined to the upper classes in life. Men who toil with their hands may not only respect themselves, but respect one another. Benjamin Franklin, in the days when he was a working man, is said to have reformed the manners of an entire workshop.

XXIII. JUDGING OF OTHER MEN.

(ARTHUR HELPS, *Essays written in Intervals of Business.*)

In forming our judgments of other men lightly and rashly, we wrong ourselves no less than those whom we judge. In scattering such judgments abroad, we endow them with a life which we cannot take away, even if we wish. One who would be ashamed to talk at hazard about the properties of some figure in geometry, will put forth guesses about the character of his brother man, as if he had the fullest authority for all that he is saying and was perfect master of the facts.

If we do not form such judgments ourselves, but accept them from the lips of others, such credulity is by no means blameless. Your authority may have formed his opinion on very superficial grounds. You have no right to trust him on such a delicate question, unless you have investigated the facts.

Among the various opinions that we hear of men's character or conduct, there must be many which are formed wrongly, even if sincerely, either from false information or from erroneous reasoning. Your informant may be prejudiced, or he may lack the ability to see things in a right light, or he may lack the charity to see what is good in another and to interpret his actions in a favourable sense.

We are sometimes compelled by the exigencies of life to judge of men on the spot. What are we to do then? Well: whatever opinion we form, we need not talk about it. We may have to act upon it, but we can at least keep it to ourselves. The character of a man is sometimes seen in trifles; for he then acts instinctively and almost

unconsciously. The most important actions of a man are sometimes those that are forced upon him by circumstances and are likely to be the results of many things beside his own nature.

The different aspects of a man's character are not all discernible alike. In the moral nature we soon detect selfishness, egotism, and vanity. Carelessness about truth is soon found out. But you cannot find out a man's temper till you have seen a great deal of him. Again, it is always a hard matter to understand any one's feelings. Some men hide their feelings; others are so demonstrative that they mislead us.

Men sometimes offend us by pretensions of any kind, and we misjudge them accordingly. We fancy that they despise us, whereas perhaps they are courting our admiration. They offend our vanity, whereas they may be only indulging their own.

A man's character may have so little in common with our own, that we are incapable of measuring or appreciating him. One who has no sense of humour must find it very hard to understand a man who has.

Of all errors in judging of others the worst, and yet perhaps the most common, is made in judging of those who are nearest to us. They think that we have entirely made up our minds about them, and so they show us only that kind of behaviour which they know we expect. Perhaps too they fear us, or they are convinced that we do not and cannot understand them.

A very large part of the amenities of life, both at home and outside of home, depends on the amount of caution and common sense that we use in forming our judgments of others; for our judgment cannot but influence our conduct. As to expressing such judgments or listening to what others express, the best plan is to keep as clear as possible from both.

XXIV. THE EXERCISE OF BENEVOLENCE.

(ARTHUR HELPS, *Essays written in Intervals of Business.*)

Most men, though surrounded by the most pressing objects of benevolence, give the best part of their time to the acquisition of money or of knowledge; or spend it in sighing for opportunities of advancement, or in moping over some unavailing sorrow.

Many are the calls to benevolence. Consider the classes of men in our crowded cities left to their own devices,—the destitute peasantry in some parts of our country,—the pervading want of cleanliness and culture,—the fallacies and falsehoods which are left unchecked to accomplish all the mischief that is in them. If a man will only ascertain what has been done and what has still to be done in such matters, he may be of great service; for a man of information becomes a centre of opinion and therefore of action.

True: but it will be asked, What is one to choose as one's point of action? Where is one to begin? The answer is, If some work of benevolence is brought near to you by circumstances, follow it at once. If not, pick out any subject that seems likely to suit you, think earnestly about it, investigate it sincerely, and you will grow to like it and be interested in it. This is how men have become

enthusiasts about heraldry or about chess. Is not the welfare of man more interesting than the form of a crest or the move of a pawn?

Benevolence requires method and activity for its exercise. It is a very different thing from the indolent good humour with which a well-fed man, reclining on a sunny bank, looks upon the working world around him.

But is a man to neglect "his legitimate occupation" in order to work for persons who have no legal claim on his time and labours? No: the question is an idle one. Our livelihood is not such an all-absorbing affair that it does not leave time or room for anything else. If men can find time for recreation which is needed by themselves, they can find time for doing something that is needed by others. The pursuit of some scheme of benevolence may itself become a source of recreation, when the interest has once been roused in it. Many a hard-worked man has devoted himself to the temperance cause, and found recreation and solace in so doing.

Kindness to animals is no unworthy exercise of benevolence. He who is brutal to the dumb creation, who injures an animal for pleasure or for any reason other than self-defence, who destroys insects without necessity, is not likely to show more mercy than he can help to his fellow-man or even to members of his own household. Those who have become *active* members of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, or of that for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, are worthy champions in the cause of benevolence. Such men are more likely to find friends, if they need them, in the time of trouble: or, if they never need help themselves, they will feel an inward satisfaction, to which the selfish and indifferent are strangers.

XXV. THE GIVING OR TAKING OF ADVICE.

(ARTHUR HELPS, *Essays written in Intervals of Business.*)

Unasked advice is not unpalatable when it tallies with our own conclusion, and therefore comes in the shape of praise or encouragement, or when it is interwoven with regret at some error, not of ours, but of the adviser himself, or with a full recital of his own misfortunes or failures.

But in general it is with advice as with taxes: we can endure very little of either, if they come to us in the direct way. They annoy us if they thrust themselves upon us. We do not like them to knock at our doors: besides, they choose such inconvenient times of coming, and are for ever talking of arrears.

If you ask for advice, take care to sift it well,—to separate the wheat from the chaff. The adviser will always consider what would sound well as coming from a person of his character and station. You cannot expect him to neglect his own safety. The oracles will Philippise, as long as Philip is the master; but still they have an inner meaning for Athenian ears.

To ask for *advice*, when you want *assistance*, is disingenuous; and you will be justly punished if you get what you pretended to want. There is a still greater insincerity in affecting to care about another's advice, when you consult him, not for getting advice, but in the hope of his sanctioning a course on which you have already resolved.

If you really need advice, and honestly ask for it, it is sometimes a good thing to confer with persons who differ from you in disposition, circumstances, and modes of thought. In this way you are likely to see all sides of a question, and not merely that which you have thought of and perceived already without assistance.

There are occasions on which a man feels that he has fully made up his mind already, and at the same time he knows that by acting as he has decided to act he will incur the blame of those whose good opinion he values. This is a painful situation. Nevertheless he must face it. Let him not suppose that he will break his fall by asking their advice beforehand. He will only make the case worse. They will be severe on him as it is for not having consulted them; but they will be much more severe and indignant if, after having consulted them, he acts against their advice. Besides, if they have not been consulted, they will not be so inclined to parade the fact as they would be if they had been consulted and their advice after all was neglected.

So much as to asking or taking advice. Now as to giving it. It is a maxim of prudence, that when you advise a man to do something which is for your own interest as much as for his, you should put your own motive full in view and make no attempt to hide it. If you attempt to hide it, he is almost certain to find it out, and then he will distrust you altogether. Rather than follow your advice, he may prefer to neglect his own interest and thereby injure your own.

When you have to give advice, always remember whom you are addressing and consider what is practicable for him. Look about, not for the wisest thing that can be said, but for that which your friend has the heart to undertake and the ability to accomplish. Feel *with* him before you attempt to think *for* him.

It is of no use to go back and show him what might have been done or ought to have been done. This is not advice, but comment; and such comment is often mortifying and offensive. Go back upon the past, if this throws any light on what is to be done: otherwise, leave the past alone.

If you find that you cannot advise a man at all from his own point of view, and that your principles are radically different from his, then it is better to tell him so plainly. Put your own principles before him, and leave him to decide for himself.

XXVI. PATRIOTISM TRUE AND FALSE.

Patriotism, roughly speaking, is love for one's native country. But the sentiment may take a form to which this description does not strictly answer. For instance a Nomad, who has no fixed country, can be patriotic in a sense; his patriotism consists in reverence for tradition, respect for ancestors, and regard for tribal interests. Again, a Briton, born and bred in New Zealand, may be and is a patriotic Englishman, though he has never seen England.

Patriotism may be based on instinct or on reason. The patriotism of the Nomad is based on instinct; he feels it, but sees no reason for it. The patriotism of reason (and here reason supplements, but does not stifle, instinct) is the sentiment that is based on a common inherit-

ance of a great past and on kindred manners and institutions. In the mind of a civilised being such patriotism is strengthened by a perception of his personal interest in the common welfare, and sometimes by his having a share in the government of his country. It does and can exist among the Hindoos and the Mahomedans of our Indian empire no less than among the people of England itself.

There is a false kind of patriotism which is called Jingoism,—bragging of one's country's power and wealth, meddling in the affairs of other nations, bullying the smaller and weaker powers. True patriotism never forgets the golden rule, "Do to others as you would be done by." It never forgets that other nations have interests and feelings no less than its own, and that such interests and feelings deserve consideration. It was not patriotism, but arrogance, which led George III. and his friends to tax the American colonies. True patriotism at that time was represented by Lord Chatham, false by Lord North, the king's minister.

Love of country always implies a regard for the country's welfare ; and this may be aroused by internal as well as by external dangers. Examples :—Cato's endeavour to preserve the Republic against Cæsarism ; the barons against King John ; the Long Parliament against Charles I. ; the nation against James II. ; Sir Robert Peel against the maintenance of the Corn Laws ; Cobden and Bright against the Crimean War.

Patriotism has been often aroused by external dangers. Examples :—The Greek States (though each was a centre of patriotism within itself) were united against Persia ; all Frenchmen, though otherwise much divided, were united by Joan of Arc against the English ; all Englishmen were aroused to repel the Armada ; Hollanders combined against the Duke of Alva ; the United Provinces against Louis XIV. ; the authors of the French Revolution against Europe ; Europe against Napoleon.

In a great empire like that of England patriotism may be both local and imperial. The Indian, the Canadian, the Australian, the South African, the New Zealander, may be as deeply attached to his own country as an Englishman is to England, and yet be none the less attached to the empire and the flag.

XXVII. NEED OF REFORM IN ENGLISH SPELLING.

In English there are scarcely any declensions and genders to learn ; the verbs have but few terminations ; and the syntax is simple. The vocabulary is almost equally divided between Romanic and Teutonic. English is thus well suited to become widely known, in fact to become a common language,—a *lingua franca* all over the world. But its absurd and chaotic spelling blocks the way.

It seems marvellous that a practical people like the English should keep up the worship of an idol, which is admired only in its insular home, and even there is not of venerable antiquity ; for it was only at the time of the introduction of printing that our bad spelling became established. All scholars condemn it.

Educationally it is a great hindrance. At a time when the mind of a student is rising above mere empiricism and seeking for some

scientific law, he is baffled at every turn and taught that there is no law or method in the representation of sounds. The sounds are left to be picked up anyhow, by mere imitation and by sheer force of memory.

It involves a great waste of time and money. Hundreds of thousands are spent, and years of school life are wasted, in teaching the young what is useless and unnecessary. It takes from six to seven years to learn the arts of reading and spelling, *i.e.* about 2000 hours. Pupils may be taught to read books in phonetic print in from ten to forty hours; and when fluency has been attained, the pronunciation is improved and the study of books becomes more easy.

The real danger which every year's delay makes more imminent is that the language of England and her Colonies will cease to be the same. Dialectic varieties are springing up which, if unchecked by phonetic symbols corresponding with speech, will develop into different languages. At present the differences of pronunciation in England and the Colonies or the States is slight. But every year's delay increases the danger.

Germans and Italians have a phonetic alphabet, and they find time to acquire foreign tongues; but Englishmen have less time to acquire foreign languages in consequence of their absurd spelling.

A royal commission should be appointed to deal with this matter. There are already many societies for spelling reform; but every member has his own pet system, and so there is no common action. Such a very important reform ought not to be left to private societies. It is a national or rather an imperial question, and should be taken up by the Government before it is too late.

126. Notes for Expository Essays.—The following is a list of the subjects to which notes have been appended:—

- I. The Part played by Accident in History.
- II. The Execution of Charles I.: its Provocation and Consequences.
- III. Addison's *Spectator*: its History and Character.
- IV. Position and Physical Features of Britain: their Influence on the History and Character of the People.
- V. Great Historical Issues decided at Sea.
- VI. The Renascence.
- VII. Effects of the Renascence on Modern Education.
- VIII. The Mastery of the Pacific.
- IX. Slavery in Ancient and Medieval Times.
- X. Slavery in Modern Times.
- XI. The Birth of the English Army and what preceded it.
- XII. The Auxiliary Forces.
- XIII. New Forms of Locomotion and their Results.
- XIV. Fiction in English Literature till the close of the Eighteenth Century. (Three essays.)
 - (a) The age preceding the Elizabethan.
 - (b) The Elizabethan age.
 - (c) Between 1600 and 1800.
- XV. The Historical Novel.

- XVI. The Historical Drama.
- XVII. The Monroe Doctrine.
- XVIII. Autobiographies.
- XIX. Ideals of Character in Ancient and Modern Times.
- XX. Modes of improving the Mind.
- XXI. Why we are taxed.
- XXII. The False Importance attached to the word "Republic."

I. THE PART PLAYED BY ACCIDENT IN HISTORY.

We have heard a great deal of late years about the science of history. History has been declared to be a science of prediction; great historical issues are said to be the outcome of popular tendencies, racial characteristics, political developments, the physical characteristics of the country, climate, food, etc.

There may be some truth in this view of history; but it leaves out of account two important factors—(1) personal character, (2) accident. The word "evolution" will not account for everything. Great men, through force of personal character, have profoundly changed the course of events. A little accident, occurring at a critical moment, has decided great issues. Of the effect of accident a few examples are given in the present essay.

The battle of Hastings (now pedantically called the battle of Senlac) was decided by an arrow that pierced the eye of Harold. But for that accident William might have been repelled, and England would have been spared the disaster of the Norman Conquest.

Louis, the son of the King of France, was invited over to take the throne of England by the barons, when they found King John too strong for them. He was received with acclamation in London, and would have been crowned at Westminster, if the crown had not been carried off by John in his flight. This accident saved England from becoming a French kingdom subordinate to the throne of France.

The Little Maid of Norway.—She was heiress to the kingdom of Scotland; and it had been agreed between the English and the Scotch that the thrones should be united by the marriage of the Little Maid with the son of Edward I. But she died on the voyage. The accident of her death prevented the union of the crowns, and led to a long series of sanguinary conflicts.

The fog at Lützen.—Gustavus Adolphus, riding in advance of his troops, was for a moment lost to their view in a fog, cut off, and killed. His death was an irreparable loss to Sweden and to the Protestant cause in Europe, A. D. 1632.

Early death of Edward VI., 1553.—This boy came to the throne in 1547, at the age of ten. In his religious views he was an ultra-Protestant. Had he lived long enough, the religious revolution would have run its full course, and there would have been no reign of Bloody Mary.

Prince Henry, the eldest son of James I., was the darling and hope of the nation. He longed to set Raleigh free, and was the support of an unpopular throne. But he died at nineteen. His death made way for Charles, whose name is the knell of doom. Henceforth the conflict between king and parliament was inevitable.

The landing at Torbay of William III.—When he first put out to sea, a storm scattered and drove back his fleet. A change of wind saved the expedition, and he landed with his troops at Torbay. Here there was no king's army to oppose him; and the king's fleet in the Channel had not time to catch him (A.D. 1688). The change of wind saved England.

Corsica was once British, and Napoleon a British subject. But England gave it up. France annexed the island, and with the island Napoleon, who used her as the tool of his own ambition for the subjugation of Europe.

Consider how different might now be the relations between England and Germany, if the Emperor Frederick's reign had not been cut short by cancer, or between England and France, if the young prince Napoleon had not been killed by Zulus in South Africa.

II. THE EXECUTION OF CHARLES I.: ITS PROVOCATION AND CONSEQUENCES.

(*Daily Telegraph*, 19th October 1900.)

How the Civil War arose.—It was a dispute over the prerogative of the Crown. Charles intended to destroy the Parliament and reign as absolute monarch after the French and Spanish models. He believed he had divine sanction for this theory of kingship; but the nation, as represented by the Parliament, did not agree with him.

Why did he fail?—He might probably have succeeded, had he but had a standing army, had he trusted Strafford as implicitly as the French king trusted Richelieu, and had he not made the mistake of thrusting an obnoxious ecclesiastical system upon the Presbyterians of Scotland.

The character of Charles.—His character was the chief cause of his failure. He was incapable of running straight or of keeping faith with any one. He broke the hearts of all who served him, so that he at last convinced friends and foes alike that no reliance could be placed on him. Perhaps his notions of divine right absolved him, as he thought, from the duty of keeping his word.

First aims of the rebels.—The rebels had no wish either to destroy the monarchy or to slay the king. Their desire was to keep him, but to keep him in order. After the battle of Naseby (1647), when the king was a prisoner, Cromwell did his best to set him on the throne again. He failed, because Charles could not rid himself of his duplicity, and was scheming to hang the Moderates, who honestly tried to save him.

Second Civil War.—When the king appealed for the second time to the sword (1648), he sealed his own fate. They found that so long as he lived there was no chance of peace. The extreme Independents decided that justice must be done on "the man of blood." It was the army which defeated him, and it was the army which dictated his execution.

The execution was an act of war. It is vain to discuss the justice of the execution. Charles had appealed to the sword, and he had lost. The execution was just as defensible and just as assailable as

the war itself. The high court of justice which condemned him was hardly better or worse than a drum-head court-martial.

Defence of the execution.—The regicides treated Charles precisely as Charles, if he had won the game, would have treated them. His attempt to seize the five members in 1642 shows clearly enough how Charles would have acted if he had had the chance. A man who could sign the death-warrant against his staunch supporter, Strafford, would have been glad enough to order the execution of those who had made war against him.

Uselessness of the execution.—It removed no old difficulties, while it added new ones. Cromwell, notwithstanding his high aims and vigorous government, left behind him the two enemies against which he had contended all his life—anarchy and the Stuarts.

III. ADDISON'S *SPECTATOR*: ITS HISTORY AND CHARACTER.

Why called Addison's.—Because he wrote about half the numbers, and wrote the best ones. But it was founded by Steele.

Why it was started.—The *Tatler*, a tri-weekly, founded by Steele in April 1709, was closed on 2nd January 1711. This was mainly a newspaper on current political and social events. The new serial, the *Spectator*, was started as a daily; it was to give no news of any kind, but restrict itself to manners, morals, and literature.

The first number.—Appeared on 1st March 1711, written by Addison. The *Spectator* himself is here described:—a University graduate, who had travelled in Europe on classic ground, on his return fixed his residence in London, and studied all forms of London life;—bashful and silent except in his own small circle of friends. Here Addison describes himself.

The second number.—Written by Steele; describes the other members of the club, four of whom—the templar, the clergyman, the soldier, and the merchant—are not of much interest, while the other two—Sir Roger de Coverley and Will Honeycomb—are the leading characters of the journal, the former an old country baronet and the latter an old town-rake.

Main thread of the story.—Sir Roger comes up to town to see his friend "Eugenio" (Prince Eugene), goes with the *Spectator* on the water to Spring Gardens, walks among the tombs in the Abbey, visits the Exchange, and sees the "Distressed Mother" acted. In the summer the *Spectator* visits Sir Roger, is charmed with the old house, the old butler, and the old chaplain, eats a jack caught by Will Wimble, rides to the assizes, and hears a point of law discussed by Tom Tonchy. In the end a letter from the butler brings to the club the news that Sir Roger is dead. Will Honeycomb tells us a great deal about his London life; marries and reforms at sixty. The club breaks up, and the *Spectator* resigns his functions.

First foretaste of a novel.—As a picture of manners both rural and metropolitan, the *Spectator* may be called a novel without a plot. The first novel with a plot was written by Richardson, who, however, was not equal to Addison in the portraiture of manners.

Variety of contents.—Day after day came essays on all kinds of subjects—fashionable follies, fashions in dress, fables, allegories

eastern apologues, religious meditations, ethieal discussions, character-sketches. Imaginary letters on various subjects written by imaginary persons.

Literary eritieisms.—Before Addison, literary eritieism was very little known. He wrote a series of valuable eritieisms on *Paradise Lost*. He raised his voice against the contempt shown for our old national ballads. In this respect he was a forerunner of Percy and Sir Walter Scott.

Success of the *Spectator*.—Unprecedented. The demand for particular papers sometimes reached 20,000 a day. Population of England then seareely a quarter of what it is now, and the proportion of readers very much less. Seareely a shopkeeper or farmer in that day ever opened a book.

End of the *Spectator*.—The stamp tax imposed in 1713 was fatal to many journals. The *Spectator* succumbed on 20th December 1714, the date of the last number. It was the prospect of having to close the journal that led its authors to announce so unexpectedly the death of Sir Roger de Coverley.

IV. POSITION AND PHYSICAL FEATURES OF BRITAIN: THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE HISTORY AND CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.

(Maekinder's *Britain and the British Seas*.)

From the shallowness of the sea that flows between Britain and the Continent it may be inferred that they were once united. The Strait of Dover is so shallow, that were St. Paul's Cathedral sunk in its deepest part, the dome would be seen above the water. The same may be said of any part of the sea around Great Britain. Yet the sea is deep enough to make Britain an island,—a fact on which her history has very largely depended.

Throughout the whole period of ancient and medieval history Britain was practically the western end of the world, protected from interference by its insularity, but yet in touch with European civilisation. When Julius Cæsar invaded Britain, the event was looked upon as a romantic adventure, which added much to his fame.

The discovery of America, with the development of trade and colonisation that followed, removed Britain from the circumference of the civilised world to the centre. From the waters of the North Atlantic (if we include the Mediterranean as an arm of the Atlantic), all the great historic parts of the Old and the New World can be approached.

The chief physical characteristics of Britain are the following:—

(1) Insularity.—This has preserved the continuity of social and political life. The Conquest of England by Canute, and afterwards by William, made no real break in the continuity of life and manners. The policy of Henry I. showed his preference of Britain to Normandy. All foreign elements have been assimilated. England worked out her own problems, first in religions and afterwards in political freedom, without foreign interference or foreign direction.

(2) Accessibility.—This has admitted stimulus from without and prevented stagnation within. Saxons, Danes, Normans, Angevins,

Flemings, Dutch, Huguenots, have all come into the island in turns. The same cause (accessibility) has been equally useful for purposes of outlet. The mixed stock, to which we give the name of Briton (including the aboriginal Celts as well as the immigrants named), has produced the most adventurous explorers, and founded the greatest and most flourishing colonies. It has also produced the greatest inventors: steamships, railway engines, and the electric telegraph all came from England.

(3) Productiveness.—The soil and climate are favourable to fertility in plant-life and to the growth of a vigorous race. Though agriculture is less prosperous than it was, this is not the fault of the soil, but is owing to foreign imports, which are admitted free of duty. No country produces finer cattle, finer sheep, finer horses, or finer vegetables. Nowhere is the grass so rich. The climate, though moist and foggy, is bracing and more equable than that of Europe or North America.

(4) Mineral wealth.—The deposits of coal and iron, in which Britain abounds, are the mainspring of modern industrial life, and their application to machinery of all kinds gave us the start of other nations.

(5) Inter-penetration by arms of tidal sea.—This has given us a succession of magnificent harbours, which are indispensable to commerce. The same cause has furnished unusual facilities for ship-building.

V. GREAT HISTORICAL ISSUES DECIDED AT SEA.

The greatest crisis in the history of ancient Greece was the invasion by Xerxes. After the destruction of Leonidas at Thermopylæ, Xerxes led his forces south and occupied Athens and Attica. The only chance left to the Athenians and their allies lay in their ships. The allied fleet, consisting of 366 ships, collected at Salamis, where the great sea-fight was fought, the result of which so alarmed Xerxes that he returned to Persia with the greater part of his army.

The long struggle between Rome and Carthage was really decided at sea. Rome was not safe so long as Carthage could land fresh troops in Italy. The decision of Rome to defeat Carthage on her own element and carry the war into Africa, sealed the fate of Hannibal, and left Rome mistress of the Mediterranean and of all the countries surrounding it.

The great sea-fight at Actium, 31 B.C., between Augustus and Antony, was really a decisive historic struggle between East and West. The victory of Augustus, who was already in possession of the western provinces of the Roman empire, regained for Rome the eastern provinces, of which Antony had long been master. Antony had formed a scheme of founding an eastern empire which should rival that of Alexander the Great.

The fleet designed and built by Alfred the Great, and carried to still greater perfection by his son, put an end to the incursions of Danish pirates and forced them to turn their attention to the French coast, where they founded Normandy. If Alfred's predecessors had possessed such a fleet, the Danes could not even have landed.

Little is now heard of the battle of Lepanto (1571), which broke the power of the Turks at sea. This was fought by John of Austria, aided by the Venetians. It gave a decisive check to the Turks, and the news was received with delight by all Christian Europe.

The long struggle between England and Spain was fought out at sea. Defeat of the Armada in 1588. Capture of Jamaica, 1655.

The attempts made by Louis XIV. to reinstate James II. on the throne of England were frustrated by England's command of the sea. Battle off Cape la Hogue, 1692.

The victory of Nelson in Aboukir Bay, August 1798, and the assistance given by means of the English ships to the Turks in Syria in 1799, convinced Napoleon of the hopelessness of his plan to found an eastern empire, for which purpose he had turned Mahomedan. The other victories of Nelson baffled all his attempts to form a great confederacy of Europe under himself as emperor for the invasion and conquest of England.

The importance of sea-power is now recognised by every civilised country in the world. Each is straining every nerve to increase its navy; and the policy pursued by England is to have a navy equal to those of any two foreign powers combined. Such is the warning given by history. Meantime activity is no longer centred in the Mediterranean, as it was in ancient and mediæval times. The Atlantic and Pacific Oceans have become the highways to new continents or to parts of continents that in former times were not in commercial touch with Europe.

VI. THE RENASCENCE.

In what sense are we to understand the word "Renaissance"? It means literally "rebirth." We may take it to mean the rebirth of Europe, *i.e.* its reawakening in many different directions from the long torpor of mediæval stagnation. Or we may take it in the narrower sense of the Revival of Learning; *i.e.* the recovery or rediscovery (by the scholars of Europe) of the classical literatures of Greece and Rome. The second rebirth was a particular phase of the first.

Great changes in the world's history come gradually. Yet if we must fix upon some date as the starting-point of the new era, we name the year 1453, when Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks. The three lights, which had guided or were said to guide the course of the Middle Age, were the Eastern empire seated at Constantinople, the phantom of the Western empire (called the Holy Roman empire), which flitted like an *ignis fatuus* between Germany and Italy, and the Papacy seated at Rome. All three lights were now put out or dimmed. The first was extinguished in 1453; the second had long ceased to be a serious political factor; and the third was passing into a new phase. The Roman Church had not waived any of her claims to be the one centre of religious truth for the whole world; but the days of anathemas and interdicts were passed, and the Papacy was assuming the status of a petty Italian principality.

Other great events or movements accompanied the change: the establishment of well-marked and fully formed national units, such as England, France, Spain, Italy, Germany, each with its own separate language and literature; the inventions of paper, the mariner's compass, gunpowder, and printing; the decay or disappearance of the feudal system throughout Europe; the discovery of new islands and continents beyond the ocean, and of a new sea route to Southern Asia; the substitution of the Copernican for the Ptolemaic system of astronomy and the new conceptions of the universe to which it gave rise. As when nature bursts into new life with the return of spring, the sap was rising all over Western Europe with the revival of knowledge.

Men's minds had been tied long enough to a Latin translation of an Arabic translation of the Greek philosopher, Aristotle, out of which was constructed the soul-enslaving Trivium,—the collective name for a subtle system of grammar, logic, and rhetoric,—on which education was based. The Latin classics were not taught at all. Greek was not heard of, except as a vague tradition. The intellect of Europe had vainly exercised itself in the Trivium like a squirrel in its revolving cage, and now at last woke up to the fact that it had made no progress.

The Renaissance or revival of genuine classical studies was followed by the reformation of religion. Greek scholars, driven out of Constantinople by the Turks, spread over Europe and found a home in Italy, where at first they were patronised by the Popes. The revived study of Greek poets, historians, and orators led to the discovery or rediscovery of the Greek Testament, and the ground was thus prepared for the preaching of Luther. The Reformation thus grew out of the Renaissance. Greece arose from the grave with the Bible in her hand.

England, cut off by the sea from the Continent, was rather late in feeling the vibration. The year 1536, when Henry VIII. passed the Act of Supremacy through Parliament, may be said to mark the beginning of the new era. In England the Renaissance and the Reformation came, not in succession, as they had done elsewhere, but simultaneously. By this time the Greek and Latin authors had been collected, printed, and annotated in Europe, and their influence had permeated Italian and French literature. England's turn was now come. Sir Thomas More, Colet, Ascham, Cheke, and Camden belonged to the first generation of scholars versed in the new learning. Public schools and colleges adopted the new methods of study. Learning was no longer confined to the clergy. The same age saw translations of Greek, Roman, and Italian models,—Chapman's *Homer*, Phaer's *Virgil*, Harrington's *Orlando*, Fairfax's *Jerusalem Delivered*, North's *Plutarch*, the last being the source from which Shakespeare drew the originals of some of his plays. Several translations of the Bible into English appeared in succession,—Tyndale's in 1526-1530, Coverdale's in 1535, Matthew's in 1537, Taverner's in 1539, the Bishops' Bible in 1568, and the Authorised Version now in use in 1611.

In the Elizabethan age we have three great representatives of the Renaissance: Spenser, the author of the *Fairy Queen*, an allegory

of marvellous originality and beauty; Shakespeare, master of the drama for all ages; and Bacon, the founder of a new method of research, to which he gave the name of *Novum Organum*.

VII. EFFECTS OF THE RENAISSANCE ON MODERN EDUCATION.

To understand the tendencies of education at the present day we must study the past. In studying the past we must go back to some period in which the direction of education, like the course of a river, takes a new bend. Such a period was the Renaissance or the Revival of Learning.

What was it, then, that underwent a revival at that time? It was the study of the Greek and Latin classics and the appreciation of literary beauty which they inspired. The fugitives from Constantinople, which was taken by the Turks in 1453, brought with them to the west of Europe the long-neglected classics of Greece and Rome. The study of these masterpieces opened up a new vista of thought,—a discovery which in the intellectual world was as important as the discovery of America in the physical.

Europe woke up at last from its long sleep. Henceforth the only educational aim was the study of the ancient classics. The educated man was the classical scholar. Even at the present day, when we say that a man is well educated, we usually mean that he is well versed in Latin and Greek.

The effect of the Renaissance on the state of modern education shows itself in the following ways:—

(1) The preponderance given to the ancient classics (which are called the Humanities from *litera humaniores*) has kept out, or at least checked, almost every other kind of study. What at public schools is called “the modern side,” consisting of science, mathematics, and modern languages, is simply the reaction against the excessive and almost exclusive study of the ancient classics. In the large public schools, in the endowed “grammar schools” scattered all over England, and in the joint-stock company schools started on the same model, like those at Marlborough, Clifton, Cheltenham, and elsewhere, a modern side has been introduced; but it still holds the second place, the first being given to classics.

(2) For a long time past, up to a very recent date, the study of the ancient classics banished literature from the schoolroom,—so far at least as the bulk of the students was concerned. But what is literature? It means at any rate something that the student admires, and admires because he *understands*. To an ancient Greek the study of Homer or Æschylus was a study in literature. He understood and felt the force of what he studied, because it was written in his own language. The English schoolboy has been less fortunate. He has been forced to go on with Latin and Greek long after he has given decisive proof of his inability to appreciate their beauty as literature. It is only the accomplished scholar who can do this. To the great majority of students the study of an ancient classic is merely a puzzle in grammar, parsing, and construing, the last of which is got over with the help of cribs. For the sake of the few students who can become real scholars, the time of every other

student is wasted. Almost every student could acquire a taste for literature, if the literature presented to him were in his own language. The study of English literature, which has at last been taken up and made part of almost every school curriculum, is, like "the modern side" described already, a reaction against the mischievous influence of the Renaissance.

Yet we must be thankful to the Renaissance for the great work that it accomplished, and not condemn it because educationists preserved its traditions too long, and applied them too rigorously.

VIII. THE MASTERY OF THE PACIFIC.

The mastery of the Pacific is the question of the twentieth century. It has come to the front only since the Chino-Japanese war, when Japan ceded everything on receipt of a war indemnity, Germany seized Kaio-Chau on a false pretence, Russia seized Port Arthur in retaliation, and England Wei-hai-Wei in self-defence. In ancient and medieval times the history of the world centred round the Mediterranean. After the discovery of America a fresh centre was found in the Atlantic. Now a third great centre is found in the Pacific.

The last came late into notice, because the great continents of Asia and America barred the way, the progressive nations in each continent being on the side furthest from the Pacific, and the backward ones on the nearest side. Now all is changed. The Suez Canal has opened a new route from Europe by water. A trans-Isthmian canal will shortly open a short cut from the eastern ports of the United States. A transcontinental railway through Northern Europe and Northern Asia has made a new opening to the Pacific overland. Several transcontinental railways have done the same work on the American side. The Pacific is now well within reach both by sea and land.

We cannot prophesy who will be the future masters of the Pacific, or in what proportions the mastery will be divided. But we may describe the countries most concerned in the question, and attempt to form some idea of their respective prospects.

The United States.—Not only have they spanned their own continent by more than one railway route, but they have stepped over sea to the Sandwich Islands, the Philippines, and the Samoas; they have acquired the fine harbour of Honolulu in the first, Manilla in the second, and Tutuila in the third. These acquisitions give them a great hold on the Pacific.

Russia.—The oceanic trade of Russia is insignificant, and the population of Asiatic Russia very small. But Southern Siberia marches with Northern China, and the naval base at Port Arthur is likely to give Russia a great deal of influence at Peking. At present Russia cannot compare with the United States either in naval power or in wealth or in trade enterprise. But the situation may alter, if Russian colonisation sets in towards the Pacific coastlands.

England.—England's prospects in the Pacific depend on five main factors. (a) The naval bases that she possesses in China itself, viz., Wei-hai-Wei, Hong-Kong, and the coast facing Hong-Kong. More-

over she has the promise of the reversion of Port Hamilton; and the bulk of the Chinese trade is already in her hands. (b) The Indian empire.—This vast empire not only has a great trade with China, but can furnish troops at short notice in almost indefinite numbers. It was by Indian troops that Peking was entered, when the Legations were in imminent danger. (c) The Malay Peninsula.—Here England is the predominant power, and has a fine harbour in Singapore. (d) Australasia.—The great island-continent of Australia has been politically united into a commonwealth under the English flag. It has a great future before it, and will some day have a fleet of its own and an immense commerce. England has other possessions in Borneo and New Guinea. (e) Canada.—On the Pacific slope of Canada England has everything necessary for the creation of a fresh base. Canada, united into one under the name of the Dominion, has a transeontinental railway of her own, vast mineral wealth still unexplored, and vast agricultural wealth still unused. In the long run Canada has as great a future as the United States.

Germany and France.—So far these have obtained but a slight footing. France, however, can count on the friendship of Russia.

Holland.—The Dutch East Indies show no signs of progress. Their old isolation will be put to a severe test between two such progressive countries as Australia and the United States.

Japan.—This island-empire holds a very commanding position in the Far East, has great resources, and a very enterprising people. Japan has formed an alliance with England, for the benefit of both, and for the protection of Korea and China.

China.—This great country is the quarry over which the vultures are hovering. But some day, under the training to be given by Japan, the only nation not hated as "foreign," China may wake up, and become the strongest power in the Pacific.

IX. SLAVERY IN ANCIENT AND MEDIEVAL TIMES.

How and when slavery arose.—Not in the Hunter state, when men were savages and slew their male enemies or ate them. If there was any work to be done, they made their wives do it. Not in the Pastoral state, when men cared only to defend their flocks and lived on little else. It arose in the Agricultural or settled state, when slaves were wanted by the ruling or warrior class to work in the fields or in handicrafts.

Slavery at first a necessity.—To primitive men labour is so repulsive that they will not work except under compulsion. Compulsion gradually produces an industrious habit. Habit becomes second nature, and second nature is hereditary. Thus voluntary labour eventually supersedes enforced labour.

Evil of slavery.—Though a necessity at first, it is attended with many evils. Injury to the slave himself—sense of personal dignity destroyed. Injury to the master—loss of self-control, exposure to flattery; familiarisation of the young with vice, lowering of the moral tone in domestic life.

In ancient communities which had made considerable advance in civilisation, slavery was retained long after the necessity ceased to

exist. Ownership in slavery was property. Vested interests always find keen supporters, who block the way to reform.

Slavery in Greece.—In the warlike kingdom of Sparta the Helots were a caste of slaves, who did all the manual work. In the democratic state of Athens there were about 60,000 citizens against 200,000 slaves. Slaves employed in domestic service, agriculture, mines, manufactures, commerce, ships, and sometimes the battlefield. Constant warfare among the Grecian states; prisoners of war taken into slavery; Greeks enslaved to Greeks.

Slavery in republican Rome.—A practical necessity for several centuries to the military and aggressive mission of Rome. But Rome paid the penalty. Several insurrections during the republic. The secession to Mons Sacer in 493 B.C. was a revolt of men reduced to slavery for debt. The servile insurrection in 73 B.C. under Spartacus taxed all the resources of Rome. His army largely consisted of enslaved Thracians, Germans, and Gauls, besides enslaved Italians.

Slavery in imperial Rome.—By the restriction of the empire to certain fixed limits and the stoppage of fresh conquests, there was no opportunity of getting fresh slaves from without as heretofore. The diminished supply favoured the growth of free labour within the empire. Roman citizenship was more and more widely extended in all the provinces and among all classes: a Roman citizen could not be a slave. Laws passed by the Christian emperors undermined the foundations of slavery.

From slavery to serfdom.—A Roman "colonus" (cultivator) was, in the earlier days of the empire, a freeman, who took land on lease and paid rent for it in money or in kind. In the fourth century the name was also given to a cultivator who, though personally free, was attached to the soil, which he transmitted to his descendants on the same conditions. He could not leave his land. In large estates it became the custom to settle rural slaves on the same terms as *coloni*. If the land were sold, the rural slave had to be sold with it. Thus the condition of colonus and slave became practically the same. When the two classes intermarried, no distinction was left. This was the origin of the serfdom or "villenage" which prevailed in the Middle Ages.

Disappearance of serfdom.—Serfdom was merely a stepping-stone to entire personal freedom. In towns and cities there was no place for the serf; any man could become a free labourer for hire. On rural estates the serf became by degrees a free tenant; for the proprietor of the estate found he could get higher rent by allowing fresh comers to compete for his farms. On the ecclesiastical estates (which were very numerous) it was a common custom for serfs to be liberated "for the love of God." Barons on their deathbeds sometimes liberated their serfs "for the benefit of their souls." Thus serfdom everywhere deid out at last.

X. SLAVERY IN MODERN TIMES.

The African negro.—In ancient times white was enslaved to white. In modern the negro was the only victim. Modern slavery is

the more discreditable, because the world was more advanced and negroes were more helpless. Negroes were kidnapped off the Guinea Coast, carried across the ocean into a new continent, placed under a master who, for his physical peculiarities, regarded him as not much better than a dumb animal, yet sometimes treated him a great deal worse.

Spain the first culprit.—Las Casas, Bishop of Chiapa, having visited Hayti, saw the sufferings of the Red Indians forced to labour in the mines. In 1517 he visited Spain and induced Charles to allow the importation of negroes, who could bear the labour better. The king consented. This was the beginning of the trade in African negroes. The Spanish islands first supplied were Hayti, Cuba, Jamaica, and Porto Rico.

Extension of the slave-trade.—Las Casas bitterly repented of the advice he had given. But the die was cast, and the trade extended. Black labour was wanted for the cultivation of rice, sugar, cotton, and tobacco in the hot settlements in North America. Sir John Hawkins, a daring seaman of Queen Elizabeth's reign, took large numbers of slaves to Spanish colonies, but none to English. In 1620 a Dutch seaman carrying a large cargo of blacks touched at Jamestown in Virginia, and sold them to tobacco-planters. This was the beginning of slavery in British America. The trade rapidly advanced. In 1791 the number of European factories for kidnapping and shipping negroes off the coast of Africa was forty—fourteen English, three French, fifteen Dutch, four Portuguese, four Danish. In England the centres of the trade were the ports of London, Liverpool, and Bristol.

Why slaves were needed.—Needed for labour in tropical fields, where white men cannot work. But this does not justify slavery. Many died on the voyage. Slavery proved unfavourable to population. Fresh importation needed to keep up the stock. As plantations extended, more slaves were wanted.

Public opinion in England.—Slavery was scarcely noticed at first. Known only to the slave merchants in the great ports. When the trade came into notice, it was denounced by all the best minds amongst poets, orators, lawyers, and divines. But as the nation at large saw little of it, the nation as a whole was not easily roused.

Action of Quakers.—The founder of the society, George Fox, was the first to raise his voice against the slave-trade in 1671. In 1761 they expelled all slave-owners from their community. A slavery abolition society formed in 1783. Quakers in America equally active. Pennsylvania (state founded by William Penn the Quaker) the centre of the abolition movement.

Other abolitionists.—Clarkson published in 1786 a book on *Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species*. Wilberforce, having read the book, undertook a legislative campaign in Parliament. Other supporters were Zachary Macaulay, father of Lord Macaulay, and formerly governor of Sierra Leone, an African home of negroes; Buxton, a distinguished philanthropist, who devoted his life to the improvement of prisons and the abolition of slavery. Cowper assisted the movement by his poetry. As usual, vested interests blocked the way.

Legislative Acts.—The Act passed in 1772 pronounced every

slave free as soon as he landed in England. In 1804 the importation of African negroes into English colonies was prohibited by royal proclamation. In 1811 slave-trading declared to be felony: the Act was carried in Parliament by Mr. (afterwards Lord) Brougham.

Final abolition of slavery in British empire.—In 1833 all slaves throughout the British empire were emancipated by Act of Parliament. The planters received many millions from Parliament as compensation.

Slavery in the United States.—Long before 1833 the United States had separated from the mother-country; otherwise slavery would have ceased there also. But the planters in the Southern States stuck to it. The question was made the subject of a four years' war between the Northern and the Southern States, which, in 1865, ended with the emancipation of all slaves in the Union. Longfellow's poetry had been as eloquent against slavery as Cowper's.

XI. THE BIRTH OF THE ENGLISH ARMY, AND WHAT PRECEDED IT.

(*Encyclopædia Britannica*, under ARMY; *Cromwell's Army*, by C. H. Firth: Methuen and Company.)

The birth of the army was Cromwell's New Model, 1645, by which he won the battle of Naseby and virtually decided the Civil War. That was the first standing army that England ever had. It was the father of our army to-day, and unlike anything that preceded it.

The Anglo-Saxon levies.—Under the Anglo-Saxon kings the fighting force was not a regular army, but something very like what the militia is now. Military service was not a duty to be rendered by a dependent to his lord, but one which a free citizen owed to his country. The sheriff could call out the county contingent,—the thanes as horsemen, the bulk of the people as footmen armed with swords and spears or with bows and spears. It was with a patriotic army such as this that Alfred defeated Guthrum.

The feudal contingents.—With the conquest of England William introduced the system of feudalism. He granted estates to his Norman followers on the promise of their furnishing contingents at their own expense. Military service thus became a duty to be rendered by a dependent to his lord, not by a citizen to his country. Saxon proprietors retained their estates on the same terms. All great estates in England thus became feudal.

Paid troops.—The system of paid troops grew out of the feudal system of William. A money-payment, called "escuage" or "scutage," was often given in lieu of personal service, and with this money troops were hired. Under the Plantagenets such payments were supplemented by grants from Parliament. But there was no standing army. Grants were made only for special expeditions.

Aims of Charles I.—The feudal system had died a natural death; but the system of paid troops survived. The attempt made by Charles I. to maintain a standing army by means of illegal exactions was the main bone of contention between him and the Parliament. To assist his brother-in-law, the Elector Palatine, he raised 10,000 paid troops. The refusal of Parliament to grant the money led to forced loans and other illegal exactions. The army on its return

was billeted on the people. The king was then forced to sign the Petition of Right, which bound him not to keep a standing army without the consent of Parliament. Further disputes about the army question led to the civil war between king and Parliament.

Cromwell's army, the New Model.—With this army he first overthrew the monarch, and then the Parliament. This force of 80,000 men was maintained as a standing army till Cromwell's death. It was the model of the army of to-day, which, in all but arms and equipment, is very like its progenitor.

Charles II. and James II.—Cromwell's army was disbanded on the Restoration. After the recent experience the idea of a standing army was scouted. But a force of "guards and garrisons"—about 16,000 men—was maintained for home defence. James raised a force of 20,000, and formed a large camp at Hounslow. But he was soon afterwards expelled from England.

William III. : The Mutiny Bill.—James's efforts to recover his crown, the threats of civil war, and the certainty of foreign war (from France) made a standing army necessary under William. A regiment favourable to James had mutinied. But the king had no legal power to deal with the mutineers. So the Mutiny Bill was passed, 1689, giving the king's officers power to try soldiers by "Court Martial." This Bill required renewal every year, and one clause of it allowed the king to keep a certain number of soldiers for twelve months. The army thus became a constitutional force ; for if Parliament did not meet to re-enact the Bill, the sovereign would have neither army nor the money to pay for one.

XII. THE AUXILIARY FORCES.

Under this name are included the militia, the yeomanry, and the volunteers. All forces not belonging to the regular or standing army are called "auxiliary." The standing army consists of hired soldiers who must live in barracks. Not so the auxiliary forces.

(a) *The Militia*.—The oldest force in Britain. Dates back, under the name of Fyrd, to Anglo-Saxon times. Every shire, at the bidding of the sheriff, was required to furnish a contingent of horsemen and footmen on emergencies. They paid their own expenses or were chargeable to the county. They were soldier-citizens, as the militia now are.

With feudalism, introduced by the Norman Conquest, came a very different system. But the old system survived in other forms. Under the name of "train bands" (trained bands) it became conspicuous in Tudor and Stuart times. The London train bands especially gave great help to the Long Parliament against Charles I.

By a statute of Charles II. the militia of each county was placed under the Lord-Lieutenant of the county. It had a few weeks' military training each year, at the cost of the local authority. At other times it was a civilian body, receiving no pay, each man following his own pursuits, like the present militia. It was the army of the nation as distinct from the hired troops of the king.

Reconstituted about 1750. More control given to the Crown. A quota was fixed for each county, to be raised by ballot from men

between eighteen and forty-five, if men did not enlist voluntarily. While out on service, or during the term of annual training, they were placed under the Mutiny Act, and on the same pay (from Government) as the regulars. Its use, however, was for home defence, not for foreign service.

But in the Peninsular War its distinctive character as a defensive force was discarded. It contributed largely to the army employed by Wellington in Spain. In the long peace that followed it fell into decay, and almost died out; but in 1853 (Crimean War) it was revived with vigour, and did much garrison duty not only in the United Kingdom but in the Mediterranean, besides contributing some 30,000 men to the campaign in Russia.

In 1871 the control of the militia was taken from the Lord-Lieutenant of the county and vested wholly in the Crown. It has now virtually become part of the regular forces, but with some limitations as to the length, the locality, and other terms of service. It forms a valuable reserve, and is one of the sources from which the regular army is recruited. It rendered valuable assistance in the South African War. The ballot is not now in force, but could be revived if necessary. In the Dominion of Canada an admirable militia force has been organised, similar to that of England.

(b) *Yeomanry*.—A volunteer cavalry force, consisting mainly of gentlemen or wealthy farmers, who find their own horses, but are supplied by Government with arms and ammunition, and receive an allowance for uniform. In the wars that followed the French Revolution, when England was threatened with invasion, a great volunteer force was raised. When peace was restored, the infantry were disbanded; but the yeomanry or volunteer cavalry remained. The yeomanry may be called out to repress a popular riot as well as to repel foreign invasion. Intended only for home service, but they did admirable work in the South African War.

(c) *Volunteers*.—In 1859 it was believed that Napoleon III. was planning an invasion of England; and England had then many other troubles on hand. The War Office authorised the lord-lieutenants of counties to form volunteer corps. Hence began the movement which is still in active force and has apparently become a permanent national institution, a part of the regular defence of the country.

The movement was at first represented almost entirely by the wealthy and professional classes; and they paid all their own expenses. But, when invasion was no longer feared, the wealthier classes fell off. Their places were taken by the artisan classes, for whom the Government had to find all expenses of uniform, arms, military instruction, etc. It is now practically a force composed of all classes of workers.

It is a fundamental rule that volunteer corps must be led by their own officers. Though intended for home defence, several corps served in the South African War. The control has been transferred, like that of the militia, from lord-lieutenants to the Crown.

Cadet corps are now formed in almost all boys' schools of any importance. One of the most essential needs of the army is a separate department in the War Office for dealing with the auxiliary forces as a whole.

XIII. NEW FORMS OF LOCOMOTION AND THEIR RESULTS.

(*Fortnightly Review*, May 1902.)

One of the great aims and needs of mankind has been to make locomotion quicker and easier. Until the horse was broken in for riding or draught, men had nothing better to move upon than their own legs. The speed of the horse was long taken as measure of rapidity, as when we say "an hour's drive." The engines of steamships are still measured in terms of "horse-power," the horse being taken as the unit of motive force.

Railways.—Tramcars drawn by horses on wooden rails were used two hundred and fifty years ago for conveying coal to the seaport. By degrees steam-power was substituted for horses, and iron rails for wooden ones. Out of these colliery tramways arose railways for the conveyance of passengers. In 1825 the first railway was opened between Stockton and Darlington. George Stephenson was the engine-driver, and a signal-man rode in front on horseback. The maximum speed reached, and this rarely, was 15 miles an hour. Much carriage of coal, little of passengers.

This was the first railway ever made. Others soon followed. In 1838 a line was opened between Birmingham and London—112½ miles—and trains then ran at 20 miles an hour. This line had been preceded by the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1830, the success of which proved that a revolution had set in. We now say not "twenty miles from London," but "half an hour from London." Hourage is reckoned, not mileage.

The nineteenth century was the century of steam. The new century will be one of electricity. Electric force is being substituted for steam force, especially in the short-distance railways through or about London. A similar change is being made in all the European capitals. Many lines are laid in underground tubes.

Motor cars.—Also called automobiles, *i.e.* self-moved, or moved without horses. Omnibuses, two- or four-wheeled carriages, and dray-carts are now being propelled by some application of steam or electricity. The advantages are—(1) greater cleanliness of the streets; (2) greater speed of movement; (3) less expense; (4) less space occupied in public roads; (5) no fear of the horse being overworked. Motor cars which run on iron rails are called tramcars. But rails are not indispensable. It has been proposed to have roads specially made for rapid motor cars of any kind.

Bicycles, tricycles.—Of immense value to those who would otherwise have to walk on foot. Great saving of time and labour in going from place to place; a great source of health and recreation in the open air. Convenient in all stations of life from the workman upwards.

One great fact resulting from improved facilities (combined with cheapness) of locomotion is that of enabling working men to leave overcrowded areas and find more comfortable and more wholesome homes on the outside of great cities. The daily cost of cheap transit to and from work is covered by the lower house-rent. More space for children's games in the open air.

Another great result is the promotion of intercourse between

village and village or between village and town. Men deteriorate mentally as well as physically by always living in the same place within a narrow groove.

Bicycles may some day be used in war by foot soldiers: they may even supersede to some extent the use of horses for cavalry.

XIV. FICTION IN ENGLISH LITERATURE TILL THE CLOSE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. (Three essays.)

(a) *The age preceding the Elizabethan.*

Light literature in the form of fiction has always been in demand. Satisfies the need of mental recreation. Has been produced mainly in three different forms—(1) narrative poetry; (2) the drama; (3) the prose romance or novel. The third, though now by far the commonest, was the latest to appear.

The epic of Beowulf.—Recounts the great deeds of Beowulf, first in conflict with the monster Grendel, and afterwards with a fire-drake. The basis of the story is pagan, and belongs to a date preceding that of the conquest of Britain by Anglo-Saxons. The scene is laid among the Swedes and Danes, and there is no mention of England. After the conversion of the Angles and Saxons it was recast with such Christian elements as could be put into it.

Metrical romances.—Passing over the war ballads and Cædmon's religious poems we come to the rhymed narratives of chivalry. Among these we may mention *King Leir and his Daughters*, which furnishes the plot of one of Shakespeare's finest tragedies. These legends may contain perhaps some nucleus of fact, like the historical novel of the present day. But no attempt was made to sift fact from fiction, and fiction was freely used to heighten or embellish the story. Layamon's *Brut*, A.D. 1205, was "the beginning of story-telling in our land" (see Brooke's *English Literature*, p. 29). The main subject of this huge poem is King Arthur and the Round Table; but it professes to be a history of Britain from the time when Brut (Brutus), the great grandson of Æneas, first landed in our island.

Chaucer's Tales in verse (A.D. 1340-1400).—A vigorous national literature was aroused by the victories of Edward III. Chaucer studied Italian models, but being a thoroughly national poet he gave them an English dress. Throwing aside the legends or inventions of an obsolete past, he turned to the realities of modern English life. All the elements of the prose novel are seen in these metrical tales;—the stirring plot, the natural play of various characters, the mixture of grossness and tenderness, of love-songs and rough jokes, the portraits of actual beings belonging to real life and not to dreamland. A mere list of the pilgrims would give an inventory of English society as it existed in that day. No one, however, appeared to write such tales in prose, and so the novel was not born.

Malory's Morte d'Arthur (A.D. 1474).—The legend or myth of King Arthur and his knights. The book is a vast compilation in which the author has melted down and reduced to prose a large number of metrical tales about Arthur, Lancelot, Gawain, Galahad, etc. The change from Chaucer to Malory takes us back from reality

to dreamland. Before the novel could be born, it needed some one to combine the easy prose style of Malory with the character-sketches of Chaucer's verse.

The substance of Malory's work has been recently reproduced in blank verse by Tennyson in the *Idylls of the King*.

(b) *Elizabethan age.*

(See *The English Novel in the Time of Shakespeare*, by Jusserand.)

The intellectual activity of the nation was aroused by the Renaissance, the discovery of new continents and sea-routes, and the defeat of the Spaniards at sea. The Elizabethan age is the great age of the English drama; but it is less generally known that the same age was distinguished for the vitality of prose fiction and the first appearance of the English novel. Then, as now, the drama borrowed many of its plots from the novel; and most of the dramatists were also novelists. Shakespeare, however, was an exception. He wrote nothing but plays.

Tales in drama.—Tales were poured out like a flood, from such dramatists as Peele, Lodge, Marlowe, Green, Nash, Dekker, and, greatest of all, Shakespeare. Nineteen of Shakespeare's plots (all but one borrowed from some tale in circulation in England or elsewhere) belong to this class of fiction.

Tales in prose:—

(a) Lyly's *Euphues* (1580).—Euphues is a young Athenian (a contemporary of Lyly, not of Pericles), who goes to Naples and thence to England to study manners and governments. With Lyly commences the literature of the drawing-room. The book has a plot which, like that of most modern novels, centres round a love-story. But the plot is slender, and the story is padded with a great deal of moralising about marriage and religion and the duties of private life. In this respect Lyly is the predecessor of Richardson in England and of Rousseau in France. The great fault of Lyly is his high-pitched pedantic style, which has given rise to the word "euphuism." The style is ridiculed by Shakespeare in *Love's Labour Lost*. Lyly was the author of several comedies.

Lyly had a large number of successors and imitators in the field of prose fiction, though some of them did not follow his high-stilted style. Among the most famous were Thomas Lodge and Robert Greene. Both wrote tales in prose, though they are better known as dramatists. Lodge was the author of *Rosalind*, on which Shakespeare founded the plot of *As You Like It*. Greene was a great dramatist in his day, but he was a still greater novelist. His tales of real life forshadow to some extent the manner of De Foe.

(b) Sidney's *Arcadia*, a pastoral romance (1580).—Here we are thrown back again into dreamland, a land of Nowhere. His tournaments, conflicts with lions, bears, and enemies in disguise are all unreal. But his style is superior to that of Lyly. His heroines are as moral as Richardson's. One of them, a princess, is called Pamela. Her name, character, and trials,—everything except her rank in life,—were borrowed by Richardson in his first novel, called *Pamela*.

Sidney wrote the *Arcadia* for his sister, the Countess of Pembroke.

Like Lyly's *Euphues*, it was a book for the drawing-room. It was frequently reprinted during the seventeenth century in France as well as in England.

(c) Thomas Nash, author of the first picaresque or realistic novel, 1567-1601.—If Lyly and Sidney, each in his own way and each with his own defects, were the forefathers of Richardson, Nash was the forefather of the comic and realistic novelists represented by Fielding and Dickens. The least known of his works, *The Life of Jack Hilton* (1594), was the best. Jack Hilton is a page, who accompanies his master, the Earl of Surrey, to the siege of Tournay under Henry VIII., and afterwards to Venice, Florence, and Rome. In describing the adventures of Jack Hilton, the author introduces us to all kinds of characters and scenes from the tavern to the palace, from the haunt of robbers to the papal court. In introducing historical characters and events into his fiction, Nash was in a humble way the predecessor of Scott, though we are not aware that Scott had ever seen his book.

Nash wrote a large number of short stories or pamphlets on particular events, which furnished the model to some of the descriptive or narrative numbers of the *Spectator*.

Among the imitators or followers of Nash were Chettle and Dekker. These men wrote dramas as well as novels and short stories. Shakespeare's Falstaff combines the witty page, Jack Hilton, with the fat old innkeeper, Scapin.

(c) *Between 1600 and 1800.*

The century following the Elizabethan is, so far as fiction is concerned, an almost total blank. First came the age of Puritanism, when the drama and the novel were both frowned against as frivolous and ungodly. Then came the age of violent political conflict, when life became too serious. Then came the reaction,—the age of vice, which continued to about 1685. Had a licentious novelist arisen at this time, he would have found many readers; but the field was taken by a licentious drama.

Pilgrim's Progress, by John Bunyan (1678-1684).—Though he lived far beyond the close of the Puritan age, his style and tone of thought are Biblical throughout. He was a man of the people, and his allegories are still read wherever the English language is spoken. His *Pilgrim's Progress* has proved to be a much more popular allegory than Spenser's *Fairy Queen*, because it is much more real and came home to the hearts of rich and poor alike. The story is subordinate to the moral teaching: yet there *is* a story, and so the book must be classed as fiction. It has been translated into every language in Europe.

Spectator (1711-1712).—The *Spectator* is not a novel, but it gave a foretaste of one. The character-sketches—Sir Roger de Coverley, Captain Sentry, Sir A. Freeport, etc.—the scenes of London and rural life, show that Addison would have made a good novelist, if he had thought of constructing a plot.

Daniel De Foe, *Robinson Crusoe*, 1719.—De Foe is the acknowledged founder of romance or the novel of adventure as distinguished from the novel proper which describes manners and private life.

“Romance” here means, not the dreamland of King Arthur and his knights or of Sidney’s *Arcadia*, which no one ever saw, but a tale of striking incident and adventure, having all the appearance of fact, and quite consistent with known conditions of life. The story of Robinson Crusoe is so true to nature that it still charms all classes of readers. The same cannot be said of Sidney’s *Arcadia*, or Malory’s *Morte d’Arthur*, or Spenser’s *Fairy Queen*. De Foe wrote several other romances, which are now less known. All are intensely realistic. His *History of the Great Plague* has been quoted as if it were real history. In none of his stories is there anything like a subtle delineation of character. Where he excels is in the invention and relation of striking incidents. Captain Marryat’s stories, written in the nineteenth century, are of the same kind.

Richardson, Fielding.—We come at last to the novel of manners and character, introduced by Richardson’s *Pamela* (1740) and by Fielding’s *Joseph Andrews* (1742). In Richardson we are reminded of the serious vein in Lyly’s *Euphues* and Sidney’s *Arcadia*; in Fielding of the comic and realistic vein in Nash’s *Jack Hilton*.

The honoured place that Richardson holds in literature as the founder of the modern novel is partly due to accident. He had been asked by a publisher to write a series of “Familiar Letters,” as a guide to the young; but it struck him that it would be better to give the letters a more practical and connected character by interweaving into them the incidents of a story. This led to the composition of *Pamela*, the letters of a servant girl, who after a series of dangers and temptations becomes married to the gentleman of rank in whose house she served. To ridicule Richardson’s *Pamela*, Fielding made a hero of Joseph Andrews, the brother of that lady, and Pamela herself he placed more than once in a rather discreditable position. Joseph is a footman, who resists the advances of the titled lady in whose service he is; but instead of marrying out of his rank, as Pamela is made to do, he marries a pretty modest girl of his own station. In *Pamela* there is a tone of vulgarity which is corrected in *Joseph Andrews*.

Pamela was followed by *Clarissa Harlowe* and *Sir Charles Grandison*, both like *Pamela* written in the epistolary form, of which Richardson was master. The same form was adopted by Rousseau in *Nouvelle Heloise*, which was the first novel of manners and character written in France.

Joseph Andrews was followed by the celebrated *Tom Jones* (1749), one of the best pieces of character-painting to be found in literature, and by *Amelia* in 1751. Fielding was followed by Smollett and Sterne, both writers of a coarser mould. Sheridan borrowed some of his most popular characters from the novelists of his own day, just as Shakespeare did; but with this difference. Shakespeare borrowed names and incidents, but created the characters; while the Georgian dramatists borrowed their characters ready made from the novelists.

Rasselas, by Johnson, 1759.—This is a didactic novel, with a slender plot. The main purpose of the story is to teach the vanity of human wishes. The scene is purely imaginary, and gives a very false view of the real Abyssinia.

Vicar of Wakefield, by Goldsmith, 1766.—A pastoral or idyllic

tale, but as unlike as possible to Sidney's *Arcadia*. There is not a trace of the ideal or the heroic in it: this element had been completely banished from English fiction. Goldsmith's novel describes in an easy and natural style the simple loves and lives of country people, such as we afterwards see in the novels of George Eliot (*Silas Marner*, *Adam Bede*, *Felix Holt*).

Miss Burney's novels, *Evelina* (1778), and *Cecilia* (1782), have been called "the first novels of society." They were followed by Jane Austen's novels in the next century.

Prose fiction in all its forms was now fully started in its career. It remained for Scott to introduce one more variety,—the historical novel,—in the following century.

XV. THE HISTORICAL NOVEL.

If one of the functions of history is to describe the manners of the age to which the events relate, then every novel which is true to life might be called historical.

But the term "historical novel" is limited to those stories which either introduce some well-known historical person into the plot, or make the incidents of the plot hinge upon some great historical event. Of this kind of novel Sir Walter Scott was the founder. Nor has he ever been equalled since.

The Waverley Series (beginning with *Waverley* itself, published in 1814) consists of twenty-seven novels, of which nineteen are historical. Among the best known are:—*Ivanhoe*, relating to the twelfth century, which introduces us to King John and Richard I.; *Quentin Durward*, relating to the fifteenth century, which gives an admirable picture of the life and times of Louis XI. of France; *Kenilworth*, relating to the sixteenth century, which brings before us Queen Elizabeth and her favourite, the Earl of Leicester. The seventeenth century claims no less than five of Scott's novels, all of the highest order:—the *Fortunes of Nigel*, in which James I. is drawn to the life; the *Legend of Montrose*, in which we are introduced to a veteran trained in the Thirty Years' War under Gustavus Adolphus; *Woodstock*, in which Cromwell and his Ironsides are conspicuous; *Peveril of the Peak*, in which Charles II. and the Duke of Buckingham take an active part; *Old Mortality*, in which the Scottish Covenanters are exposed to the fire and sword of the soldiers of Claverhouse.

The Waverley novels are the finest series of historical novels ever written by a single man. Scott excels in the delineation of character no less than in the graphic narration of incident. His character of Rebecca, the Jewess, in *Ivanhoe* is one of the most perfect female characters ever drawn. His delineations of Louis XI. and Charles the Bold in *Quentin Durward* are accepted by the French as master-pieces. In the power of assimilating and making his own the characters that he describes he is scarcely, if at all, surpassed by Shakespeare.

Scott has found many successors in the historical novel. The most famous are—Kingsley, Bulwer Lytton, and, in a less degree, Thackeray and Dickens.

To Kingsley we owe *Hyppatia*, the scene of which is laid in

Alexandria, describing the Goths, the Christians of that day, and the last efforts made by expiring paganism; *Hereward the Wake*, who long carried on a successful struggle against the Normans in the Isle of Ely; *Westward Ho*, in which we sail with Raleigh, Drake, and Hawkins, visit the Spanish main and the American continent, and are present at the defeat of the Armada.

To Bulwer Lytton we owe *Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes*; *Harold, the Last of the Saxon Kings*; and *The Last of the Barons*, the most solidly historical of all his romances.

There are two different ways in which the mixing of history and fiction has been carried out. In the two writers last named history is put in the foreground, and fiction is merely an accessory. In Scott, however, the main actors and events in the story are fictitious, and the historical ones come in as it were by accident. Thus *Quentin Durward* describes the career of a young Scotchman of rank, who plays an extraordinary but wholly fictitious part in the disputes between Louis XI., King of France, and Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy. In fact Scott does not scruple to alter dates if it suits his purpose. Thus in the novel just named he antedates the murder of the Bishop of Liege by fifteen years.

The plan of Scott is the one followed by Thackeray and Dickens. Thus in *Esmond*, by Thackeray, we are introduced, in the course of the story, to Marlborough, Swift, Addison, and Steele; and in the *Virginians* to Chesterfield, Garrick, and Johnson, with Washington, Wolfe, and the American War in the background. Similarly, in *Barnaby Rudge* the main outline of the story is wholly fictitious, but the Gordon Riots are made to fall very naturally into the plot and are told with much historical freshness. In the *Tale of Two Cities* the main story, as before, is wholly fictitious, but it gives us a glimpse of Paris during the great Revolution.

It is questioned by some whether fiction should be thus mixed up with history. The mixture has long been allowed in the historical drama and in the historical epic. The mixture in the novel is more recent. In the reader's mind it may certainly tend to a confusion between fiction and fact. But to those who read history with care it renders the events much more interesting and impressive than they are when read in history alone.

XVI. THE HISTORICAL DRAMA.

(Partly based on *Spectator*, p. 980, 28th June 1902.)

The English historical drama finds no real parallel in the literature of any other European nation. Emerging from the Chronicle Play somewhere about the beginning of the last quarter of the sixteenth century, it reached its highest development during the last decade of the century, during which over twenty plays of the strictly historical type were produced. During the earlier portion of the next century it gradually lost itself in various by-channels of myth, invention, and adventure.

During the comparatively short time of its blossoming, say from 1587 to 1606, were produced a number of plays, out of which may be constructed a fairly continuous history of the main events of the

most important reigns, commencing with the reign of King John and ending with that of Henry VIII., the events of which were still fresh in the memories of many of the spectators.

It was in the hands of Marlowe, the predecessor of Shakespeare, that the historical play first assumed a rank above that of the chronicle play. His great drama of *Edward II.*, the forerunner of Shakespeare's *Richard II.*, was followed by *Edward III.*, the authorship of which is not known.

In writing historical dramas the playwrights,—Marlowe, Shakespeare and his contemporaries,—were satisfying the demand produced by the newly awakened sense of nationality, and sometimes perhaps were consciously aiming at providing a popular and dramatic history of England for the use of the largely illiterate public.

A medieval history of England can be reconstructed with a fair degree of completeness out of this series of historical plays. Such history has the advantage of preserving many picturesque incidents and stories, of which our sober text-books can tell us nothing. It is true that in point of merit, whether poetic or dramatic, there are but few dramas which can be mentioned along with the masterpieces of Shakespeare; but that is setting a very high standard.

The modern history of England,—the ages of Elizabeth, of the Stuarts, and of the Pretender,—are set forth to us mainly in the historical novel, of which Scott, like Shakespeare in the historical drama, is the main representative. Tennyson, however, has given us the historical drama of *Queen Mary*, and has added two more historical dramas,—*Harold* and *Becket*.

Shakespeare wrote historical dramas belonging to a different series,—*Macbeth*, *King Lear*, *Hamlet*, and three Roman plays,—*Coriolanus*, *Julius Cæsar*, *Antony and Cleopatra*. These are included among his tragedies, and not amongst his histories. In these the dramatic or tragic spirit predominates over the historical.

XVII. THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

(Partly based on *Spectator*, 30th August 1902.)

Named after James Monroe, President of the United States, 1817-1824, who announced the determination of the Republic to prevent any European kingdom from annexing any of the republics in North or South America. Various States in South America had lately become independent of Spain and Portugal, and he was determined that their freedom should not be interfered with. Whatever fell vacant in North America was to be appropriated by the United States.

More recently the doctrine was described by President Roosevelt in August 1902, in the following terms:—"The Monroe doctrine is simply a statement of our very firm belief that the nations now existing on this continent must be left to work out their own destinies among themselves, and that this continent is no longer to be regarded as the colonising ground of any European power. The one power on the continent that can make the doctrine effective is of course ourselves: for in the world as it is, a nation which advances a given doctrine that is likely to interfere in any way with other

nations must possess the power to back it up, if it wishes the doctrine to be respected."

This does not mean that the United States is bent on driving from the western continent those European powers that already hold possessions there. What is meant is that the European powers shall not extend their international system to the American continent. Europe has been the battlefield of nations from time immemorial,—Catholic powers against Protestant, Latin powers against German and against each other, Turk against Christian, etc. The United States is determined, by all the force she can muster, to keep her own continent clear of all such entanglements. The only way to secure this is to insist that the American continent is not to be open to the founding of new colonies or the acquisition of fresh territory by European powers.

How does this doctrine concern England? It suits England very well. We have already an immense dominion in North America—the Dominion of Canada, which will some day be one of the greatest powers in the world, in no respect inferior to the United States. We do not wish to seize fresh territory anywhere in South America. We have got all that we want; and we have no wish to see the peace of America disturbed by interference from Europe.

How does it concern Germany? It means that Germany will not be allowed to buy any of the West India Islands, say, from Denmark, or to conquer and hold any South American or Central American republic, or to acquire territory by a body of German settlers first making themselves into an independent State and then annexing themselves to Germany. Finally, if Holland were to be absorbed into the German empire, either compulsorily or voluntarily, Germany would not be allowed to retain those of the Dutch colonies which come within the scope of the Monroe doctrine.

We need not consider any other great European powers. The interest of France in America is very slight; Russia and Italy have no interest at all. Germany, however, is longing for an outlet for her superfluous population, and would like to found colonial settlements as England has done. The United States with her Monroe doctrine blocks the way.

Can the United States enforce the Monroe doctrine? It will be more difficult for her to do so now than it would formerly have been, because she has set the example of aggression and exposed herself to attack by the seizure of the Philippine and Hawaii Islands. Everything depends on whether she can maintain the mastery of the sea against the growing fleet of Germany.

One thing is certain. The friendship of England is becoming more and more indispensable to the United States. The States may be a match for Germany; but could not cope with the fleets of Germany and England combined. Neither could Germany venture to attack the States, if the latter were certain of help from England.

XVIII. AUTOBIOGRAPHIES.

"If any one professes to write a life, he must write it as it was. A man's peculiarities and even his vices should be mentioned,

because they mark his character." So said Dr. Johnson ; and to this every one will agree.

It is easy enough to act up to this rule, when a man is writing the life of some one about whom he can be quite impartial. But when he is writing his own life, we can hardly expect him to tell all that he knows about himself and lay bare all his faults to the world. "There is no man," said Voltaire, "but has some of the wild beast in him ; but there are few who will honestly tell us how they manage their wild beast." "There is no such flatterer," says Bacon, "as a man's self."

Rousseau professed to unbosom himself in the autobiography to which he gave the name of *Confessions* ; and probably he honestly believed that he did so. But a man cannot be a disinterested or even a clear-sighted judge of his own character. Any one who has read Morley's *Life of Rousseau* will feel that he has obtained a much sounder knowledge of the man than he could have got by reading Rousseau's life as written by himself. Morley consulted a great many other witnesses, and was a much better judge of Rousseau's life and character than Rousseau himself,—a man of erratic temperament, who could seldom write dispassionately about anything.

It might be thought that no one can be so well informed of a man's history as the man himself. But some of the best biographies in our literature have been written by persons not even acquainted with the man whose life they have told—Examples : Southey's *Life of Nelson*, and Foster's *Life of Goldsmith*. On the whole, perhaps, personal knowledge is the best qualification for a biographer ; but even then there is always the fear that the biographer will be too lenient to his friend's failings, and too enthusiastic about his virtues. Boswell has given us the best side of his friend Johnson, Johnson himself of his friends Savage and Pope, and Moore of his friend Byron. A man will seldom exhibit his secret heart, and least of all his weaknesses and vices, even to his best friend.

An autobiography, by giving only a part of the truth, may convey an impression that on the whole is false. It may be a disguise exhibiting not so much what a man really was as what he would have liked to be. John Bunyan, however, went to the opposite extreme. He painted himself a much greater sinner than he was. It suited his ideas of conversion to form this exaggerated opinion of himself. Scott, Moore, Southey, all began to write autobiographies ; but the task of continuing them was doubtless felt to be too difficult, and it was abandoned. Their lives have been better told by others than they could have been told by themselves.

The conclusion to be drawn is that biography, though one of the most valuable, is one of the most difficult kinds of composition ; and that an autobiography, though by no means useless, is not likely to be very accurate, and requires to be corroborated by outside impartial testimony. In the correspondence, sayings, notes, diaries, etc., of distinguished men we have valuable autobiographical hints and suggestions, of which a skilful biographer knows how to make proper use. Such hints, being unpremeditated, bring us nearer to the truth than formal attempts at self-portraiture.

XIX. IDEALS OF CHARACTER IN ANCIENT AND MODERN TIMES.

In ancient history there were two ideals which leading men made their models, viz. that of the Patriot and that of the Stoic. The patriot stands first in point of time: the Stoic came much later.

In Greece the noblest of all deaths was to die for one's country, and the highest aim, so long as life lasted, was to serve one's country. This was the ideal under which every Spartan citizen was trained. It was exemplified in the great instance of Leonidas at Thermopylæ. In Athens we have the patriotism of Solon, Aristides, Pericles, and Demosthenes. In Thebes we have the patriotism of Epaminondas.

In republican Rome the same principles were inculcated. Among the greatest examples were Brutus (by whom Tarquin was expelled), Fabricius, Paulus, Regulus, Scipio Africanus, Cicero.

The Stoic ideal came into force at a later period, when political activity was on the wane. Zeno, the Stoic, flourished long after Greece had lost her independence. Stoicism was the light that illumined pagan darkness under imperial Rome. One great example was Epictetus; another, the greatest example of all, was Marcus Aurelius, the emperor.

In the Middle Ages of Europe two entirely new types became prominent,—the Saintly and the Chivalrous. Among examples of the saintly ideal I include not only monks who separated themselves from the world and founded the great religious houses, but kings who strove to reign after the model of saints. In English history we have the case of Edward the Confessor, and in French history that of St. Louis, the most pious of kings.

The chivalrous ideal is exemplified in the legends of King Arthur and his knights, and in the personal characters of Edward III., the Black Prince, and Henry V. The Crusades gave scope to this chivalric sentiment in whatever parts of Europe knights and warriors could be found. The society of knights-errant for the defence of the weak and the oppressed is to be traced to the same ideal.

In modern times none of these four types, though all have survived in modified forms, is predominant. The ideal now chiefly venerated is success, or rather the ability which produces success. In England this tendency is especially noticeable. A man who rises to the top of his profession, no matter what the profession may be, becomes a man of mark, receives the greatest attention and respect everywhere, and is generally honoured with some political title. Examples:—Sir Henry Irving (actor), Lord Tennyson (poet), Lord Macaulay (historian, essayist, and poet), Sir Walter Scott (novelist and poet), Sir J. Wolfe Barry (bridge-builder), Sir Edward Russell (journalist), Sir John Aird (civil engineer), Sir Arthur Sullivan (composer), Sir Isaac Newton (mathematician), Sir Robert Ball (astronomer), Sir Christopher Wren (architect), Sir Thomas Lipton (tea-merchant, etc.), Sir Blundell Maple (furniture-manufacturer), Lord Armstrong (engineer), Lords Wolseley, Roberts, Kitchener (generals). A peerage was offered to Grote, the historian of Greece, but declined. The most successful schoolmasters are often made bishops, and thus become life-peers.

XX. MODES OF IMPROVING THE MIND.

There are in the main four modes of improving the mind,—reading or study, thinking or revolving things in the mind, writing, conversation.

Reading or study.—The motives may be various,—sometimes emulation or the shame of inferiority; sometimes ambition or the love of reputation; sometimes (and this is the highest motive) curiosity, or the love of knowledge,—the passion of searching for truth. Study will not thrive or last long under the first two motives: under the last it will expand and flourish. Curiosity is a passion that is intensified by indulging it. It is never wearied, never exhausted. One who is fond of knowledge is perpetually acquiring more.

Study is nothing if it is not earnest. A man should study as he would grasp a nettle: do it lightly, and it stings you; grasp it with all your strength, and you feel none of its asperities. There is nothing so unprofitable as languid study, fixing or trying to fix the attention on something that does not interest you, looking at the clock and wishing that the time was up.

To study successfully the body must be healthy, the mind at ease, and the time managed with prudence and economy. It is a good thing for the young to have two studies at least going on at the same time, one for one part of the day and another for another; and the studies should be of a different nature. The mind is refreshed by change of study, and lassitude is avoided. Not less necessary than change is recreation: the mind cannot always be on the stretch.

Study, like every other industry, must be steady, systematic, and pursued at regular hours. A great genius may do better, perhaps, by following the impulse of the moment, and working when he feels the inspiration on him. But ordinary men are not geniuses. They must parcel out their day judiciously, keep regular hours for work and recreation, and special hours for special work. One may feel disinclined, when the stated time comes round. But with five minutes' perseverance, the disinclination wears off. Make the beginning, and the inclination follows.

Revolving things in the mind.—We may think over a thing before we read about it, and we may revolve it in the mind after it has been studied in books. Both are useful practices.

The first is a good way of measuring one's own powers or defects. If we think of a thing first, we can observe, when we come to read about it, after what manner and in what light it has struck the mind of one superior to ourselves. We can then see whether we have been too rash or too cautious; what we have omitted, or in what we have exceeded. By this process we may catch the art of viewing questions in a just light.

It is very necessary to reflect upon and revolve what has been studied already in the book. It is vain and unprofitable to pile one fact upon another without making an attempt at comparing one with another, classifying, reconciling, and arranging. We have to acquire the art of referring all particular truths to some other truth or

truths more general. Facts must be assimilated, till they become part of one's mental organisation.

Writing.—Some men always read with a pen in their hand, and jot down any new thought that strikes them, or make a précis of the most salient points. The great use of writing is to ensure accuracy. Seldom or never can there be any accuracy of thought without accuracy of language. A man does not know how vague his thoughts are, till he begins to put them in words. Bacon has well said, "Reading makes a full man; conference a ready man; writing an exact man."

Conversation.—The advantage that this has over all the other modes of improving the mind is that it is the most natural and the least laborious. A book has no eyes, no ears, and no feelings. The best books are apt now and then to become a little wearisome; whereas a living book walks out with you, and varies his conversation and manner, and prevents you from going to sleep or becoming inattentive. Stand to your point in conversation; but whatever you do, avoid two things:—do not lose your temper or become impatient with your opponent: do not be uncandid. There are few things more irritating or less worthy of an intelligent being than want of candour.

XXI. WHY WE ARE TAXED.

There are some parts of the world (and a few centuries ago there were many more), where neither life nor property is safe, and no man can hope to escape being robbed, unless he is well armed and on his guard. In such countries men are savages, or nearly savages. There can be very little agriculture; for no one is certain of reaping or gathering in his own crop. Commerce is impracticable; for the roads are not safe, and there is little or nothing to buy or sell.

The remedy for this state of things is settled government. The office of a government is to *afford protection*. For this purpose it provides ships of war and bodies of soldiers, to guard against foreign enemies, pirates, bands of robbers, or rebels. It provides watchmen, constables, and other officers to apprehend criminals; judges and courts of justice for the trial of offenders, and prisons for confining them.

All these appliances cost money. Who is to find this money? Those who receive the benefit, viz. the people. Taxes are the price that the community pays for the benefit of protection. They answer to the hire which in private life we pay for services rendered.

Some people do not understand this, or do not recollect it. They look upon taxes as different from all other kinds of payment, quite forgetting that they receive something in exchange for the taxes they pay. The payment of a tax is as much an exchange as any other kind of payment. You pay money to the baker for the bread you eat, or to the miller for the flour of which bread is baked. Similarly you pay money to the government under which you live, for protecting you from being plundered, cheated, or murdered. If you had the burden of protection thrown upon yourself, it would cost you a great deal more than the taxes that you pay to the government, and the protection would be far less effective.

Taxes then are the hire or price paid to government for protection ; just as any other payment is made in exchange for anything that we want. But there is one great difference. Every other payment is left to a man's choice ; but the payment of taxes is compulsory. We have to pay them, whether we like it or not. If any one should say, "I prefer to protect myself, and therefore I decline to pay the taxes," the answer would be, "Then go away and live in some other country ; go and live among the savages, and live as they do ; but while you live with us, you must pay your share of the public burden. You are profiting, whether you desire it or not, from the protection afforded by fleets and armies and all other appliances provided for the public safety. It is impossible for us to protect ourselves and leave you out. Therefore you must either pay or go."

The government not only enforces payment, but decides how much each member of the community shall pay. But are the members of the community to have no voice in the matter ? This all depends on the form of government under which you are living.

All governments may, for the purposes of this exposition, be roughly divided into two main classes,—representative, and non-representative or absolute.

In a representative government, such as that of England, the people decide upon their own taxation, *i.e.* what amount of taxes each class in the community shall pay. But as it is impossible for *all* individuals to meet to decide this point among themselves, the nation or community is subdivided into certain parts, called constituencies ; and each constituency selects its own member or members to represent it in the national assembly, which in England is called the House of Commons. It is in this house, and this only, that taxation is decided on. The people, therefore, fix their own taxation through their representatives.

In a non-representative government the people have no voice. Everything is left to the will of the ruler or sovereign. So long as the sovereign is just, takes good advice, follows good precedents, and consults the interests of the people, this mode of taxation may be unobjectionable. But sometimes the autocrat may be oppressive, or so regardless of his subjects' interests as to leave them at the mercy of rapacious tax-gatherers, who, after satisfying the king, fill their own pockets. Such is said to be the state of things in Persia, Turkey, China, and Morocco.

XXII. THE FALSE IMPORTANCE ATTACHED TO THE WORD "REPUBLIC."

Words have had an extraordinary influence in the world,—in some cases a greater influence than things.

A good example of such influence is the word "republic." We hear a great deal about republics in ancient and in medieval history ; and at the present time there are some twenty States in the old and new worlds (mostly in the new) which call themselves republics. Yet there was not one true republic in ancient history ; not one in medieval ; and there are only two States (Switzerland and the United States) in modern times which are fully entitled to the name.

What is a republic? It is a form of government in which there is no king and no privileged class, and in which the people govern themselves by methods of their own choosing. In a recent dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain much sympathy was aroused in America for the former, because it was nominally a republic, and much animus against the latter, because it was nominally a monarchy. But there was far less democracy in Venezuela than in Britain.

Athens has always been quoted as an example of democracy in ancient times. Certainly there was no king at Athens, but there was an aristocratic class, and more than half the inhabitants of Attica were slaves.

Rome was nominally a republic after she had expelled her kings. But there was no real equality or freedom. The Senate and the Patrician party had the upper hand: the plebeians and slaves had a perpetual struggle to get their rights recognised; and when at last the senatorial party fell, the Government became a military despotism with an emperor at its head.

We hear a great deal about the republics of Genoa, Florence, and Venice in the Middle Ages. They were all of them close oligarchies.

France is called a republic at the present day. But the Government of France, ever since monarchy and imperialism were abolished, has been about equally divided between republican forms and military despotism. The republic is even now very much at the mercy of the army.

No matter what the form of the Government may be, so long as the mass of the people have equal political rights under the law, and these rights are allowed free play, there is more of the republican or democratic spirit than in many of the States, such as Mexico, Argentina, Brazil, etc., which call themselves republics. Such freedom is quite compatible with a monarchical form of government, as we see in England.

In the colonies of England, such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, etc., the Government is purely democratic, the only representative of the Crown being the Governor-General. Yet nominally they are parts of the monarchy of Great Britain; and to that monarchy they are intensely loyal.

"There is not a republic on earth," says an American writer, "except Switzerland and our own United States, in which there is even an approximation to the honesty of administration found in at least six European monarchies; nor anything like the combination of governmental honesty, judicial impartiality, equality of rights, personal liberty, and liberality towards Americans, which can be found in those monarchies and in all the British colonies." Yet even Americans of wealth come over to England and settle here, because they find that there is more personal liberty in the kingdom of England than in the republic of the United States.

127. Notes for Argumentative Essays.—The same kinds of subjects are discussed in Argumentative essays as in Reflective or Expository; the difference lies merely in the method of treatment. An argumentative essay can sometimes be con-

veniently put in the form of a dialogue, and sometimes in the form of a correspondence; (see Specimen essays in pp. 197–205). The following is a list of the subjects to which notes have been appended:—

- I. Compare the Advantages of a Modern with those of a Classical Education.
- II. Is an Autocracy necessarily a Bad Form of Government?
- III. Is Almsgiving always a Virtue?
- IV. "There are Falsehoods which are not Lies."—PALEY.
- V. Is History to be considered a Branch of General Literature or only a Special Study?
- VI. Is History a Profitable Study for the Young?
- VII. Does the Influence of the Individual wither when the Nation as a whole advances?
- VIII. Does a Workman by restricting his Output give his Comrades a Better Chance of finding Work?
- IX. Prize-giving:—is the Effect on the Student good or bad?
- X. Is Novel-reading a waste of Time?
- XI. Was the Norman Conquest a Blessing to England?
- XII. Are Proverbs a Safe Guide to Conduct?
- XIII. Is Second-rate Literature to be condemned as mischievous or useless?
- XIV. Whether States, like Individuals, inevitably tend to decay.
- XV. Can a Man be made sober by Act of Parliament?
- XVI. Should Capital Punishment be abolished?
- XVII. Whether Historical Novels are useful for teaching History.
- XVIII. Does the Stimulus to Literary Production come from within or from without?

I. COMPARE THE ADVANTAGES OF A MODERN WITH THOSE OF A CLASSICAL EDUCATION.

The choice lies between (*a*) the old culture that qualifies for the Law, the Church, Medicine, the Civil Service, and (*b*) the modern that qualifies for commerce, mining, machine-making, or manufacture in general.

The idea commonly held is that the latter is preferable, because the old professions are not merely overstocked already, but are in their nature less remunerative than those based on trade, the industrial arts, or on technical knowledge of any kind.

But what is education? A course of study that strengthens the intellect, cultivates the taste, enlarges the sympathies, and forms the character. For this purpose the old culture,—a training in the classical languages, literature, history, philosophy,—is more effective than a training that is merely preparatory to some commercial or industrial career.

Next, what of a boy's future career? This depends on his temperament. There are still good chances in the old professions for one who has a taste for them. It is not every boy who will make a

good merchant, or a good engineer, or a good manufacturer. There are quite as many failures in the one line as in the other.

Success in the old line has two advantages over success in the new : —(1) The cultivation of the mind gives much more enjoyment and happiness in life than the mere acquisition of wealth without such cultivation. (2) Distinctions gained in the old professions give a man a much higher reputation amongst his fellows than success in trade or business.

Conclusion.—Let a boy have his chance in the old culture. If by the age of fourteen or so he shows no taste or capacity for it, let him go to the modern side and learn as much or as little as may suit him of the modern languages, natural science, mathematics, and whatever else may be deemed subsidiary to the production or distribution of marketable goods.

II. IS AN AUTOCRACY NECESSARILY A BAD FORM OF GOVERNMENT ?

In an autocracy the government is personal, *i.e.* vested in a single man. But personal government in fact, though not in form, may exist in a democracy (as with Pericles at Athens), or in a limited monarchy (as with Bismarck in Germany), and not merely in an absolute monarchy (as Russia).

What is the main test of good government? Security of life and property. A man can travel with greater safety in Russia (autocracy) than in Sicily or Southern Italy (limited monarchy). Other examples : Mexico, Argentina. Both of these are republics, and in neither is life or property as safe as in Russia or Germany. The mode of government is therefore more important than the form. Compare Turkish Armenia with Russian Armenia, Turkish Kurdistan with Russian Kurdistan.

The danger of the autocratic form is that an hereditary sovereign, whose government is bad, cannot be turned out as a prime minister, a president, or a viceroy can be. But the worst despot dare not put too great a strain on the loyalty of his people. History shows that intolerable despots can be got rid of (Nero, James II., Siráj-ud-daulá of Bengal).

In a heterogeneous empire such as Austria, consisting of various races and languages, each jealous of the other, a parliamentary government is unworkable. To a large extent the same remark would apply to India.

Conclusion.—An autocracy is not necessarily a bad form of government. For some empires or kingdoms it is not merely the best, but the only one possible.

III. IS ALMSGIVING ALWAYS A VIRTUE ?

(*Spectator*, p. 597, 26th October 1901.)

The motive to charity is not always pure benevolence. Even if it were, a benevolent motive is not always followed by a beneficial result. This fact suggests the duty of caution.

If the need of help is urgent and self-evident, no question of duty

arises. In the Parable of the Good Samaritan the man who had fallen among thieves was picked up half-dead. It was no time to inquire either about his needs or about his deserts.

If the case is less urgent, indiscriminate charity, whatever the motive may be, is as much a vice as a virtue. It is a kind of pious selfishness, "a flattering unction to the soul" of the almsgiver. It certainly encourages improvidence, and it may help the receiver to indulge in evil practices.

Indiscriminate charity has been widely practised and widely commended, because it seems to be enjoined in the New Testament, as in Matt. v. 42. But the text has been misunderstood and misapplied. See 2 Thess. iii. 10, "If any will not work, neither let him eat." Indiscriminate charity works evil by widening the area of charity which it seeks to contract.

The duty of charity involves the duty of discrimination. Discrimination is impossible without investigation; and investigation imposes personal trouble. Such charity is genuine unselfishness, real virtue.

Charity is made more effective as well as more safe by co-operation. Benevolent persons and benevolent institutions should endeavour to pull together. The Charity Organisation Society is a good example. A hospital supported by voluntary contributions is a vast charitable organisation: donations to such cannot be misplaced.

We should attend to the causes of poverty, strike at the roots and not keep for ever chopping at the branches of the upas-tree, which only makes the tree throw out more branches. If a man is to be pushed up a ladder, he must do some of the climbing himself.

IV. "THERE ARE FALSEHOODS WHICH ARE NOT LIES" (PALEY).

(*Spectator*, p. 833, 8th June 1901.)

"White lies" have been distinguished from black. The lie proper (black) is an untruth told with an evil motive. A "white lie" is an untruth told with no motive worse than that of amusement, civility, or tact. Do these differ in kind, or only in degree? Paley says that they differ in kind, on account of the difference of motive and of effect.

Romancing.—A dangerous amusement. There is the risk that the deception caused may not be removed. If it is not removed, much harm is done to the romancer himself. Inaccuracy, exaggeration, invention, grows into an unconscious habit of falsehood. Such a man believes at last his own inventions. A self-deceived man is a monster to be avoided.

Affectation.—This consists in displaying sentiments or emotions which are not felt,—giving a false impression without making a false statement. Such persons, though they deceive no one, injure themselves. Yet if some one bores you with a subject interesting only to himself, civility may compel you to listen to him, as if you were interested or knew something about it.

Doctor's devices.—Is a doctor to be scouted as a deceiver if, in order to break a person off the habit of taking opium or morphia, he

fills half the bottle with water and leads the patient to think that he is taking as much of the poison as usual?

Inquisitive persons.—These pests of society are the greatest obstacles to truthfulness in social life: they have many sins to answer for. If a friend trusts you with a secret, and some one persists in questioning you, what are you to do?—make a false avowal of ignorance (the only way of stopping his tongue) or betray your friend by an evasion, which often amounts to a disclosure?

Conventional fibs.—There is a tacit agreement amongst men and women to deceive one another with conventional forms of address, compliment, acceptance, or refusal, where the naked truth,—precise verbal accuracy,—would cause offence. He who *will* not accept an invitation declines in the same terms as one who *can* not, and no one's feelings are hurt.

The truth bluntly spoken may, on certain occasions, be a practical untruth; for it is likely to be interpreted in a sense that is not correct and was not intended. It may lead a person to form an opinion of you that is contrary to fact. Society cannot run smoothly without tact.

V. IS HISTORY TO BE CONSIDERED A BRANCH OF GENERAL LITERATURE OR ONLY A SPECIAL STUDY?

A fuller way of stating the question is this:—“Is history intended for the general reading public? Or is it a subject fit only for the statesman, the scholar, or the specialist?” If the former, then it is a branch of literature.

We hold that history should be considered a branch of literature, and that it ought to be read as widely as possible. Ignorance of English history led the Boers to declare war in South Africa, and the Sepoys to mutiny in India. Every man who loves his country should study its history and strive to be worthy of its best traditions.

But history will not be widely read, unless it is presented in an attractive form. For this purpose the historian should have three qualifications besides a love of truth, the foundation of all.

First, he must write in a good literary style. The “Dryasdust” method will not suit the public. The model historians of Athens and Rome were all masters of the art of narrative.

Second, he must be true to himself as well as true to the facts. If he feels sympathy for one side of a question rather than another, he need not conceal it so long as he does not falsify facts. A cold, passionless narrative neither attracts nor instructs. The chronicler who never expresses a moral judgment nor displays a moral emotion becomes the unconscious teacher of acquiescence in the accomplished fact, however unreasonable or wrong.

Third, he must try to maintain what in fiction is called a plot-interest. This he can do by showing how one event hinges on another, how one state of things grew out of a previous state. History is of no use if it does not teach us to profit by past experience. The dead past must be made to live again.

If the view here given is sound, history is not only a branch of literature, but one of the highest branches besides being one of the most useful.

VI. IS HISTORY A PROFITABLE STUDY FOR THE YOUNG ?

It has been urged that it is useless to burden the memory of the young (say, up to the age of fifteen) with dates or with events, of which they are too young to understand the significance ; that little or nothing should be taught in the way of history but personal anecdotes or interesting events which will make pleasant reading.

This view is entirely false. If history is to be studied at all, it should be studied seriously even by the young, just as arithmetic, Euclid, grammar, or language is studied seriously.

The memories of the young are stronger than their understandings. What history is acquired in early years is stored up in the memory for future use. The full significance of what has been acquired at an early age comes with age and reflection. The memory, having been strengthened by early use, is the better able, by means of subsequent study, to add to the stock of historical knowledge.

Nevertheless, in a text-book intended for the young, the narrative, besides being clear, should be simple and brief, presenting a clear outline of the main points, but not crowded with details. Further details can be acquired afterwards. But let the landmarks at least be well mastered at first.

A young mind can be brought to understand in its main outlines the coming of the Saxons and Angles, Alfred's resistance to the Danes, the state of England under the Normans, the Angevin juries, the Great Charter, the beginnings of parliament, and so on. This is not more difficult than Euclid, and to some minds it might be much more interesting.

VII. DOES THE INFLUENCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL WITHER WHEN THE NATION AS A WHOLE ADVANCES ?

(*Spectator*, p. 357, 8th March 1902.)

It is commonly held that with the growth of intelligence, political freedom, and civilisation generally, the influence of the individual withers,—that the individual is lost in the nation.

This is a mistake. Let us take the different departments of human activity, and examine them one by one.

(1) Politics.—Take the case of Chamberlain or Lord Rosebery in England ; Sir W. Maurier in Canada ; President Roosevelt in the United States ; Bismarck in Germany ; Gambetta in France ; Cavour in Italy ; Rhodes in South Africa. In none of these cases has the progress of the nation destroyed the influence of the individual. It has rather raised it.

(2) Commerce and manufacture.—Take the case of the Rothschilds in Europe ; Pierpont Morgan, Rockefeller, or Carnegie in the United States ; Armstrong or Edison in England.

(3) Arts, literature, and philosophy.—For art take the influence of Ruskin, Landseer, and Leighton. For literature take the influence of Carlyle, Macaulay, Morley, Tennyson, Mr. Phillips. For philosophy and science take the influence of Darwin, Herbert Spencer, and Huxley.

Perhaps the only department in which the individual has withered

is that of religion. No religious leader of the highest rank has appeared for many generations. Yet Wesley had enormous influence in his day and his influence has overspread the Anglo-Saxon world.

The master spirits of a nation, far from having less, have more influence in these days of general intelligence than they had in former ages, when on account of the prevailing ignorance they could be less understood.

VIII. DOES A WORKMAN, BY RESTRICTING HIS OUTPUT, GIVE HIS COMRADES A BETTER CHANCE OF FINDING WORK ?

One of the methods recently adopted by trade unions is to lay down rules as to the amount of work that a workman should do in a day, and not allow that amount to be exceeded. Employers look on such a man as a lazy scoundrel. But the workman himself thinks that he is benefiting his class, and that more men will get work, if he does less.

The workman who reasons thus is under a fatal delusion. If in all trades the workman should decide to do as little as possible, the industry of the country would be ruined by foreign competition, and there would be less work than ever.

Restriction on output operates in favour only of the worst workmen, and the best workmen are reluctantly dragged down to their level. A good workman, who is willing to do the best he can for his employer has to stifle his better instincts in the supposed interest of the naturally idle.

Restriction of output must tend to raise prices and make it more difficult for the workman to live. If the bricklayer's union decides that a bricklayer shall lay down 400 bricks a day, when he could lay down 800, the builder is forced to charge twice as high a rent. This is what has happened. A working man has now to pay eight or ten shillings a week for a cottage, which ought not to have cost him more than four or five.

Trade regulations, which interfere with the industry of workmen, do more harm to the workman himself than to any other class in the community ; for no other class is so ill able to meet higher prices.

IX. PRIZE-GIVING :—IS THE EFFECT ON THE STUDENT GOOD OR BAD ?

(*School World*, p. 91, March 1902.)

It is urged that a teacher should be able to stimulate the industry of his class by the interest that he excites, and that if he relies on prizes for a stimulus he makes a confession of his own weakness.

Answer.—We have to think of the ordinary class-teacher and the ordinary student. A teacher who can make every student take the keenest interest in whatever he tells them is very rare. It is doubtful whether interest would not flag at times, even in the most intelligent student.

It is urged that the offering of prizes encourages self-seeking and selfishness. A student should feel sufficiently rewarded by knowing

that he has done his best, and by the respect that he wins from his fellows, if he comes out first.

Answer.—The higher motives here referred to are not incompatible with the lower one of working for a prize. By gaining a prize a student gives pleasure to his parents, and earns credit for his school or house.

It is urged, again, that a student should be encouraged to value knowledge for its own sake, and not by what it brings him in the way of a reward.

Answer.—A student values a prize by what it puts upon the record, not for what the prize has cost. To have defeated a well-known rival in open competition is a victory of which the winner may justly be proud.

Conclusion.—(a) Motives to actions are often mixed. The self-seeking motives can coexist with other motives. One supplements the other. (b) The arguments in favour of prize-giving fall to the ground, if prizes are made so common that there is little credit in getting one. A prize is useless if it is not a distinction.

X. IS NOVEL-READING A WASTE OF TIME?

First of all, what is a novel? A novel is a fictitious tale that turns chiefly on manners and the display of character in private life, as distinct from romance, which deals with adventure.

It is urged that the time spent on reading novels, which are mere fictions, could be much better spent on acquiring fresh knowledge; that they give the reader a distaste for serious study; present him with a distorted, one-sided, or exaggerated view of human life.

Answer.—Novels may be either good or bad. A corrupt novel has necessarily a corrupting influence. In defence of such novels nothing is to be said. Supposing the novel to be of a wholesome tone, the uses of novel-reading are various and important:—

(1) The recreation it gives to a tired brain or a tired body. Books of travel do the same; but for light reading pure and simple the novel takes the lead. The plot-interest of a novel sustains attention without taxing it.

(2) A novel widens our sympathies and enlarges our knowledge of mankind. Many of the characters and situations described in a novel are so seldom seen in actual life that, if we did not see them portrayed in a novel, we should have no notion of them at all. Give examples from any novels that you have read.

(3) Sometimes a novel takes us into historical ground, which helps to make historical scenes or historical persons more intelligible. Give examples from Dickens, Scott, Kingsley, Bulwer Lytton, or others.

(4) Sometimes a novel is useful for exposing abuses that need removal or reform. A powerfully written novel, by awakening sympathy, has more influence than many long speeches or elaborate books. Give examples of such novels.

Novel-reading, though useful, may be carried too far. The mind, like the body, needs change of diet.

XI. WAS THE NORMAN CONQUEST A BLESSING TO ENGLAND?

(GOLDWIN SMITH'S *United Kingdom*, vol. i. ch. ii.)

Most historians consider that the Norman Conquest was in the long run a blessing to England. The Norman, they say, imported the civilisation of France; had a finer architecture than was known in England; had higher notions of art generally; enriched the English tongue with a new vocabulary; helped the English language to discard its useless inflections; made England better known in Europe and placed it in the vanguard of nations; introduced chivalry. Carlyle thus describes the people of England prior to intermixture with Normans:—"A gluttonous race of Jutes and Angles, capable of no grand combinations, lumbering about in pot-bellied equanimity; not dreaming of heroic toil or silent endurance."

Answer.—If the Norman Conquest was a blessing, the blessing was disguised to those who felt its first effects. It was disguised to those whose blood dyed the hill of Senlac; to those whose houses were destroyed to make room for the New Forest; to those who were robbed of their estates; to those who were enslaved to foreign masters; to those who perished by thousands in the ravaged north.

In what directions did England need the Norman? In none whatever.

(a) Did England need the Norman to unite her? No: Harold, if the arrow had not pierced his eye at Senlac, might have done it much better. The Norman Conquest, by cutting off the English lowlands of Scotland, put off the union of Britain.

(b) But the Normans, say they, connected England with the Continent. So much the worse for England. The loss of Normandy, with the continental entanglements which it entailed, was the best thing that ever happened to England.

(c) Did England need better laws? Normandy had only worse ones to give her. England had the codes of Alfred the Great and Edward the Confessor; the spirit of these codes was revived in Magna Charta, the signing of which was wrested from a foreign king of continental descent.

(d) Did England need a literature? The Norman had none to give. England, however, had a grand literature of her own, which, commencing from Alfred the Great, was continued in Layamon's *Brut* and in the *English Chronicle* during the worst days of Norman tyranny.

(e) The Norman introduced castle-building. But England did not need baronial castles. They were the curse of the country, in Stephen's reign especially.

(f) The Norman did not improve our language: he corrupted it. The Northern dialect had discarded its inflections, and the Saxon dialect was doing the same, long before French influence was felt. A pure Teutonic language was wrecked, and displaced by a medley, which has had to borrow largely from Latin and Greek. Its spelling and pronunciation have become a chaos.

The self-development of an insular nation, purely Teutonic in blood, in character, and in institutions, was lost to humanity by the Norman Conquest. Another great evil effected by the Norman

Conquest was the antagonism that it established between the northern kingdom (Scotland) and the southern (England).

XII. ARE PROVERBS A SAFE GUIDE TO CONDUCT ?

(*Spectator*, p. 694, 9th November 1901.)

There are a few proverbs which hold good in almost all kinds of circumstances, as "Truth and honesty is the best policy," "Prevention is better than cure," "A stitch in time saves nine," etc.

But most proverbs are half-truths, which are only right at times. They cannot be more than half-truths, because many of them flatly contradict one another. The greatest caution must be used in applying them. Half-truths must not be quoted as if they were universal verities. Universal truth is almost as unattainable as a universal language.

Examples :—

(1) "When in doubt, do nought." A will naturally weak, or a judgment that sees two sides to every question, may be paralysed by the misuse of such a proverb. It may be useful, however, as a check on those who are too hasty. There is an opposite proverb, "He who hesitates is lost," which deserves as much attention and withal as much caution as the other.

(2) "Misfortunes never come singly." A silly and mischievous saying, which in persons of a despondent nature is apt to bring about its own fulfilment. If a man loses his train, he need not anticipate that in the same journey he will lose his luggage.

(3) "Where there's smoke, there's fire." True literally, but often false metaphorically. For gossip or slander there may be no foundation at all.

(4) "A feather shows which way the wind blows." The cross-currents of character are such that you cannot judge of its general trend by a trivial word or trivial action.

(5) "Charity begins at home." Yes ; but it should not end there.

(6) "Exchange is no robbery." A very dangerous maxim.

(7) "Every man for himself, and God for all." Can be used as sanctioning a policy of selfishness. Do nothing to help another, leave it to God.

Proverbs are not intended to be guides to conduct. A proverb is merely a short way of expressing the general experience of mankind in certain situations. But situations differ ; and the right or wrong of a proverb depends on the situation. Very few proverbs tell the whole truth, suitable for all times and all places.

XIII. IS SECOND-RATE LITERATURE A THING TO BE CONDEMNED AS MISCHIEVOUS OR USELESS ?

Some persons seem to think that the multiplicity of books which, though of the second rank, are yet good enough to find many readers, is unfavourable, if not hostile, to the appearance of works of genius ; that owing to such books the public taste must deteriorate ; and that hence first-rate authorship will find no encouragement.

This is absurd. A man of genius cares nothing about the public

taste. He will not assimilate his work to that of the majority of contemporary writers. If he feels that he has something to say to the world, he will say it. Our great Puritan epic, *Paradise Lost*, was written in the dissolute reign of Charles II., when scarcely any one cared to read it.

Second-rate literature must not be snubbed because it is second-rate. It may be very instructive—as much above the average intelligence as it is below literature of the first rank. Is all music, which is not of the very best quality, to be despised? Does not good music of the second or third quality give pleasure?

An author, who begins his literary career in the second or third rank, may rise to the first rank with the maturity of his powers. Tennyson, when his first poems appeared, was nothing to what he became eventually. It took time and experience to ripen his faculties.

There is a very large class of subjects, on which the public require to be informed, but on which first-rate literature is neither necessary nor even possible. The recent war in South Africa produced a flood of literature,—all necessary and useful, but none of it first-rate. The daily newspaper is second-rate literature; but we cannot do without it: we read it every day.

The best novels written since 1860 are, it is true, not equal in merit to those published before. We have now no Scott, Dickens, or Thackeray. But we have a large number of very able writers. Are we to be perpetually going over the old ground, because the most recent writers happen not to be first-rate? If new ideas are started, they must not be stifled because there are no first-rate writers to give expression to them.

Since reading is practically universal among the rising generation, the greatest possible quantity of sound work, even though it may not be first-rate, should be given to them to read. Many from reading what is second-rate may come to appreciate what is first-rate. Moreover, between first and second-rate literature no clear line of difference can be drawn: genius is not always detected in the age in which it first appears.

XIV. WHETHER NATIONS, LIKE INDIVIDUALS, INEVITABLY TEND TO DECAY.

The idea commonly held is that every nation has its day;—that it has its birth and childhood, its growth, its maturity, then gradually its decline with age like an old man. This, they say, is what history teaches. Greece and Rome, the two greatest examples in ancient history, reached their zenith and fell. Poland was once a more distinguished country than Russia, but it also fell. Sweden was a great power in the time of Gustavus Adolphus, but has fallen to a much lower rank. France was once much more powerful than she is. Spain, once the great imperial power of the Old World, and discoverer and master of the New, has reached its decrepitude. A New Zealander, says Macaulay, may some day stand on London Bridge and survey from it the ruins of what is at present the metropolis of the British empire.

The supposition that States must decay, like individuals, is based

upon the analogy of the human body. But analogy is not proof, nor even argument. It may by a picturesque similitude impress on the mind a fact already proved and established. But it proves nothing itself.

In this case the analogy happens to be totally false. An individual body, as we know, must decay from natural causes which nothing can prevent. But the State, or body politic as it is called, is not an individual body. It is a collective aggregate made up of a very large number of individual persons, who succeed one another by an unceasing alternation of birth and death, birth and death, birth and death. A State, unless it is either exterminated by the sword (which has never yet happened) or absorbed, as Poland was, by stronger neighbours, never dies. The people remain.

The question, then, is not whether the State as a whole must decay, but whether the individuals of which a nation is composed must necessarily deteriorate to such an extent that the nation loses all its power and importance in the world and practically ceases to exist. We hold that there is no such necessity, and that this is what history really teaches.

Greece decayed, it is true, but she decayed, not because Greeks deteriorated, but because, owing to the dissension and jealousies of the different States,—Athens, Sparta, Thebes, Corinth, etc.,—she was unable to cope with such great military powers as Macedonia and Rome. Yet Greece revived, when Constantinople became the seat of the Eastern empire. This city was the guardian of Greek learning during the Dark Ages, and when it was captured by the Turks, the scattering of Greek scholars over Western Europe produced the Renaissance and the Reformation. Modern Greece still lives; and when the Turk leaves Europe, Greece may again hold an important place in Europe.

The Roman empire fell, partly perhaps because the Romans and Italians themselves deteriorated, but chiefly, we think, because the empire on all sides was deluged by barbarians,—Vandals, Goths, Huns, etc. Yet Italy revived in the Middle Ages, when Genoa, Florence, Amalfi, and Venice were at the height of their power; and Italy is a rising kingdom now,—one of the great powers of Europe.

The empire of Spain fell because Spain ruled her distant possessions entirely for her own interests, and because the Government of Spain was weak, superstitious, and corrupt. The Spanish people, however, are still alive, and under better auspices may again become great,—greater than they have ever been yet.

The alleged decay of France is not a fact, but merely a false assumption. France, though she has not now the influence that she had under Louis XIV. or under Napoleon I., is really greater than she ever was before. She has more wealth, a better Government, and a more pushing and progressive people. There are no barbarian races left in the world who can overrun France, Italy, or Spain as they overran the provinces of the Roman empire.

What signs of national decay are there in England? We see none at all. England was never so great as she is now. The outlying parts of her empire are growing into great powers. They have taken their laws, their language, their love of freedom, their

enterprise, and their industries from a centre which shows no signs of failure or decay.

XV. CAN A MAN BE MADE SOBER BY ACT OF PARLIAMENT ?

The drink evil is admitted by every one. Three-fourths at least of the crime, the disease, the insanity, and the pauperism in this country are traceable directly or indirectly to excess in alcoholic drink. Can anything be done to remove or lessen the evil ? Should resort be had to restrictive legislation ? Or should we rely solely on moral influences ?

Moral influences have certainly done a great deal already. Thanks chiefly to the labours of temperance societies and to the general spread of intelligence and self-respect, there are now about seven millions of total abstainers. Drunkenness was once as common among the upper classes as it still is amongst the lower. It might therefore be argued that if moral persuasion can make such a change amongst the upper classes, it will do the same amongst the lower in time, and that hence coercive temperance-measures are unnecessary. It is further urged that coercive legislation would be useless, because if the people want drink, they will get it, and nothing can stop them.

We do not believe in this argument, for several reasons. In the first place some at least, and possibly much, of the above improvement has been brought about by temperance legislation. Several Acts have been passed, such as the early closing of public houses, Sunday closing, the prohibition of serving drink to children, the prohibition of allowing a man to become intoxicated inside a public house. Men can now be taken up by the police for being drunk and incapable. All such legislation is coercive.

In the second place, we believe that more, much more, might still be done by legislation. We mention two methods ; but many more might probably be discovered.

(a) The licensing authorities should not be brewers or shareholders in breweries, as may easily happen at present. In such cases it is not the interest of the licensing authority to reduce the number of public houses. The more public houses there are, the more temptation is thrown in the way of the working man.

(b) The public house itself should be radically reformed. The working man needs his club quite as much as the upper classes do. The public house should be remodelled into a club ; *i.e.* it should have its reading room, its lecture hall, its refreshment room for tea or coffee, and not merely for intoxicating drinks. In Cheshire and elsewhere public houses are being remodelled on this plan, by private enterprise. But private enterprise cannot do what Government could do if it chose. Licenses could be granted or continued on these new conditions.

By scattering public houses all over the country with few, and at one time with absolutely no restrictions, the Government of England has managed to make a great many men drunk. It should now begin to make men sober, and take the matter up in earnest.

XVI. SHOULD CAPITAL PUNISHMENT BE ABOLISHED?

There was a time when by the criminal code of England a man might be hanged for such a trivial offence as stealing a turnip. When this brutal legislation was about to be repealed, there was a great outcry : it was feared that no one's property or person would be safe. But, as it turned out, offences became fewer instead of more numerous with the abolition of capital punishment for every offence except murder.

On this ground it has been urged that, if capital punishment were abolished even for murder, murders would likewise become less frequent than they are.

Other arguments urged for the abolition of capital punishment are (1) that the execution of a criminal, whatever his offence may have been, has a brutalising effect on the public mind, which might even act as incentive to murder rather than a deterrent ; (2) that a judge and jury have such a horror of sentencing a man to death, that a man really guilty of murder is sometimes declared innocent and gets off altogether.

We see no force in any of these arguments.

The execution of a criminal has not a brutalising effect, because it is now done inside the gaol, and the public do not witness it, as they formerly did.

Criminals whose guilt has been proved do not, in England at least, get off. If extenuating circumstances of any kind can be alleged, due weight is given to them, and the capital sentence is commuted to some form of punishment short of death. There is always an appeal to the Crown.

In spite of the continuance of capital punishment, murders are fewer than they were owing to the improved moral condition of the nation.

There are some wretches who can be deterred from murder by nothing less than the fear of death. For the safety of society, therefore, capital punishment must be retained.

XVII. WHETHER HISTORICAL NOVELS ARE USEFUL FOR TEACHING HISTORY.

"Historical novel" is a contradiction in terms. "Historical" implies fact ; "novel" implies fiction. The mixture of two such opposite things cannot but be dangerous. The main arguments in defence of it are the following :—

(1) History is generally dry, and an historical novel arouses an interest in it. The answer to this is, That history, if it is told with tact, is not dry, and that the interest aroused by the novel may be in the false rather than the true. The lessons to be learned from history are too serious to be sacrificed to the demands of plot-interest or emotional excitement.

(2) The persons of whom we read in history are little more than mere names, until we see them as living realities in the pages of an historical novel. The answer is, That the portraiture given in a novel may, from want of evidence or from the neglect of it, be

fictional. For instance, Bulwer's *Last of the Barons* is very unlike Warwick, the king-maker, of history. The falsification of truth cannot be anything but mischievous.

(3) The local colouring in which historical characters are set comes home to the mind much more vividly than a general, impersonal chapter on the state of society in such and such a reign. An historical novel gives us the first; history nothing better than the last. The answer is, That the novelist, being free to use what colouring is likely to take best with the public or what gives least trouble to himself in the way of research, may use a false colouring to heighten his picture and mislead the reader. The reader takes up a novel for light reading, and is not on his guard against errors. He reads for amusement, not for research. He trusts the author, and in doing so carries away a wrong impression.

Whether or no an historical novel can be useful for teaching history depends entirely on the author. To give an absolute answer, Yes or No, would be foolish. In the hands of such a writer as Scott or Kingsley our answer would be Yes. Scott used a great deal of research, and in every one of his romances gives one an admirable insight into the spirit of the times. The portraiture of the French king given in *Quentin Durward* is much admired by the French themselves.

But even in reading such novelists as Scott and Kingsley there is some danger. A reader who is not well acquainted with history before he reads the novel is in no position to separate fact from fiction. They are so mixed in the novel, that he is forced to go to history after all in order to find out how much of the novel is to be believed.

XVIII. DOES THE STIMULUS TO LITERARY PRODUCTION COME FROM WITHIN OR FROM WITHOUT?

(See *Spectator*, pp. 1000, 1001, 28th June 1902.)

The best, the most durable work, the work that has most affected the world in its course towards higher things, has been done because it had to be done as an answer to an inward command. Genius will out. It laughs at bars, and makes to itself ladders of escape from the most unpromising surroundings. Death and disease appear to be the only possible extinguishers of true genius.

Poverty.—This may act either as a spur or as a restraint. The history of English literature, and indeed of all literature, shows that poverty has often given the first impulse to literary production. One great example is Shakespeare. His father was practically bankrupt, and he himself was a poor man with a wife and three babes to provide for, when he left Stratford to seek his fortune in London. No doubt it was the instinct of genius that led him to the drama. But had he been in easy circumstances, he might have never left Stratford. There he could enjoy the sports which he loved, and which he alludes to so often in his plays.

Poverty, though it may act as a stimulus to genius, plays havoc with the literature of talent. Many a man, who if he had been

above want could have done good literary work, has been forced by poverty to become a literary drudge and do inferior work.

Riches and position.—Here again the effect is dubious. In a man of genius they may facilitate production, as in the case of Byron. Byron was raised entirely above want. It was the inward command, not poverty, that furnished the stimulus.

Given merely talent, *i.e.* ability without genius, we can fancy that riches would be as obstructive to literary production as poverty, or even more obstructive. There is always labour in producing literary work that is worth anything, and a man who enjoys the security and freedom that money gives is not likely to rouse himself to incur such labour.

A rich man, though he may never produce anything himself, may be passionately fond of literature, and ardently devoted to research and the accumulation of knowledge. If he were not so well off, he would be more likely to publish his researches to the world.

On the whole, then, the stimulus to literary production exists within, and not without, the man. It is not external circumstances, poverty or riches, sickness or health, greatness or humbleness, that determines the production or output of genius. It is the character of the man that determines what he shall do. A man may be held back by timidity, want of ambition, humility that warns him of his own ignorance. But the same man, if he has genius, may be suddenly driven to production by the belief that in so acting he can advance some great cause or make the world happier or better. A stimulus from without, such as poverty, may start production, but that is merely the physical awakening of a disposition that would have found vent at some time or other.

SECTION 4.—SUBJECTS FOR ESSAYS, WITHOUT NOTES.

128. Materials for an Essay.—If the student is thrown entirely upon himself, as he must be at last, for collecting and arranging his own materials, the question arises, What are the sources from which such materials can be gathered? It will be found, I think, that there are three main sources.

First and foremost, Books. It is by reading, more than by anything else, that the mind is stored with knowledge on which the faculties of judgment and comparison can be exercised. Reading possesses another advantage: it stocks the memory with an enlarged vocabulary, of which (it is unnecessary to add) the student will stand in need whenever he addresses himself to the task of expressing ideas outside the range of his daily routine, and expressing them in language above the rank of colloquial.

Secondly, Conversation with well-informed and intelligent men or women. In some respects conversation is more useful to the learner than reading. It lends itself more readily to

the discussion of salient points. It compels the learner to know his own mind, and brings home to him the defects in his own knowledge. It helps him to acquire promptness in expressing himself; and it may suggest ideas that would not have risen to his mind in the course of solitary reading. By conversation I mean not only such exchange of ideas as the younger man may enjoy with a friend older and better informed than himself, but such as a student may sometimes expect from a teacher who, in giving notice of a subject, takes the trouble to unfold some of its bearings to the class, and encourages his pupils to question him and even to argue with him on certain points.

Thirdly, Observation and experience. Many subjects are set, and rightly so, on which no books have been written, but of which no student who has made an ordinary use of his observing and reflecting faculties is likely to be wholly ignorant.

The fact, however, still remains that books are the main source from which the student must store his mind with knowledge and enrich his vocabulary with words. It is not enough for a student merely to remember what he reads. He must assimilate it, make it his own, make it part of himself, so that whenever the occasion arises he may be able to reproduce it in a form and in words of his own. Style is the expression of a man's own mind. The gift of style cannot be acquired by the mere accumulation of facts, or by attempts to remember and repeat what others have written. One of the objects of essay-writing as a mental discipline is to accustom the student to master what he reads and to think for himself, to acquire in fact the art of self-expression,—an art which no one can neglect with impunity, and which every one is called upon to exercise in some form or other every day of his life.

129. School Subjects.—The selection of subjects on which essays are to be written can to a large extent be adapted to the subjects taught in class. This applies especially to subjects in history, biography, literature, general and physical geography, elementary science, and object-lessons. Such subjects come naturally within the scope of Narrative, Descriptive, and Expository compositions. But the choice of subjects should not be limited to these. The essay must be made to widen the range of a pupil's reading, to teach him the beginnings of original thought on moral, social, and political subjects, and

draw his attention to matters of current interest, with which he can make himself acquainted by reading the newspapers. I append a list of subjects on which essays might be written, classifying them under the same five headings as before,—Narration, Description, Reflection, Exposition, Argumentation.

(a) SUBJECTS FOR NARRATIVE ESSAYS.

English History.

1. Hereward the Wake, The Last of the Saxons.
2. "At Tenchebrai, Hastings was avenged in the overthrow of a Norman army by an army which came from England and was partly English." Expand.
3. The reforms, military and judicial, of Henry VI.
4. The career of Thomas à Becket.
5. The barons' war in the reign of Henry III.
6. Why the parliament assembled in 1295 was called the Model Parliament, and in what respect it differed from the parliaments of our own day.
7. The revolt of the serfs in the reign of Richard II.
8. Warwick, the King-maker.
9. "In England the revolution effected by Henry VIII. was less doctrinal than political and social." Expand.
10. The fall of Cardinal Wolsey and the circumstances that led to it.
11. "Steeped in innocent blood as well as in robbery, Cromwell (Thomas) died by the knife which he had whetted for the throats of others." Expand.
12. "Bloody Mary was a good woman spoiled by circumstance and religious superstition." Expand.
13. The career of Archbishop Cranmer.
14. The Earl of Essex in Queen Elizabeth's reign.
15. The coming and the defeat of the Armada.
16. Sir Walter Raleigh.
17. Proceedings of the first parliament of James I.
18. The story of the Pilgrim Fathers.
19. The trials of Bates, Chambers, and Hampden.
20. The struggle between Archbishop Laud and the Presbyterians of Scotland.
21. The work of the Long Parliament in the first year's session.
22. Sir Philip Sidney.
23. "Cromwell's Scottish victories produced a fruit more glorious than Dunbar,—a fruit which, if dust could feel, would have made the dust of the great Edward rejoice." Expand.
24. The Dutch wars, 1651-1653.
25. "Cromwell had no love of sabre sway. Like Cæsar, unlike Napoleon, he had been a politician before he was a soldier, and he had always shown himself loyal in principle to the supremacy of the civil power." Justify this estimate from salient facts in Cromwell's career.
26. The Cabal ministry: Contrast it with the modern cabinet.

27. "The Popish Plot ranks with the terrible illusions bred at Athens by the mutilation of the Hermæ, and in New England by the alarm of witchcraft." Expand.

28. The Rye House Plot.

29. "The Revolution of 1688, though glorified by that name, was not in fact a revolution at all: it was a change of dynasty, not of the form of government." Expand.

30. The Duke of Monmouth.

31. "The Revolution of 1688 was not only a British, but a European event of the first order. It redressed the balance of power in Europe." Expand.

32. The landing of the Prince of Orange.

33. "The Bill of Rights, with the annual Mutiny Act, makes monarchy in England constitutional." Expand.

34. The great war of Queen Anne's reign: its objects and results.

35. The part played by Dissenters in English history, 1660-1700.

36. The administration of Walpole.

37. The Earl of Chatham.

38. The Jacobite rising in 1745.

39. The contest between Wilkes and George III.

40. The coalition government of Fox and North.

41. The Irish national movement in 1778-1782.

42. The Parliament in Ireland from 1613 to 1800.

43. Deeds of the British navy in 1797.

44. The war between England and the United States, 1812-1814.

45. The Corn Laws and their repeal.

46. The Reform Bill of 1831, 1832.

47. The repeal of the Test Acts.

48. The Battle of Waterloo.

49. The Battle of the Nile.

50. Popular insurrections in England, with dates, objects, and results.

51. The events for which the 1st of June is celebrated in English naval history.

Indian Legend and History.

52. The main story of the Mahábhárata.

53. The banishment of Ráma from Ayodhyá.

54. The story of Sakuntalá.

55. The life or legend of Sákhya Muni.

56. The Greek invasions of India, 327-325 B.C.

57. Greek accounts of India.

58. Mahmud's invasions of India: their character and results.

59. Ruin of the Hindu cause by the quarrels of the chiefs, 1191-1193.

60. The kingdom of Vijayanagar.

61. The three battles of Panipat, 1526, 1556, 1761.

62. Character of the reign of Akbar.

63. "The successor of Sháh Jahán added to the extent of the empire, but at the same time sowed the seeds of its decay." Expand.

64. The career of Sivaji.

65. The spread of Mahrattá power from 1718 to 1761.

66. Discovery of the sea-route to India by Vasco da Gama.
67. The Portuguese in India, and the causes of their decline.
68. The Dutch East India Company, 1602-1758.
69. Clive at Arcot.
70. The Battle of Plassey.
71. The main events in Northern India during the governor-generalship of Warren Hastings.
72. Southern India from 1780 to 1784.
73. The permanent settlement of Bengal.
74. Lord Wellesley's work in Southern India.
75. Contest between the English and the Mahrattás, 1802-1805.
76. The Pindaris.
77. The First Burmese war.
78. The administration of Lord William Bentinck.
79. Our dealings with Cábul, 1837-1844.
80. The reign of Ranjít Singh.
81. "The rule of Lord Dalhousie left more conspicuous results than that of any other governor-general since Clive." Expand.

General History.

82. The Battle of Lepanto.
83. Partition of Poland.
84. Attempted invasions of England.
85. The American Civil War.
86. Reconquest of the Soudan by Lord Kitchener.
87. The burning of Moscow, 1812.
88. Sir John Moore at Corunna.
89. Wolfe at Quebec.
90. The Battle of Bouvines.
91. Story of Solon and Cæsus.
92. Battle of Salamis.
93. Battle of Agincourt.
94. The Holy Roman Empire.
95. Rome and Carthage.
96. The part played by England in the Crusades.
97. Career of Saladin.
98. Age of Louis XIV.
99. Drake's circumnavigation of the globe.
100. Edict of Nantes and its revocation.
101. Constantine the Great.

Biographies, Private and Historical.

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| 102. Samuel Richardson. | 112. Sir John Franklin. |
| 103. Howard the Philanthropist. | 113. Joan of Arc. |
| 104. Francis Bacon. | 114. Livingstone. |
| 105. George Stephenson. | 115. Milton. |
| 106. William Penn. | 116. Daniel De Foe. |
| 107. George Washington. | 117. Sir Walter Scott. |
| 108. Admiral Blake. | 118. John Wycliff. |
| 109. Florence Nightingale. | 119. Sir Isaac Newton. |
| 110. Christopher Columbus. | 120. Jenner. |
| 111. Francis Drake. | 121. Sir Thomas More. |

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| 122. Robert Louis Stevenson. | 131. General Gordon. |
| 123. William Wilberforce. | 132. Ben Jonson. |
| 124. Warren Hastings. | 133. Oliver Goldsmith. |
| 125. Peter the Great. | 134. Robert Emmett. |
| 126. Abraham Lincoln. | 135. Macaulay. |
| 127. Alexander the Great. | 136. Thomas Carlyle. |
| 128. Palissy the Potter. | 137. Rammohan Roy (India). |
| 129. Charles XII. of Sweden. | 138. Ishwara Chandra Vidya-
sagara (India). |
| 130. Gustavus Adolphus. | |

(b) SUBJECTS FOR DESCRIPTIVE ESSAYS.

Physical Phenomena, Minerals, Countries, Islands, etc.

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| 1. The New Forest. | 20. Fingal's Cave. |
| 2. The basin of the Severn. | 21. Chalk. |
| 3. Glaciers. | 22. Clay. |
| 4. Niagara Falls. | 23. The great rivers of Africa. |
| 5. The river Thames. | 24. Climate of the British Isles. |
| 6. Petroleum. | 25. The Maoris of New Zealand. |
| 7. Geysers. | 26. The fiords of Norway. |
| 8. The climate of Australia. | 27. The Philippinc Islands. |
| 9. British coaling stations. | 28. The Caspian Sea. |
| 10. Autumn in Canada. | 29. The Colony of Natal. |
| 11. Lake district of England. | 30. The Great Barrier Reef. |
| 12. Lake district of Ireland. | 31. Rivers of the Russian empire. |
| 13. The Isle of Wight. | 32. Summer-time in England. |
| 14. Delagoa Bay. | 33. Mountains of North America. |
| 15. Bay of Naples. | 34. Alaska. |
| 16. Mountains of Italy. | 35. Canadian lakes and rivers. |
| 17. Minerals of Australasia. | 36. Newfoundland. |
| 18. Icebergs. | 37. The Bay of Fundy. |
| 19. Wales and her people. | 38. The Euphrates valley. |

Towns, Harbours, Buildings, etc.

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| 39. Sydney : its history and
harbour. | 50. Alexandria. |
| 40. Halifax, Nova Scotia. | 51. The Albert Memorial, Hyde
Park. |
| 41. The Canadian Pacific Railway. | 52. Stratford-on-Avon. |
| 42. The Tower of London. | 53. Montreal. |
| 43. Westminster Abbey. | 54. The Nile Barrage at Assouan. |
| 44. Egypt under British rule. | 55. Stonchenge. |
| 45. The City of Washington. | 56. Venice. |
| 46. Cape Town and its surround-
ings. | 57. Peking and Pechili. |
| 47. Plymouth. | 58. Pompeii. |
| 48. Liverpool. | 59. Glasgow (Scotland). |
| 49. Edinburgh. | 60. Duncdin (New Zealand). |

Animals, Plants, etc.

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| 61. The kite. | 64. The eucalyptus. |
| 62. The carrier-pigeon. | 65. Distinguishing features of an
insect. |
| 63. Dragon-flies. | |

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| 66. Life-history of an insect. | 83. The human hand. |
| 67. Life-history of a frog. | 84. The oak-tree. |
| 68. The lilac. | 85. Evergreens, and what makes them so. |
| 69. The prickly pear. | 86. The zebra. |
| 70. The house-fly. | 87. Wild flowers. |
| 71. The carrion-crow(of England). | 88. The life of a beehive. |
| 72. The elephant. | 89. Salmon. |
| 73. The bison. | 90. Humming birds. |
| 74. The mocking-bird. | 91. The potato. |
| 75. Butterflies. | 92. The trunk of an elephant. |
| 76. The peach. | 93. Wasps. |
| 77. The lapwing. | 94. English song-birds. |
| 78. The cuckoo. | 95. Camels. |
| 79. The olive. | 96. The ostrich. |
| 80. Blackberries. | 97. The coffee-plant. |
| 81. The reindeer. | 98. Asparagus. |
| 82. The human eye. | |

Industries, Works, Instruments, etc.

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| 99. Brick-making. | 109. Diamond mines of Kimberley. |
| 100. Iron-mining and iron-smelting. | 110. Pottery, past and present. |
| 101. Manufacture of glass. | 111. Paper-making. |
| 102. Aerial navigation. | 112. The mariners' compass. |
| 103. Bee-farming. | 113. Seal-fisheries. |
| 104. Agricultural machinery. | 114. Submarine cables. |
| 105. Tramways. | 115. Manufacture of steel. |
| 106. The mint. | 116. Manufacture of soap. |
| 107. Cultivation of mushrooms. | 117. Orchard-growing. |
| 108. Gold-mining. | 118. Hop-fields and hop-picking. |

Indian Subjects, Miscellaneous.

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| 119. Cashmere. | 139. The Indian lion. |
| 120. The Ganges. | 140. The cobra. |
| 121. Rockcut temples. | 141. Thugs and their suppression. |
| 122. Indian gypsies. | 142. Udaipur, the City of Suurise. |
| 123. Snakes and snake-charmers. | 143. Fort St. George of Madras. |
| 124. The races of India. | 144. The Táj-Mahál. |
| 125. Indian railway routes. | 145. The Rám Lilá festival. |
| 126. Indian seaports and docks. | 146. The Dúrgá Pújá festival. |
| 127. Rivers of Peninsular India. | 147. The Parsees and their history. |
| 128. Brindában. | 148. Salt manufacture in India. |
| 129. The tusser silk-worm. | 149. Tea plantations. |
| 130. The tamarind-tree. | 150. Tea manufacture. |
| 131. The Sikhs. | 151. Ayodhyá, the ancient capital of the Middle Kingdom. |
| 132. The Khyber Pass. | 152. Muttra. |
| 133. Assam. | 153. The Hardwár Fair. |
| 134. The banyan-tree. | 154. The Southals. |
| 135. Travancore. | 155. Rice-fields and rice-culture. |
| 136. The Nilghiris. | 156. Delhi, the Rome of India. |
| 137. Sugar-cane. | |
| 138. Surát and its history. | |

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| 157. The banana. | 162. The Indian bison. |
| 158. The tiger. | 163. The jackal. |
| 159. A tiger-hunt. | 164. The Port of Calcutta. |
| 160. The river Indus. | 165. Amritsar. |
| 161. Minerals of India. | 166. Bombay. |

(c) SUBJECTS FOR REFLECTIVE ESSAYS.

1. "Seamen can take no part in politics, and Great Britain owes her liberty largely to her good fortune in having, as an island, a navy, not a standing army, for her defence."—GOLDWIN SMITH.
2. Arbitration, industrial and international.
3. "Evolutionists must admit that after all much depends on the man."—GOLDWIN SMITH.
4. Compare genius with talent.
5. "Sir, if a state submit
At once, she may be blotted out at once,
And swallowed in the conqueror's chronicle."—TENNYSON.
6. Better to wear out than to rust out.
7. "And right too rigid hardens into wrong."
8. "Character is moral order seen through the medium of an individual nature."—EMERSON.
9. "The abuse of greatness is when it disjoins
Remorse from power."
10. The uses of a good library.
11. "To follow right
Were wisdom in the scorn of consequence."
12. "And God fulfils Himself in various ways
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world."
TENNYSON.
13. War never leaves a nation where it found it.
14. "The devil hath power
To assume a pleasing shape."—*Hamlet*, ii. 2.
15. "Thus conscience does make cowards of us all."—*Ibid.* iii. 1.
16. "Discases, desperate grown,
By desperate appliance are relieved,
Or not at all."—*Ibid.* iv. 3.
17. "Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them."—*Twelfth Night*, ii. 5.
18. "As manners make laws, manners likewise repeal them."—JOHNSON.
19. "He that toucheth pitch shall be defiled therewith."—*Ecclesiasticus* xiii. 1.
20. Compare the Roman and British empires.
21. "All men without distinction are allured by immediate advantages; great minds alone are excited by distant good."—SCHILLER.
22. The pleasures of power.
23. True and false success.
24. "Each man to his trade."
25. "The watchwords that uplift one generation only enchain the next."—*Spectator*, p. 685, 3rd May 1902.

26. True and false friendship.
27. Compare the drama and the novel.
28. Epic poetry, ancient and modern.
29. The uses of retrospection.
30. "Undying fame is the product of genius and opportunity."—BALFOUR.
31. Compare courage in modern warfare with that in ancient.
32. "The devil can cite Scripture to his purpose."—*Merchant of Venice*, i. 3.
33. Ingratitude.
34. "Genius commands admiration, character respect."—SMILES.
35. "Old books are the fruits of men's youth, new books of the world's age."
36. "Brother of Fear is Hope, more gaily glad,
The merrier fool o' th' two, yet quite as mad."—COWLEY.
37. "Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just,
And he but naked, though locked up in steel,
Whose conscience with injustice is corrupted."
2 *Henry VI.*, iii. 2.
38. "The gods are just, and of our pleasant vices
Make instruments to scourge us."—*King Lear*, v. 3.
39. "Slanderers are like flies that pass over all a man's good parts, and alight only upon his wounds."
40. "The principles of a free constitution are irrevocably lost, when the legislative power is nominated by the executive."—GIBBON.
41. Fastidiousness.
42. "The effect upon us of the past is indelible whether we recollect it or no."—*Spectator*, p. 910, 22nd June 1901.
43. "Nations are not to be judged by their size any more than individuals."—SMILES.
44. Compare the power of oratory with that of poetry.
45. A man's career depends upon three things,—training, character, and opportunity.
46. "Home is the first and most important school of character."—SMILES.
47. "'Tis no sin for a man to labour in his vocation."—*Henry IV.*, Part I. i. 2.
48. "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing."—POPE, *Essay on Criticism*, l. 215.
49. Envy, emulation, jealousy,—compare and contrast.
50. "Words are the counters of wise men, and the money of fools."—HOBBS.
51. Courage, physical and moral.
52. "The critical spirit which is now applied to history makes epic poetry more than ever difficult."—ABBOTT and SEELEY. Examine.
53. "Every man is a debtor to his profession."—BACON.
54. Decline of the allegory or parable in literature.
55. The growth of priggishness.
56. "To thine own self be true ;
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou can'st not then be false to any man."—*Hamlet*, i. 3.

57. "Shakespeare's kings are quite ordinary humanity thrust upon greatness."—WALTER PATER.
58. "It is idleness that is the curse of man, not labour."—SMILES.
59. "The child is father of the man."—WORDSWORTH.
60. Know thyself.
61. Indignation as a virtue.
62. Why some races have become extinct.
63. The outburst of literary genius in the Elizabethan age: What were its weak points?
64. "The government of one's self is the only true freedom for the individual."—FREDERICK PERTHES.
65. The emancipation of women.
66. What is the province of an historian?
67. Punctuality.
68. "Labour is the condition which God has imposed on us in every station of life."—SIR WALTER SCOTT.
69. He who never changes his mind has no mind to change.
70. The use and abuse of guessing in the search for truth.
71. How the sins of parents are visited upon children.
72. Reputations are tested by time, not by current opinion.
73. Discuss, with examples, the causes of rebellions or popular outbreaks.
74. The usefulness of object-lessons.
75. Ambition as a factor of human progress.
76. National character: What it is and how it is produced. Illustrate from history.
77. Imagination is as necessary to an historian or a man of science as to a poet.
78. "Lord of himself, though not of land,
And having nothing, yet hath all."—WOTTON.
79. "Contentment is natural wealth; luxury is artificial poverty."
—SMILES.
80. The veneration for antiquity: Its uses and abuses.
81. Compare the different kinds of books for recreation.
82. Compare the pleasures of anticipation (*a*) with those of possession, (*b*) with those of retrospection.
83. The social contract: Explain this phrase in the sense of Locke or Rousseau, and inquire whether any better account can be given of the origin of political government.
84. "Man is the only animal that blushes or that needs to blush."
—MARK TWAIN.
85. "Parliamentary government is simply a mild and disguised form of compulsion. We agree to try strength by counting heads instead of breaking them."—FITZJAMES STEPHEN.
86. "When subjects rebel on principle, kings become tyrants by necessity."—BURKE.
87. Compare the functions of art and science.
88. Instinct, reason: Distinguish and compare these as exemplified in men and the lower animals.
89. Discuss the provinces of technical and commercial education respectively.
90. "High cultivation may help to self-command, but it multiplies

the chances of irritative contact."—"An Author at Grass," *Fortnightly Review*, p. 336, Aug. 1902.

91. "The strength of an Englishman's loyalty lies in a recognition of expediency complemented by respect for the established fact."—*Ibid.* p. 352. Examine this with reference to our loyalty to the throne.

92. "Knowledge is power."—BACON.

93. What is superstition? How can it be corrected?

94. "Men may rise on stepping-stones
Of their dead selves to higher things."—TENNYSON.

95. "Read not to contradict and confute; nor to believe and take for granted; nor to find talk and discourse; but to weigh and consider."—BACON.

96. "A little fire is quickly trodden out; which being suffered rivers cannot quench."—3 *Henry VI.* iv. 8.

97. "Men's evil manners live in brass; their virtues
We write in water."—*Henry VII.* iii. 2.

98. "Honour and shame from no condition rise.
Act well your part—there all the honour lies."

POPE, Epistle iv. 193, 194.

99. "Know then this truth, enough for man to know,—
Virtue alone is happiness below."—*Ibid.* 309, 310.

100. "Errors like straws upon the surface flow;
He who would search for pearls must dive below."

DRYDEN, Prologue to *All for Love*.

101. "'Tis thus that on the choice of friends
Our good or evil name depends."—GAY, Fable 23.

102. "By outward show let's not be cheated;
An ass should like an ass be treated."

Ibid. Part. II. Fable 11.

103. The uses of foreign travel.

104. The sources of happiness.

105. "Men the most infamous are fond of fame;
And those who fear not guilt yet start at shame."

CHURCHILL, *The Author*, 233, 234.

106. The tyranny of custom.

107. The duty of life-insurance.

108. How character is formed.

109. Cheerfulness.—Addison's *Spectator*, No. 381.

110. "The man whose eye is ever on himself
Doth look on one the least of Nature's works."

WORDSWORTH.

111. "'Tis an old maxim in the schools
That flattery is the food of fools;
Yet now and then your men of wit
Will condescend to take a bit."

SWIFT, *Cadenus and Venessa*, 758-761.

112. "Cast thy bread upon the waters, and thou shalt find it after many days."—*Ecclesiastes* xi. 1.

113. "Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth."—*Ibid.* xii. 1.

114. "How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds
Makes deeds ill done!"—*King John*, iv. 2.

115. "Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability."—
BACON.
116. Sympathy as one of the mainsprings of conduct.
117. "Only the actions of the just
Smell sweet and blossom in the dust."
118. "Our acts our angels are, or good or ill,
Our fatal shadows that walk by us still."
BEAUMONT and FLETCHER.
119. "Men of character are the conscience of the society to which they belong."—EMERSON.
120. The most mischievous of liars are those that keep on the verge of truth.
121. "I am never less lonely than when I am alone."
122. The days of chivalry.
123. "The names and memories of great men are the dowry of a nation."—*Blackwood's Magazine*, June 1863.
124. "The subject of history is government, and therefore constitutional history is the main subject to be taught in our schools."—*School World*, p. 78, Feb. 1899. Examine.

(d) SUBJECTS FOR EXPOSITORY ESSAYS.

Institutions, Inventions, etc.

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| 1. The Privy Council. | 15. Direct and indirect taxation. |
| 2. Trial by jury. | 16. The fendal system. |
| 3. Limited monarchies. | 17. Exhibitions. |
| 4. Savings banks. | 18. The post office. |
| 5. The census. | 19. Free libraries. |
| 6. Colonies of Rome, Spain, and
England: compare them. | 20. Trade unions. |
| 7. Copyright. | 21. Vaccination. |
| 8. Inventions of the past century. | 22. The Bank of England. |
| 9. Present state of agriculture
in England. | 23. University extension. |
| 10. The office of Prime Minister. | 24. The Stock Exchange. |
| 11. The National Debt. | 25. Chartered companies. |
| 12. Magnets. | 26. Artesian wells. |
| 13. Telegraphy with and without
wires. | 27. Co-operative societies. |
| 14. The Charity Organisation
Society. | 28. Quarter sessions and assizes. |
| | 29. The London County Council. |
| | 30. Industrial revolution of the
first half of the past century. |

Historical Subjects.

31. Character of Henry V.
32. "In the last century of the Roman republic we find ourselves in a time of dominating personalities."—CHARLES OMAN.
33. Character of Charles II.
34. The great usurpers of Western history.
35. The great abdicators of history.
36. Suppression of the slave-trade.
37. Discovery of new lands in Tudor times.
38. Lollardism in England and in Europe.

39. The general causes of dispute between the Church and the State in the Middle Ages.

40. Contrast the Reformation in England with that in Scotland.

41. The increase of the power of the Crown under the Tudors.

42. The increase of the power of Parliament under the House of Hanover.

43. "England has taken the lead in solving the problem of constitutional government; herein lies the world's chief interest in her history."—GOLDWIN SMITH.

44. The part played by the Star Chamber in English history.

45. The instances in which Parliament exercised its right to deal with the succession to the Crown.

46. "The channel between Dover and Calais has largely exempted England from European domination and revolution."—GOLDWIN SMITH.

47. The sieges of Gibraltar.

48. "From a conflict with revolution most kings have come out reactionists."—GOLDWIN SMITH.

49. Describe, with examples from history, the means by which one race can absorb another.

50. Origins of the British race.

51. The extinct civilisations of the East.

52. The empire of Charlemagne.

53. The empire of Alexander the Great.

54. Royal pretenders in English history.

55. The divine right of kings: The influence of this dogma on the course of events in English history.

56. Attempts made by George III. to override the Constitution.

57. Grounds on which Edward I. has been called "the ideal character of the Middle Age."

58. Compare modern with ancient republics.

59. The character of Queen Elizabeth.

60. The principle of nationalities: Its influence in modern as compared with medieval history.

61. Attempts made by George III. to silence the press.

62. Compare the objects with the results of the Crimean War.

63. Britain as a Roman province.

64. Justify the assertion made by Pitt that he "won America on the fields of Germany."

65. "No bishop, no king." Show how James I. came to hold such a maxim, and what steps he took to enforce it.

66. Cromwell's principles in (a) foreign policy, (b) constitutional methods, (c) relations of Church and State.

67. Events and movements that mark the close of the Middle Ages.

68. The causes and effects of the Wars of the Roses.

69. "The plains of Northern Italy were late in acquiring a dominant influence on the fortunes of Italy." Examine.

70. Legislation in the reign of Edward I.

71. The supremacy of the Crown over the Church: Compare the assertions of this principle made by William I., Henry II., Edward III., and Henry VIII. respectively.

72. Sum up the causes that led to the downfall of the great Napoleon.

73. The regrouping of European States by means of conquest or revolt during the nineteenth century.

74. The principal Acts of the "Reformation Parliament."

75. Comment on the statement made by a pamphleteer at the end of James I.'s reign, "Great Britain is of less account than was Little England under Queen Elizabeth."

76. The East India Company from its foundation to its abolition.

77. The effects on the Mediterranean as a commercial highway produced (a) by the fall of Constantinople, (b) by the opening of the Suez Canal.

78. The attitudes of the leading statesmen of England towards the French Revolution.

79. The rise and early development of Methodism.

80. The different views regarding the taxation of the American colonies held by contemporary English statesmen.

81. Jacobinism in France and in England.

82. Objects and results of the Peninsular War.

83. The several ways in which Napoleon attempted to ruin Great Britain.

84. Compare the constitutional position of Great Britain in 1715 and 1815.

85. Compare the international position of Great Britain in 1715 and 1815.

Scientific Subjects.

86. The action of rivers in forming new lands and in shaping the general surface of a country.

87. Discovery of the power of steam.

88. Compare insular and continental climates and account for the differences.

89. Compare the different kinds of stems of plants.

90. Respiration.

91. The preservation of health.

92. How the geography of Switzerland has affected the language, the industries, and the character of the people.

93. How the rivers of Great Britain have aided commerce and industry.

94. Clouds: Their origin, various aspects, and relation to weather.

95. "Nature can be controlled by obeying, and only by obeying, her laws." Enlarge-upon this.

96. The life-history of a flowering plant.

97. Show what effect the geography of Holland has had upon its industries and history.

98. The trade-winds and their causes.

99. The rainbow.

100. The solar system.

101. The subterranean heat of the earth and its effects past and present.

102. The history of a river.

103. Eclipses.

104. Volcanoes.—*Fortnightly Review*, Sept. 1902.
105. Cyclones.
106. Oceanic currents : Their causes and effects.—*School World*, p. 345, Sept. 1902.
107. Discuss the alleged effect of forests on rainfall and floods.—*Ibid.*
108. Account for differences of climate on the eastern and western coasts of North America.—*Ibid.*
109. Compare the different kinds of teeth of animals.
110. Lightning and lightning-conductors.
111. Rotations of crops.
112. The chief races of mankind and their principal subdivisions.
113. The action of a bee in the inside of a flower.
114. The sea-tides.
115. The owl in nature and in mythology.
116. Why temperature changes with change of elevation.
117. Hibernating animals.
118. "By itself alone the Gulf Stream has as much effect on the climate of North-Western Europe as the fly in the fable had in carrying the stage-coach up the hill."—*School World*, p. 177, May 1901. Examine.

Literary Subjects.

119. The Waverley Novels.
120. Compare the creations—Ariel and Puck.
121. The Lake Poets.
122. Compare the classical and the romantic schools of poetry.
123. "Novel is the fiction of character, romance of adventure." Exemplify the distinction in the course of English literature.
124. The dialects of England, ancient and modern.
125. Johnson as a literary critic.
126. The uses of the literary patron : Why he has become extinct.
127. "Shakespeare borrowed his plots, but created the characters." Examine.
128. The poetry of Pope.
129. Chatterton : his life and writings.
130. "Wits are gamecocks to one another,
No author ever spared a brother."—GAY, Fable 10.
Exemplify from the history of English literature.
131. "Scott deliberately coined his brains to discharge what he considered a debt of honour."—*Spectator*, p. 278, 31st Aug. 1901.
132. The poetry of Wordsworth.
133. Satire : its place in English literature, verse, and prose.
134. De Foe's place in literature and in journalism.
135. The ideal republics described in English literature.
136. The story of Rasselas.
137. The writings of Adam Smith.
138. *All Sorts and Conditions of Men*,—its authorship, aim, and influence.
139. "Chaucer summed up the literary and linguistic tendencies of his age." Show this.
140. English literature during the Wars of the Roses.

141. The life and writings of Marlowe.
142. "Cowper led the reaction against Pope." Comment on this and show by whom Cowper was followed.
143. The most distinguished writers on social and political subjects in the nineteenth century.
144. Historical poems in English literature.
145. Compare Johnson's view of Milton with Macaulay's.—*School World*, p. 91, March 1901.
146. Sonneteers of the Tudor period and after.
147. Tennyson's "Ode on the Duke of Wellington": Its rhythm, metre, and contents.

Miscellaneous.

148. Show that machinery has not displaced the human agent or injured the labour-market.
149. How to secure a sound mind in a sound body.
150. The Peace Conference at the Hague: Its aims and results.
151. Animal instinct and animal intelligence.
152. The stone age.
153. The iron age.
154. Why persecution has become discredited.
155. The origin of Indian caste.
156. How the sailor develops into an explorer, a trader, and a colonist.
157. What are the fine arts, and how would you arrange them in the order of precedence?
158. The Prime Minister in the English Parliament, the President of the United States,—compare their positions and powers.
159. What industries in England have especially suffered from Free Trade, and why?
160. European disarmament.
161. Hobbies.
162. Compare the closing years of Queen Victoria with those of Louis XIV.
163. Travelling to-day and travelling seventy years ago.
164. Militarism: Describe it and show the evils arising from it.
165. Socialism: Its aims and methods.
166. The West Indies: Their productions and the causes of their recent decline in prosperity.
167. The progress of Japan since 1853.
168. A summary of the relations between Church and State from the Norman Conquest till Henry VIII.'s breach with Rome.
169. Recent archæological discoveries in the Troad.
170. The shire-moot as it existed before the Norman Conquest, in the Norman period, and in the Angevin period.
171. Show how towns owe their importance to their geographical position. Illustrate by the cases of Bombay, Marseilles, San Francisco, Buffalo, Montreal, London (England), Calcutta.
172. Account for the locations of the following industries in the British Isles:—Cotton, earthenware, linen, shipbuilding.
173. Discuss the justice of the charges brought against Warren Hastings.

174. The relations of history and geography.—*School World*, p. 273, July 1901.

(e) SUBJECTS FOR ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS.

1. Expediency : Has it any place in morals ?
2. "Revolution is the dying of one system and the birth of another." Is this applicable to the Revolution of 1688 ?
3. Is the world ruled most by ideas or by force ?
4. Has property duties as well as rights ?
5. Does morality apply to international as well as to private relations ?
6. "Virtue is its own reward only when it has no other." Examine.
7. "Self-love, my liege, is not so vile a sin
As self-neglect."—*Henry V.*
8. "Ethnology or the history of races must be mainly founded on the relations of their languages."—PRICHARD. Examine.
9. Compare the advantages of fair-trade and free-trade.
10. "A poet is born, an orator is made."—CICERO. Examine.
11. Can history be a science of prediction ?
12. "Westward the star of empire takes its way." Examine.
13. "Periods of repose that follow wars are particularly favourable to literary revivals." Examine.
14. Discuss the expediency of a Channel tunnel between England and France.
15. Does the duty of toleration extend to the intolerant ?
16. Should the profession of actor be despised ?
17. Can any apology be made for idleness ?
18. "Writing was a greater discovery than printing." Examine.
19. "The Greeks learnt by conversation or by lectures ; we learn by books." Compare the advantages of the two methods.
20. Discuss the utility of competitive examinations.
21. Is the State justified in making education compulsory ?
22. "Statistics are the shorthand of knowledge." Examine.
23. Can temperament be conquered by self-discipline ?
24. "He who has many friends has no friends." Examine.
25. "The Humanities give a better training to the feelings, Science to the intellect." Examine.
26. "Genius is an infinite capacity for taking pains."—CARLYLE. Examine.
27. Is it bad economy to give high wages to employés ?
28. Should wages be supplemented by tips ?
29. "Nations that instruct the world destroy themselves."—RENAN. Examine.
30. Is selfishness wholly a vice ?
31. "A man is his own star." Examine.
32. Can literature flourish in the decline of political freedom ?
33. Should the press be free without any restrictions ?
34. Are low prices disadvantageous to trade ?
35. Is popularity a criterion of merit ?
36. Is happiness possible without independence ?

37. Was Bannockburn a gain or a loss to Scotland ?
38. Can training make a man an effective teacher ?
39. Compulsory vaccination : The arguments for and against.
40. Crotchet-mongers : Are they ever of any use in the world ?
41. Are the ties of family life likely to be weakened by the improved means of locomotion ?
42. Is the spread of journalism likely to make men more superficial readers ?
43. Should wages be determined solely by competition in the labour-market ?
44. Is style a thing that can be taught ?
45. "Think not that vices in one age are not vices in another."—
SIR T. BROWNE. Examine.
46. Does the influence of majorities tend to weaken personal character ?
47. Should railways be nationalised, like the post office, the telegraph, and the telephone ?
48. Should residence in a constituency be a necessary qualification for election ?
49. "Hero-worship is the falsification of history." Examine.
50. "For forms of government let fools contest,
Whate'er is best administered is best."
POPE, *Essay on Man*, 303, 304. Examine.
51. If the will is not free, but determined by motives, can the punishment of evil-doers be justified ?
52. Professionalism in athletics : Does it tend to lower or raise the tone of sport ?
53. The eight hours' movement : Is this a fit subject for legislation ?
54. According to Freeman the history of England begins with the landing of the Teutonic tribes. Examine this.
55. Are loyalty and patriotism convertible terms ?
56. Is ambition to be regarded as a vice or a virtue ?
57. Is war an unmixed evil ?
58. "The evil that men do lives after them,
The good is oft interred with their bones."—*Julius Cæsar*.
59. "Toleration is not a virtue, but merely a euphemism for indifference."—*Spectator*, 31st Aug. and 7th Sept. 1902. Examine.
60. Old age pensions : The arguments for and against.
61. The nationalisation of railways : The arguments for and against.
62. Does England gain or lose most by protection ?—*Fortnightly Review*, Sept. 1902.
63. Are the physical conditions of Australia favourable to the confederation of its several parts under a central government ?
64. Is the crown of England hereditary or elective ?
65. "Trade follows the flag." Examine.
66. Does heredity destroy responsibility ?
67. Taciturnity : Its claims to be considered a virtue.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER X.

SUBJECTS OF ESSAYS SET IN PUBLIC EXAMINATIONS.

ROYAL MILITARY COLLEGE, SANDHURST.

Your composition should fill not less than two foolscap pages ; but it will be valued rather by the quality than the quantity of what you write.
In this paper special attention should be paid to handwriting, spelling, punctuation, grammar, and style.

- July 1884.—1. Compare gunpowder, the printing-press, and the steam engine with reference to their effects on warfare.
 2. Earthquakes and their effects.
 3. The growth of English naval supremacy.
- Dec. 1884.—1. The effects of war upon national character.
 2. Peace hath her victories | No less renowned than war.
 3. The value of the memories of great men.
- July 1885.—1. Can a great general be also a great statesman ?
 2. The change effected by the electric telegraph in conducting the government of distant dependencies, and how far that change is beneficial or the reverse.
 3. The use and abuse of ridicule.
- Dec. 1885.—1. The art of gaining power and that of using it well are too often found in different persons.
 2. A week at Wimbledon camp.
 3. Is personal gallantry as important in ancient as in modern warfare ?
- July 1886.—1. "Trade follows the flag."
 2. "History is the biography of great men."
 3. The federation of the British empire from a military point of view.
- Dec. 1886.—1. Si vis pacem, para bellum. (To preserve peace, be ready for war.)
 2. Discuss the life and work of any great historian.
 3. What does a country gain and lose by being thickly populated ?
- July 1887.—1. The position of an officer in the French, German, and English armies respectively.
 2. The Queen's residences.
 3. The advantages of an accurate eye.
- Dec. 1887.—1. The increasing humaneness of the laws of war.
 2. Turkey, past and present.
 3. Goldsmith, Macaulay, and De Quincey as models of a literary style.
- July 1888.—1. Events likely to happen in Germany.
 2. Liberty, equality, and fraternity. What are some of the obstacles to the realisation of these ideals ?
 3. Nelson.

ROYAL MILITARY ACADEMY, WOOLWICH.

- July 1884.—1. Advantages and disadvantages of an insular position.
 2. Sir Walter Scott as an author.
 3. He is the greatest general who makes the fewest mistakes.

- Dec. 1884.—1. The laws of honour.
 2. The difficulties attending the expedition to Khartoum.
 3. The value of colonies to the mother-country.
- April 1885.—1. School friendships.
 2. The public buildings of London or any (other) great city.
 3. The Crusades.
- July 1885.—1. The influence of climate on the amusements.
 2. The tongue, the pen, and the sword as instruments of government.
- Dec. 1885.—1. The good and evil done by war correspondents.
 2. Patriotism.
 3. Comment on the saying that “Waterloo was won on the playing fields of our public schools.”
- July 1886.—1. Obedience as a training for command.
 2. Reasons for the gradual disappearance, in modern times, of small states.
 3. *Mens sana in corpore sano.* (A sound mind in a sound body.)
- Dec. 1886.—1. The relation between eloquence and statesmanship.
 2. Military advantages and disadvantages of a despotic as compared with a constitutional government.
 3. Fortune favours the brave.
- July 1887.—1. The influence of colonies on the mother-country.
 2. The different kinds of courage.
 3. The military uses of music.
- Dec. 1887.—1. The future of Africa.
 2. England’s interests in the Mediterranean.
 3. What in your opinion constitutes a good tale of adventure.
- July 1888.—1. An ideal schoolmaster.
 2. Has England’s constant warfare with uncivilised foes unfitted her to meet the forces of a continental nation?
 3. Riding in rough countries.

SANDHURST AND WOOLWICH JOINTLY.

- Dec. 1888.—1. “The spread of education is the spread of discontent.”
 Discuss this.
 2. Different kinds of friendship.
 3. How far are sham fights and manœuvres a test of military or naval strength?
- July 1889.—1. Habit, a second nature.
 2. Military music.
 3. Don Quixote.
- Dec. 1889.—1. Courtesy.
 2. England’s work in Egypt.
 3. The Englishman abroad and the foreigner in England.
- June 1890.—1. The relations between officers and private soldiers.
 2. English and American humour.
 3. He that always blames or always praises his country is no patriot.
- Dec. 1890.—1. The influence of fashion.
 2. Travelling to-day and sixty years ago.
 3. Revenge and wrong bring forth their kind.
- June 1891.—1. Cricket as a school of discipline.
 2. The influence of the United States on England.
 3. Duelling.

- Dec. 1891.—1. Sea voyages in ancient and modern times.
 2. Picture England suddenly deprived of the services of steam, electricity, and gas.
 3. A day at Henley regatta.
 4. The nineteenth century : a retrospect.
- July 1892.—1. "Esprit de corps."
 2. The causes and effects of the rapid extinction of big game.
 3. What do you understand by the word "civilisation?"
- Dec. 1892.—1. Long distance rides.
 2. Mountaineering as a recreation.
 3. The effect on military tactics of the general adoption of smokeless powder.
 4. Science and poetry : Which has done the most for the good or for the happiness of mankind ?
- June 1893.—1. Travel as part of education.
 2. "Divide et impera."
 3. The effects of drill on mind and body.
 4. Afghanistan as a buttress against a Russian invasion of India.
- Nov. 1893.—1. There is nothing new under the sun.
 2. The value of history to the practical statesman.
 3. The virtues and vices of savages.
 4. To which of our living novelists do you assign the highest place ? Give your reasons.
- June 1894.—1. The part played by intellect in modern as compared with ancient warfare.
 2. The sources of the influence of newspapers.
 3. The voice of the people is the voice of God.
- Nov. 1894.—1. The requirements of England for national defence.
 2. Oxford *versus* Cambridge.
 3. The use and abuse of strikes.
 4. Tennyson and Browning as dramatists.
- June 1895.—1. "What can they know of England who only England know?"
 2. The power of public opinion.
 3. Faces in a crowd.
 4. The qualities which are most necessary in the head boy of a public school.
- Nov. 1895.—1. "Trade follows the flag." (See July 1886.)
 2. "History never repeats itself."
 3. "Si vis pacem, para bellum." (See Dec. 1886.)
 4. The epic in ancient and modern times.
- June 1896.—1. "Duty for duty's sake." Unfold the meaning of this maxim, illustrating it by the lives of eminent Englishmen.
 2. The pleasures of school life that are not likely to recur in later years.
 3. Explorers, ancient and modern.
 4. Soldiers in fiction.
- Nov. 1896.—1. The pleasures and drawbacks of foreign service.
 2. England and the United States, their resemblances and differences.
 3. The discipline of the public school compared with the discipline of the army.
 4. "Men show their character by the things they laugh at."

- June 1897.—1. The strategy and tactics of the two commanders at the battle of Waterloo.
2. The special difficulties of the English government of India.
 3. The soldier in Shakespeare.
- Nov. 1897.—1. Picture India deprived of English rule.
2. The part played in education by study and games respectively.
 3. Write a letter to a friend, who believes that certain people are lucky and others unlucky, arguing against his view. Write also his reply.
- June 1898.—1. At what age would you choose to travel, and why?
2. The relative advantages of health, wealth, and wisdom.
 3. Write a letter to a friend, who thinks that the British empire is expanding too rapidly, endeavouring to allay his fears. Write also his reply.
- Nov. 1898.—1. Has commercial enterprise done more to promote peace or to promote war between nations?
2. The inconveniences of greatness.
 3. Write a letter to a friend, who has said that a military career is likely to blunt the feelings, and maintain the opposite view. Write also his reply.
- June 1899.—1. To what extent is exaggeration justifiable in journalism?
2. Blood is thicker than water.
 3. Write a letter to a friend, contending that the abilities necessary to produce a great statesman are no greater than those needed for a successful general. Write also his reply, taking the opposite point of view.
- Nov. 1899.—1. Are Polar expeditions worth the hardship and sacrifice involved?
2. The advantages and disadvantages that would follow the adoption of a universal language.
 3. "Courage is the highest of virtues, because it is that one which makes all other virtues possible." Discuss this statement.
 4. Write a letter to a friend contending that a war is likely to produce less suffering nowadays than at the beginning of the (late) century. Write his reply, taking the opposite view.
- June 1900.—1. "The mould of a man's fortune is in his own hands." Is luck really a powerful influence in life?
2. Competitive examinations for the public service. Put the arguments for and against in the form of a correspondence or conversation between two friends holding different views.
 3. "The gods are just, and of our pleasant vices Make instruments to scourge us."
 4. Examine the dictum that contemporary foreign opinion anticipates the verdict of history.
- Nov. 1900.—1. The qualities that fit a man to undertake the command of other men.
2. "History repeats itself." "Nothing ever returns as before." Discuss these positions.
 3. "Do at Rome as Romans do."
 4. Discuss (in the form of a letter to a friend and his answer to you) whether the public service or private enterprise is the better field for distinction.

June 1901.—1. Great honours are great burdens.

2. Every one complains of his memory, no one of his judgment.

3. In the evening the sluggard is busy.

4. Describe a naval battle in which submarines take part.

Nov. 1901.—1. Kipling as the poet of the modern spirit.

2. Is gambling wrong?

3. Estimate the importance on education of foreign travel.

4. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.

OXFORD LOCAL EXAMINATIONS (SENIOR).

1892.—(a) Russia.

(b) Colonies.

(c) Music.

1893.—(a) Tennyson.

(b) Printing.

(c) Enthusiasm.

1894.—(a) Japan.

(b) The drama and the novel as vehicles of education.

(c) Patriotism.

1895.—(a) Egypt.

(b) Fashion.

(c) Democracy.

1896.—(a) Rain.

(b) Bicycling.

(c) Photography.

1897.—(a) Steam.

(b) The United States of America.

(c) What constitutes a liberal education?

1898.—(a) Coal.

(b) Newspapers.

(c) Patriotism.

1899.—(a) International disarmament.

(b) Bismarck.

(c) Strikes.

1900. Is the influence of the daily newspaper good or bad for a country?

1901. Is it true that the English as a nation devote too much of their time and attention to out-of-door sports?

CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS (SENIOR).

1896.—(a) Clouds.

(b) One of Sir Walter Scott's novels.

(c) South Africa.

(d) The fairy tales of science.

(e) Duty, "stern daughter of the voice of God."

(f) We live in deeds, not years.

(g) "The old order changeth giving place to new."

1897.—(a) The sun.

(b) Sir Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe* or *Kenilworth*.

(c) Greater Britain.

(d) A ruined abbey.

(e) Nelson.

(f) England in 1837 and in 1897.

(g) "He is the freeman whom the truth makes free, And all are slaves beside."

1898.—(a) Arctic exploration.

(b) Alfred the Great.

(c) Wild flowers.

(d) The river Nile.

(e) Knowledge is power.

(f) "He prayeth well who loveth well

Both man and bird and beast."

1899.—(a) A storm at sea.

(b) Westminster Abbey.

(c) A flower-garden.

(d) The English Lakes.

(e) Music.

(f) "Take up the white man's burden."

(g) "The stately homes of England—

How beautiful they stand

Amid their tall ancestral trees,

Through all this pleasant land."

- 1900.—(a) Moorland scenery.
 (b) Vesuvius.
 (c) John Ruskin.
 (d) The force of example.
 (e) Wit and humour.
 (f) Our colonies and the mother-country.

- 1901.—(a) April.
 (b) British birds.
 (c) John Bunyan and his books.
 (d) Simple pleasures.
 (e) Fashion.
 (f) Aerial navigation.

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.

1900. *Midsummer. First Class.*
 (a) The war in South Africa.
 (b) Your favourite picture.
 (c) A ghost story.
 (d) One of Browning's poems.
 (e) A description of the Garden of Eden.
 (f) Rosalind and Celia.
Christmas. First Class.
 (a) The settlement of South Africa,
 (b) The Australian Confederation.
 (c) The game of football.
 (d) Any favourite flower and its cultivation.
 (e) The House of Commons.

1901. *Midsummer. First Class.*
 (a) The character of Queen Victoria.
 (b) The Battle of Agincourt.
 (c) Una and the Lion.
 (d) The best subject for a photograph.
 (e) Moral courage: Is it greater in men or in women?
Christmas. First Class.
 (a) *The Pilgrim's Progress.*
 (b) The game of hockey.
 (c) The influence of climate on character.
 (d) A cycling tour.
 (e) An aeronaut's experiences.

CENTRAL WELSH BOARD.

1897. *Senior.*
 1. "England the mother of nations."
 2. What country do you most wish to visit, and for what reasons?
 3. Cycles and cycling.
 4. The progress of science during the late Queen's reign.
 5. The story of an adventure.

1898. *Senior.*
 1. Your ideal friend.
 2. A walk in the country or by the seashore.
 3. Your favourite book.
 4. Describe any scientific experiment.
 5. The British navy.

1899. *Senior.*
 (a) Birds and their habits.
 (b) Ships and boats.
 (c) A true story.
 (d) "A stitch in time saves nine."
 (e) Your favourite hero and heroine.

Honours.

- (a) Egypt.
 (b) An ideal home.
 (c) An incident in Welsh history.
 (d) The uses of steam.

1900. *Senior.*
 1. Jehu and Josiah as reformers.
 2. The identification of Prospero with Shakespeare.
 3. The social and moral condition of the Roman empire in the time of Augustus.
 4. The life and work of Alfred the Great.
 5. The career, character, and reforms of Henry II.
 6. The importance of the fifteenth century in English history.
 7. The character of the Tudor monarchs.
 8. The character of the Stuart monarchs.
 9. English politics in the reign of Anne.

10. Religion and morality in England under the early Georges.
11. England and her Colonies under George III.
12. The Industrial Revolution (1815-1832).
13. Dress: our ancestors' and our own.
14. Gardening.
15. Patriotism.

Honours.

- (a) The war in South Africa.
- (b) The scenery of Wales.
- (c) A voyage round the world.
- (d) Music.
- (e) The study of nature.

1901. *Senior.*

1. Moses and Joshua as leaders.
2. Christ's teaching in the Sermon on the Mount.
3. The character of Brutus in *Julius Cæsar*.
4. The Roman occupation of Britain.
5. Feudalism.

6. The age of chivalry.
7. The Lollards.
8. English seamen under Elizabeth.
9. Oliver Cromwell, the general and statesman.
10. The victories of Marlborough.
11. The influence of the French Revolution upon England.
12. A brave deed.
13. A description of some poem you have read.
14. How best may we promote peace among the nations of Europe?

Honours.

- (a) The pen is mightier than the sword.
- (b) Hero-worship.
- (c) The condition of society described by any one of our great novelists.
- (d) The triumphs of science.
- (e) A description of some scene of natural beauty with which you are familiar.

LEAVING CERTIFICATE (SCOTLAND).

1892. (a) The place in which you live.
- (b) The uses of novel-reading.
- (c) Patriotism, true and false.
1893. (a) Our rights and duties in regard to animals.
- (b) The qualities required for successful public speaking.
- (c) *Æsop's Fables*.
1894. (a) The mental and moral uses of athletic sports.
- (b) Courage, its nature and kinds.
- (c) *The Pilgrim's Progress*.
1895. (a) Your experiences during the late severe frost.
- (b) What trade or profession would you like to enter, and why?
1896. *Higher Grade.*
- (a) Spring wildflowers.
- (b) Your favourite holiday occupation.
- (c) A comparison of *Treasure Island* (or any other modern book of adventure) with *Robinson Crusoe*.
- Lower Grade.*
- (a) The character and career of Richard I., or of Oliver Cromwell, or of the young Pretender.
- (b) A letter to a friend, containing an invitation to spend a holiday with you.
1897. *Lower Grade.*
- (a) Any one of the Scottish characters in Scott's novels.

- (b) A letter, as to a friend, giving a short account of a journey, real or imaginary, by land or sea.

Higher Grade.

- (a) The changes which steam-power has wrought on the conditions of life in our country.
 (b) Which is the most useful foreign language to study, and why?

1898. *Lower Grade.*

- (a) Domestic animals.
 (b) Your school friends.
 (c) Do you prefer oral or written examinations?

Higher Grade.

- (a) Examinations as a test of knowledge and capacity.
 (b) Birds.
 (c) Your favourite periodical.

1899. *Lower Grade.*

- (a) Some of the advantages of living in Scotland.
 (b) Some points of interest connected with your neighbourhood.

Higher Grade.

- (a) A comparison of Scotland with other countries as a place of residence and a sphere of livelihood.
 (b) The distinction between a liberal and a professional or technical education.

1900. *Lower Grade.*

- (a) The influence of climate upon national character.
 (b) A comparison of the present methods of warfare with those of an earlier century.

Higher Grade.

- (a) The arguments for and against the adoption of a system of compulsory military service in our country.
 (b) A comparison of the benefits accruing to Britain from her colonies with those accruing to her colonies from Britain.

1901. *Lower Grade.*

- (a) A comparison of the army and navy as careers.
 (b) A character-sketch of an acquaintance.

Higher Grade.

- (a) The conditions of modern civilisation, as favourable or deleterious to health.
 (b) The relative value of classics and of modern languages in a school curriculum.

QUEEN'S SCHOLARSHIP (ENGLAND AND WALES).

1891. (a) Fruit trees.

- (b) The census.

1892. (a) A general election.

- (b) Give in substance the contents of any interesting book which you have recently read.

1893. (a) Holidays, and the way to use them.

- (b) Parliament.
 (c) Tragedy and comedy.

1894. July. (a) On the value of the study of history.
 (b) Play.
 Dec. (a) "Words are like leaves ; and when they most abound
 Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found."
 (b) Your favourite pursuit.
 (c) Christmas Day on board an English ship in the Polar regions.
1895. (a) "Hope springs eternal in the human breast ;
 Man never is, but always to be blest."
 (b) The Japanese.
 (c) How may the spirit of patriotism be promoted in elementary schools ?
1896. (a) How far is it true that "history is the biography of great men."
 (b) Strikes.
 (c) Dress as an evidence of character.
1897. (a) A short life of some great naval or military hero.
 (b) "The darkest day,
 Wait till to-morrow, will have passed away."
 (c) Give an account of the life and works of the author of the passage you have learned to recite.
1898. 1. The pleasures of gardening.
 2. The life of the teacher : its difficulties and its ideals.
 3. The grounds of justification for each of the contending parties in the Spanish-American War of 1898.
1899. (a) A comparison of town and country life (which you would prefer, and why ?)
 (b) A winter landscape.
 (c) "Great offices will have (*i.e.* need) great talents."
1900. (a) What can be gained by the study of geography ?
 (b) The evils of war.
 (c) School friendships.

TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE (ENGLAND AND WALES).

1891. *Male. First Year.*

1. Thrift.
2. A man's character as shown in his behaviour to other men.
3. The various applications of electricity in modern times.

Male. Second Year.

- (a) Superstitions.
- (b) "The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
 And God fulfils Himself in many ways,
 Lest one good custom should corrupt the world."
- (c) "Revenge triumphs over Death ; Love slights it ;
 Honour aspireth to it ; Grief flieth to it ; Fear preoccupateth it."

Female. First Year.

- (a) Dr. Johnson as a talker and as a critic.
- (b) The uses of the telephone.
- (c) "How small, of all that human hearts endure,
 That part which laws or king can cause or cure."

Female. Second Year.

- (a) The dramatic art, considered (1) as to the qualities needed in

the artist, and (2) as to its effectiveness in giving pleasure or instruction.

(b) The increasing use of English as a spoken language in various parts of the world.

(c) "How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds
Makes ill deeds done."

1892. *Male. First Year.*

1. "They never fail who fall in a great cause."

2. Sketch out your idea of what a young man of about your own age should be like, whom you would choose as your particular friend.

3. How a channel tunnel would affect the welfare of the country.

Male. Second Year.

(a) Patriotism.

(b) Vivisection: What may be said for and against it use.

(c) "Tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
Sermons in stones, and good in everything."

Female. First Year.

(a) Free education.

(b) The different kinds and purposes of poetry

(c) "The mighty world
Of eye and ear, both what they half create
And what perceive."

Female. Second Year.

(a) Lord Tennyson.

(b) Tragedy.

(c) "To live in hearts we leave behind
Is not to die."

1893. *Men. First Year.*

(a) "Home, sweet home."

(b) National character, as affected by climate and other geographical conditions.

(c) How does a good photograph fall short of a good picture in artistic merit?

(d) How may the spirit of patriotism best be implanted in children?

Men. Second Year.

(a) Reverence for antiquity.

(b) Evening continuation schools.

(c) "Who sweeps a room as for Thy laws
Makes that and th' action fine."

Women. First Year.

(a) International exhibitions.

(b) The use of laws.

(c) "To be weak is miserable,
Doing or suffering."

Women. Second Year.

(a) Exercise and health.

(b) Training for citizenship.

(c) "The native huc of resolution
Is sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought."

1894. *Men and Women. First Year.*

- (a) "War its thousands slays, peace its ten thousands."
 (b) "Treason doth never prosper; what's the reason?
 Why, if it prosper, none dare call it treason."
 (c) "What we like determines what we are, and is the sign of what we are."
 (d) Charity.

Men and Women. Second Year.

- (a) "The difficulty of literature is not to write, but to write what you mean."
 (b) "The superiority of poetry over history consists in its possessing a higher truth and a higher seriousness."
 (c) "Minds that have nothing to confer
 Find little to perceive."
 (d) "Whatever your faculty may be, deliberate exercise will strengthen and confirm the good of it."

1895. *Men and Women. First Year.*

- (a) "Kings are like stars—they rise and set—they have the worship of the world, but no repose."
 (b) "A merry heart goes all the way
 Your sad tires in a mile-a."
 (c) Manners maketh man.
 (d) Time is money.

Men and Women. Second Year.

- (a) The grounds on which you would think a novel or romance good or bad.
 (b) "Often do the spirits
 Of great events stride on before the events,
 And in to-day already walks to-morrow."
 (c) "All men think all men mortal but themselves."
 (d) "What's one man's poison,
 Is another's meat and drink."

1896. *Men and Women. First Year.*

- (a) "Knowledge is proud that he has learn'd so much;
 Wisdom is humble that he knows no more."
 (b) "Honest labour bears a lovely face."
 (c) The pleasures of botanising.

Men and Women. Second Year.

- (a) "What should they know of England who only England know."
 (b) The spread of the English language.
 (c) "Take a straw and throw it up into the air; you may see by that which way the wind is."

1897. *Men and Women. First Year.*

- (a) "Where ignorance is bliss,
 'Tis folly to be wise."
 (b) The life and character of Lord Nelson.
 (c) "The child is father of the man."

Men and Women. Second Year.

- (a) The advantages and disadvantages of cheap literature.
 (b) The duties of a constitutional king.
 (c) The victories of peace.

1898. *Men and Women. First Year.*

- (a) Moral and physical courage.
- (b) Party government.
- (c) "Such is the patriot's boast, where'er we roam,
His first best country ever is at home."

Men and Women. Second Year.

- (a) "History repeats itself."
- (b) "Such is the patriot's boast, where'er we roam,
His first best country ever is at home."
or—Write an account of some work of fiction.

1899. *Men and Women. First Year.*

- (a) Travel as a means of education.
- (b) The Peace Conference.
- (c) The qualifications of a successful party leader.
- (d) The influence of the press.

Men and Women. Second Year.

- (a) "Addison became the typical representative of the revolution
which passed in his day over English literature."
- (b) The growth of democracy.
- (c) "The best of prophets of the future is the past."
- (d) Old age pensions.

1900. *Men and Women. First Year.*

1. Compulsory military service.
2. The use and abuse of newspapers.
3. The influence of climate upon temperament and character.
4. Are the conditions of modern civilisation unfavourable to poetry?

Men and Women. Second Year.

1. The advantages and disadvantages of a colonial empire.
2. Moral and material progress during the past hundred years.
3. The educational value of athletics.
4. The rural exodus.

1901. *Men and Women. First Year.*

1. Patriotism.
2. "History repeats itself."
3. Charity.
4. The use and abuse of novel-reading.

Men and Women. Second Year.

1. The advantages of a constitutional monarchy.
2. The claims of women to the parliamentary franchise.
3. "How small, of all that human hearts endure,
That part which laws or kings can cause or cure."
4. Instinct in animals.

TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE (SCOTLAND).

1892. *First Year.*

- (a) Courtesy.
- (b) "Nature never did betray
The heart that loved her."
- (c) Masques: their origin and development.

Second Year.

- (a) Trial by combat.
- (b) The Germans in East Africa.
- (c) A general election.

1893. *First Year.*

- (a) "Variety's the very spice of life
That gives it all its flavour."
- (b) A religious pilgrimage in England in the fourteenth century.
- (c) Great men : Their characteristics and their uses.

Second Year.

- (a) Procrastination.
- (b) Habit is second nature.
- (c) "Cut your coat according to your cloth."

1894. *First Year.*

- (a) Childhood.
- (b) The study of nature.
- (c) "A gentil herte kytheth gentillesse."—CHAUCER.
- (d) "Fear makes men look aside, and so their footing miss."—DRYDEN.

Second Year.

- (a) Technical education.
- (b) The position of the magazine in modern literature.
- (c) A holiday in early spring.

1895. *First Year.*

- (a) "The apparel oft proclaims the man."
- (b) Parish councils.
- (c) The special characteristics of your favourite author, and the benefits you have obtained from the study of his writings.

Second Year.

- (a) "Knowledge is power."
- (b) The choice of a profession.
- (c) A hard winter.

1896. *First Year.*

- (a) A railway bookstall.
- (b) "The cry of the children."
- (c) Rational recreation.

Second Year.

- (a) Cycling as a recreation.
- (b) Local government.
- (c) Easter holidays.

1897. *First Year.*

1. Use and abuse of reading as a recreation.
2. The Queen's diamond jubilee.
3. The power of kindness.

Second Year.

- (a) Lights and shadows of a teacher's life.
- (b) Some peculiarities of the Scottish character.
- (c) "Fast bind, fast find."

1898. *First Year.*

- (a) The pleasures of hope.

(b) The connection between commerce and civilisation.

(c) "If you wish peace, prepare for war."

Second Year.

(a) Life insurance.

(b) Market day in a country town.

(c) "Sweet are the uses of adversity."

1899. *First Year.*

(a) A school-board election in a country parish.

(b) "Raw haste, half-sister to delay."

(c) The use and the abuse of athletics.

Second Year.

(a) The place of Burns in English literature.

(b) Physical training in schools.

(c) From the Cape to Cairo.

1900. *First Year.*

(a) Patriotism.

(b) Athletics in education.

(c) Industrial and material progress in the nineteenth century.

Second Year.

(a) The struggle for supremacy in South Africa.

(b) Education in Scotland since 1872.

(c) "Prosperity doth best discover vice; but adversity doth best discover virtue."

1901. *First Year.*

(a) The value of colonial possessions.

(b) The conquest of the Soudan.

(c) "All things that are
Are with more spirit chased than enjoy'd."

Second Year.

(a) England's position and outlook at the beginning of the twentieth century.

(b) Moral courage.

(c) Ghosts.

CIVIL SERVICE.¹

1892. *August. Class I.*

1. "In civilised ages men write histories; in barbarous ages they act them."

2. The importance in national development of the growth of large towns.

3. Architecture as the expression of national character.

4. "Inquiries into nature have the best result when they begin with physics and end in mathematics."

April. Class II.

1. The wonders of electricity.

2. What is liberty?

3. The Triple Alliance.

¹ The subjects given under Class I. were set for the Indian Civil and the Home Civil Service. These under Class II. were for second-class clerks, and are of a much easier character.

October.

1. The comparative influence and responsibility of Parliament and the press.
2. Compare emigrants of different nationalities, and their chances of success in various countries.
3. Novelists of the present reign.

1893. *January. Class I.*

1. The English Constitution as a model for foreign imitation.
2. The Golden Age.
3. Opera and drama.

August.

1. The guarantees for permanence and progress offered by modern as compared with ancient civilisation.
2. The art of biography and its masterpieces.
3. Fiction has no business to exist unless it is more beautiful than reality.
4. The influence of terminology on the progress of the natural sciences.

1894. *April. Class I.*

1. The part played in discovery or invention by the genius of the individual as distinguished from the influence of the age.
2. A comparison of the epic and the novel.
3. "Inter arma silent leges."

August.

1. In the administration of law, certainty is of more importance than equity.
2. Nature as conceived by the poets.
3. The excellence of any one of the fine arts will consist chiefly in those qualities which are unattainable by its rivals.
4. Science is organised common sense.

July. Class II.

1. The improvidence of the poor and of the rich.
2. Famous men of humble origin.
2. The influence of a man's profession on his character.

April. Outport Clerks.

1. Improvements in navigation during the present century.
2. The comparative merits of customs and excise as methods of taxation.
3. The applications of electricity to domestic uses.

1895. *January. Class I.*

1. Exaggeration in life and in art.
2. The place of adventure in progress.
3. An account of an open-air meeting given by three spectators,—the first favourable, the second unfavourable, and the third indifferent to its subjects.

August. Class I.

1. The proper functions of literary criticism.
2. The Greek and the Semitic genius.
3. Instinct and reason. Discuss their origin, their operations, and their relations to the well-being of the individual and the species.
4. The corrupting influence of power, whether upon individuals or classes of men.

February. Class II.

1. The significance of Guy Fawkes as a character in English history.
2. Ancient and modern warfare.
3. "Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them."

1896. *August. Class I.*

1. "In Shakespeare character takes the place occupied by fate in Greek tragedy."
2. The effects of scientific discovery on current views of morality
3. "Exceptio probat regulam."
4. The use and abuse of historical analogies.

February. Class II.

1. The present condition of the United Kingdom compared with its condition at the beginning of the century.
2. "The world, which credits what is done, is cold to all that might have been."
3. Compare the statesman, the soldier, and the poet, with respect to their influence on the life of a nation.

December.

1. The post office of the past and of the future.
2. The consolations of the untravelled man.
3. Shakespeare, and what we know of his personality from his writings.

April. Outport Clerks.

1. A collision at sea.
2. A description of the seaport town best known to you.
3. The influence of gunpowder on the development of civilisation.

1897. *August. Class I.*

1. The employment of supernatural machinery in poetry and fiction by writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.
2. Types of character which manifest themselves at times of revolution.
3. "Naturae enim non imperatur nisi parendo." Discuss the application of this maxim to external and to human nature.
4. The inheritance of acquired characteristics.

October. Class II.

1. Wrong roads to wealth.
2. The future of the motor-car.
3. Mountain-climbing—its toils, its risks, and its rewards.

1898. *August. Class I.*

1. The morality of conquest.
2. Nihil est in lege quod non prius erat in grege.
3. Criticism and creation.
4. The place of science in general education.

June. Class II.

1. Gardening.
2. "Money is like muck, not good except it be spread."
3. Write a dialogue between two persons, one of whom believes that war is an unmixed evil, while the other is unduly impressed by the possible benefits which it may confer on a nation.

October. Outport Clerks.

1. "A man's worth depends on himself, his success on his opportunities."

2. The sea, our friend and our foe.
3. Write a letter to a friend urging him to adopt an active rather than a learned profession. Write also his reply.

1899. *August. Class I.*

1. The relation of architecture to painting and sculpture.
2. The obligations of science to mechanical invention, and of the latter to the former.
3. The use and abuse of statistics in the solution of social and moral problems.
4. The sense of national duty in a democracy.

April. Class II.

1. The chief signs of progress or decay in a nation.
2. Should all boys be obliged to learn mathematics?
3. "Speech is silvern, silence is golden."

August. Port Clerks.

1. The best way of checking unsportsmanlike behaviour in athletics.
2. The effects of prejudice.
3. What do you consider the greatest event that has happened in the world during your lifetime? Defend your opinion by reference to other events which you think of less importance.

1900. *August. Class I.*

1. *Antiquitas saeculi juventus mundi.*
2. Literary trifling.
3. The possibility of a science of history.
4. The province of the amateur in the natural sciences.

February. Class II.

1. "Whoever serves his country well has no need of ancestors."
2. The influence of English sports on the national character.
3. "Daily experience shows that it is energetic individualism that produces the most powerful effects upon the life and action of others, and really constitutes the best practical education." Discuss the truth of this sentence.

March. Port Clerks.

1. The winter life of bird and beast.
2. Which has done most for civilisation—newspaper, literature, or steam?
3. A friend of yours holds that our commercial prosperity would be much increased by the adoption of the metric system of weights and measures. Write a letter to him to show that the inconvenience of the change would counterbalance the advantage. Write also his reply.

September. Class II.

1. Hero-worship and sycophancy.
2. The difficulties of the "Concert of Europe."
3. Shakespeare as reflecting his own age.

1901. *August. Class I.*

1. To paint the triumph of vice is inartistic.
2. The struggle for existence: How far it is modified in the case of human beings?

3. "And nothing worthy proving can be proved."
4. Fieri non debuit ; factum valet.

October. Class II.

1. Self-trust is the first secret of success.
2. The Victorian revolution in the design and decoration of houses.
3. Is speculation an essential feature of modern trade?
4. Shakespeare's references to the sea and a seafaring life.

June. Port Clerks.

1. The difficulties of the benevolent.
2. Self-educated men, their most frequent virtues and failings.
3. The theory of the free breakfast table.

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