THE LECTURE SEASON.

Mechanics' Institute Lectures.

ALEXANDER JONES ON FREE EDUCATION, AND INDUSTRIAL FREE SCHOOLS, ETC.

That "knowledge is power," is as true as it is trite. There is as much aristocracy in the exclusiveness of knowledge, as there is in the exclusiveness of property, and like wealth, those who possess it may employ it in the oppression and debasement of those who are inferior to them in poverty or ignorance. Like wealth, it may be directed to the extinction of liberty among the masses, and to the binding of them in the chains of superstition and slavery. The value of knowledge is inestimable. We have never seen a man who was willing to part with what he had acquired, however circumscribed. However limited may be an individual's knowledge, he usually consoles himself with the belief that there are others who are his inferiors in that respect. There can be no permanent republican or free form of government, without the education of the people. "Error must be left free to be combatted by reason," or we must stand by the ancient British motto—"Truth against the world." The soil of ignorance is the tyrant's garden, wherein he cultivates rods to scourge the people. Without the diffusion of knowledge among the people they cannot be brought to understand and to appreciate their political rights. All history proves that there is no safe depository of power, except in the hands of the people, and which they can only hold so long as they are educated and honest. Emperors, kings, and nobles have been trusted with the reins of government and have failed. Aristocracies, oligarchies, and political theocracies, have been again and again tried, and have again and again failed. If the people cannot confide in themselves, who are they to trust? The only security for the exercise of government in their own hands, and its administration in such form as to maintain liberty and progress, is to be found in their education. Hence, their first duty in discharging the functions of free government is to provide free education; not only for primary instruction, but for useful education in all the higher branches of knowledge; not confined to the contracted and dead walls, and dead languages of feudal colleges; not limited to the precincts of West Point foundations for the fortunate few; not bound up in the rooms of free academies, nor confined to the undiffusive knowledge-spreading influence of the corridors and library shelves of Smithsonian institutes; but we wish to see the gates of knowledge thrown wide open. We wish to see its streams gushing pure and free from the mountain's side, spreading, widening, and fertilizing the whole land as they flow forward, unresisted by locks, dams, or other obstructions, and at which all can slake their thirst, without money and without price. Time would fail us to contrast the progress of a free and educated people with that of an ignorant and enslaved race. The slightest comparison of the United States with other less favored countries will show this. But, among ourselves, the work of education is only commenced. We have not performed one-half of what it is our duty to undertake. We still have a great task before us—many errors to combat, and many prejudices to overcome. Had the mass of the people, or citizens, of the Roman State, prior to the fall of Julius Cæsar, possessed only the advantages of our present primary free schools, and a free press, the republic might have endured another seven hundred years. The surest signs of the existence of ignorance and corruption among a people are to be found in the election of ignorant and corrupt rulers. When the people are not educated, nor taught the importance of political honesty and integrity, they are subject to the delusions of demagogues, being incapable of voting correctly, or, in other words, disqualified for self-government. The surest means of guarding against fraudulent legislation is to educate the people, and to encourage habits of industry, temperance, economy, and probity. Children suffered to prowl in vagrancy about the wharves and streets of a city by day, and to spend their nights in idle dissipation, make bad sovereigns and worse voters at ward elections. Next to the evils inflicted by rum, the influence produced by the dissemination and reading of trashy novels, whether published in newspapers or in books, is the most pernicious. And what is worse, for the want of an international copyright treaty, the most deleterious and wide spread cheap novels have been republications of foreign books. The American mind is fed by the works of foreign writers—many of whom are rank tories, lovers of monarchy, and haters of republican institutions. Even the works of authors who have indulged in the grossest defamation of the United States have found re-publishers, and met with a wider circulation than American works of real merit. By an international copyright treaty, we should shut out foreign trash, encourage American authorship, and supply the public with a better class of books, and with a sounder literature. We consider that the main objects of education for this life, consist in teaching a boy those things by which he can best earn his bread, advance his own interest and happiness, and at the same time promote the interest and happiness of those around him, no less than aid in the elevation of his country, by the honest discharge of his duties as a citizen. Life is too short and valuable to be wasted upon the undue study of the dead languages, or on other obsolete subjects, to the exclusion of those sciences and arts which practically apply to the daily pursuits of life. We wish to see the time arrive when the State shall pay teachers in all the higher branches of knowledge—as it now does in the primary departments—who shall deliver their instruction free to the people. Let us have regular free lectures on natural philosophy, chemistry, and mechanical philosophy, and mathematics, in all their branches, and demonstrated by the use of proper instruments and experiments. We would have teachers of mechanical and civil engineering; of drafting, modeling, surveying, &c. We would also secure free lectures on all branches of medicine and of law. Suppose all these departments of useful knowledge were publicly taught in this city, free of expense, both by day and during evenings, what would be the result? Thousands who now waste their time in idleness and dissipation at grog shops, or lounge in the boxes of theatres, to witness senseless scenes, from which no earthly advantage or permanent happiness can be gained, would gather at these high free schools, where both rational amusement and knowledge could be obtained. People often frequent places of idleness and dissipation because they have no where else to go. Napoleon Bonaparte, First Consul of France, (not the nephew,) threw wide open the doors of knowledge in Paris. Lectures on all branches of medicine, with many other sciences, were made free. The consequence was, that students abandoned the old exclusive feudal schools of Europe, (including the medical universities of Leyden and Edinburg,) and flocked to Paris. There were soon found 2,000 foreign students in that capital, chiefly in the medical departments, brought together from every part of the civilized world, embracing a large number from the United States. Science, thus rendered free, not only drew students by thousands, but attracted a great number of learned men to this brilliant focus of free light. The policy was a wise one, even in a pecuniary point of view; because the great concourse of students drawn to France from other countries spent large sums of money in their board, and for the purchase of books and instruments, exceeding, no doubt, in the aggregate, the salaries paid by the State to the teachers; and so would it be here were all the leading sciences taught free. Independent of the advantages which would be gained by our local population, we should find thousands of students flocking hither, not only from all parts of the Union, but from various other parts of the world, whose expenditures among us would far outstrip the cost of free instruction to the State. The influence of freedom in knowledge would, by rescuing numbers from vice and folly, tend to lessen the prevalence of crime, and to diminish the cost of its punishment. Many a boy endowed by nature with the noblest intellect, is often lost to his friends and country, for the want of opportunities, and whose mind, if it had been rightly developed, might have added new discoveries and aided in the progress of mankind.

"Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

The mind of James Watt was first directed to the power of steam, by hearing Dr. Black, professor of chemistry, lecture on latent heat. Boyer, the great French anatomist and surgeon, who was ennobled by Bonaparte, was the poor son of a provincial peasant, and while serving as a barber's boy in Paris, was introduced to the dissecting-room by doing errands for students. Sir Humphrey Davy was a poor boy, of Welsh descent, born in Penzance, England, and commenced life as an apothecary's lad. Oliver Evans, also of Welsh descent, of Pennsylvania, the inventor of the high pressure steam engine, was the son of a poor farmer, and had his mind first drawn to the subject by confining water in a gun-barrel, and then heating it, to make a Christmas gun. Mr. Whitney had the plan of forming a cotton gin suggested to his mind by seeing a man turning a hand organ in the street. Hundreds of similar instances probably have occurred. They prove from what slight hints the most important ideas are derived, which, when developed and carried out, as in the steam engine, the spinning jenny, and cotton gin, affect the wealth and progress of empires, as well as the personal comforts and happiness of all succeeding generations. We would ask whether an individual would be most likely to acquire new and valuable ideas in a gambling room, rum shop, or low place of amusement, or in the halls of free knowledge, listening to the enunciation of the laws of eternal truth, and amused with the surprising experiments in demonstration of their value and application to useful purposes. Far be it from us to undervalue religious teachings. These must be impressed, if anywhere, to be of value, in the homes of youth and in their respective family churches. Far be it from us to undervalue the just claims of the present colleges, or of the United States Military Academy, &c. If what is in them be good—of which there is much—for the few, it is equally good for the many. What we want is, knowledge for the million; which is like manure—to do good, it must be spread. Learning, like the dews and rains of heaven, can only produce general and abundant harvests when it falls on all alike, the just and unjust, the ignorant and wise, poor and rich, great and small. A country cannot advance permanently in freedom and prosperity by the exertions of the few. It must "go ahead," if it goes at all, by the united and enlightened labors of the million. The better the culture of the masses, the less selfish they become. With the spread of knowledge, benevolence increases. Every round gained in its ascent, just so far elevates man above savages. The savage gathers nothing from the past as a guide for the future. As lived and died his ancestors for a thousand years before him, so he lives and dies. He knows no charity for individuals beyond his own tribe or race, and perishes amidst the chase or revengeful wars. Not so with the man of knowledge, for civilization is only another name for knowledge. The capacity for its acquisition differs widely with different nations. The good and great actions of a great people are not limited to the age or era in which they flourish. The examples of exalted patriotism, national elevation in science, arts, and learning—of philosophical self-denial—of unyielding probity and patient suffering for the sake of truth and the good of mankind, which we find scattered through the pages of Grecian and Roman profane history—are felt in their influence over the minds of men to the present day, two thousand or three thousand years after their occurrence. The best test of superior intellect is the power of invention. A people who make no discoveries or inventions, make no progress. The best mode of developing the faculties of a people is to make knowledge free. Republics should act like bees, selecting what is useful and good from all quarters, and rejecting that which is bad. There are often things to be found under monarchies which are worth copying, either wholly or partially. Among the most valuable institutions on the continent of Europe are their polytechnic, or industrial schools of instruction, supported at the public expense. These were visited the past summer and autumn by Dr. Lyon Playfair, of England, and dscribed in a recent lecture delivered by him in London. In speaking of the value of scientific knowledge in opposition to the labors of mere blind experience, he states that "a striking fact, illustrating the inefficiency of mere experience was shown by the trials in the great Exhibition; for, not withstanding the great antiquity of water pumps, and the experience which England has had in them, it was, on subjecting the most approved forms to trial, found that from fifty-five to eighty per cent of their effective power is actually lost—a fact which experience did not suspect, but which science has proved, and, at the same time, indicated its remedy." It is to avoid such instances of waste of power and ingenuity as this, by teaching scientific rules, which would render them impossible, that the industrial system of education has been organized. The extent of that instruction is wide and diversified. In Prussia no less than twenty-six trade schools are established in different parts of the country, as a recognized branch of secondary instruction—all being subordinate to the central Trade Institute at Berlin, which is devoted to the special education of the higher class of producers, mechanics and engineers, chemists, architects and builders. In Saxony there are three principal trade schools, besides the Polytechnic School of Dresden, which, like the Industrial Institute of Berlin, is principally devoted to the special training of the highest class of producers. In Bavaria the number of trade schools is twenty, (or one for each town,) and no less than three polytechnic colleges, one at Munich, one at Augsburg, and one a Nuremberg. In order to convey a general idea of the nature of these institutions, we give the following extracts from Dr. Playfair's description:—"The system of industrial education in Bavaria dates form 1831, and so satisfied is the government with its effect, that they continue to support and to extend it with great liberality. It would be impossible to give the details of each college in one brief lecture." He states that it would require a union of the three colleges to make really one polytechnic institute, as each gives a special leaning to certain branches of the arts. That at Munich chiefly devotes itself to civil engineers and architects, Augsburg to machinists, and Nuremberg to chemists. Dr. Playfair confines himself to the industrial or polytechnic institution of Munich. He states that—"It is situated in a large and commodious building, possesses admirable collections, especially one of physical apparatus, and has a modelling and sculpture workshop in great activity. The number of its professors and teachers is 16, and of pupils 307, of whom 83 are foreigners. Its course of general instruction extends over three years, but engineers take a special fourth year's course. The scheme of instruction is as follows:—

FIRST COURSE.	Hours.	THIRD COURSE.	Hours.
Mathematics	7	Applied mechanics	7
Physics	7	Geodesy	4
Machinery and machine drawing	7	Machinery and machine drawing	4
Plan drawing	2	Analytical chemistry	6
Descriptive geometry	3	Applied architecture	6
Ornamental drawing	2	FOURTH (ENGINEERS') COURSE.	
SECOND COURSE.		Roads and bridges (in winter)	12
Analytical mechanics	7	Hydraulic engineering (in summer)	12
Machinery and machine drawing	6	Constructions and projections, building and surveying	12
Plan drawing	2	Architectural drawing & modelling	8
Chemistry	7		
Differential and integral calculus	7		
Architecture	4		
Building materials	3		
Electro magnetism and telegraphs	3		

Certificates of proficiency are granted, the examinations being made before a Royal Commission, who has to report to the Board of Trade on the efficiency of the institution." The high state of architecture, mechanics, and engineering in Bavaria, is attributed to the influence of these institutions. The splendid astronomical instruments in the National Observatory at Washington were made in Munich. Pupils from these schools are in great demand to fill important situations both at home and abroad, and unless the United States establish similar schools, foreigners must fill honorable and lucrative situations which should be occupied by our own citizens. While the ordinary professions of law, medicine, theology, and politics, are crowded to repletion with us, the great field opened to enterprise through polytechnic schools is neglected, simply because feudal colleges fit a man for one of the so-called learned professions, and for nothing else. Hence, a young man's destiny, honor and respectability, seem to hang on success in these old-beaten and starving paths, or end in utter and hopeless failure in every thing else. The United States has greatly suffered at times for the want of well educated engineers. The grand canal of New York was retarded in its construction, and its cost enhanced, for the want of a sufficient number of educated men of this class. A gentleman of this profession stated to us some years since, that, while young and inexperienced, he was appointed by Mr. Clinton to an important section of the grand canal, and, after his estimates had been given out and partly completed, he discovered that he had made a mistake of eighty thousand dollars. He related frankly to Mr. Clinton his error, and expected to be discharged. Mr. Clinton, in reply, stated that the fact was, the State wanted engineers, and must have them, and if they could not obtain them all ready made, the State must educate some, and told him to continue his work and make no more mistakes. At the present day the great number of new railroad companies find it difficult to procure the necessary number of engineers of high professional education and talents. They are frequently annoyed by wrong estimates or injudicious locations, which it is difficult to remedy without great pecuniary loss. Notwithstanding our vast and increasing mining interest, embracing the productions of iron, zinc, copper, lead, and coal, from the bowels of the earth, we have not a single school for miners in America. The knowledge of mining and of metallurgy, of chemistry applied to them, as well as to arts, manufactures, and agriculture, can only be properly taught in industrial free schools or Colleges. If an American student wishes to attend schools of mining and metallurgy, he must go abroad. "One of the most extensive polytechnic schools is at Carlsruhe, in the Grand Dutchy of Baden Baden," continues Dr. Playfair, "which possesses a faculty of 61 professors, and numbers 331 students, of whom 112 are foreigners. In Austria, trade schools do not yet exist, but polytechnic colleges are numerous. The attendance of students in the provincial colleges is stated at not less than 4,000, while in that of Vienna, which is the largest institution of the kind in Germany, the numbers frequenting the systematic school were, last year, 1,697, the total number in all the sections being 3,378." Dr. Playfair estimates, that, taking all the industrial schools of Germany together, they include 13,000 pupils, who are receiving systematic education at the public expense. France has long had a few polytechnic schools of great note, but chiefly devoted to the education of the sons of people of title or rank, and mainly with a view of qualifying them for military life. Still, she is in advance in this respect of many other parts of Europe. The "Ecole Polytechnique," the "Ecole des Ponts et Chausées," and the "Ecole des Mines," which are all supported by government, have been long celebrated. A more recent insititution, called the "Ecole Centrale des Arts et Manufactures," though supported by private capital, is said to be the most important industrial school in France. This school possesses forty professors and three hundred students, each of whom pays about $170 annually. The number is limited by the size of the building, and it was in contemplation to move to one of much larger size. The courses embrace three years, and are compulsory on all. In the second year the studies are divided into two parts—the one general, and the other applicable to one of the four following specialities; A, mechanics; B, engineers; C, metallurgist; D, chemist. Students are not admitted until they are eighteen years of age, and must possess an elementary knowledge of the sciences. The courses of instruction are as follows:—

1st year—Descriptive geometry, analytical geometry and mechanics, transformation of motion, physics (general), chemistry (general), chemical manipulation, hygiene and natural history, applied to the arts, drawing, &c.

2d year—Descriptive geometry, industrial physics, mechanics' materials used in the construction of machines, analytical chemistry, industrial mineral chemistry, public works, geology, manufacture of iron and steel, technology.

3d Year—Steam engines, railways, hydrostatics, construction of machines, chemical preparations and organic analysis; industrial organic chemistry and agriculture; architecture, mining, furnaces and foundries; technology, (mills, oil,) cordage, textile materials, cutting wood, stone, &c.; machine making, milling, spinning, plating, potteries, &c. Many of the leading branches are combined in the second and third year's courses. Much attention is paid to drawing and design. The students have to prove their progress by drawing plans, giving estimates, &c., upon any subject assigned them. Certificates of progress are granted after the most severe examinations, extending over many days. Such is the demand for students' services, passing through this institution, that "its certificate," obtained by a young man, was "equivalent to success in life." "Its pupils invariably pass into the most important industrial positions, not only in France, but in Spain, Belgium and England, their services being in demand by large manufacturing establishments." Allow me to give you the statistics of about five hundred of the certified students, whose occupations are so important that their histories can be traced. Of this number the following division may be made:

Agriculture	18	Chemical Arts	57
Architecture, Canals, &c.	39	Civil Engineering	56
Railroads	119	Machinery	30
Professors and Teachers	42	Metallurgy and Mining	79
Textile Manufactures	36	Paper, Commerce, Salt Works	22
Public Works	53		

To prove the value of this school, Dr. Playfair states that more than 600 foreign youth had been educated at it. At the time of his visit he found pupils in its halls from North and South America, Turkey, the Antilles, the Mauritius, Madras, Ceylon, Gibraltar, &c., Spain, Belgium, and England were pretty freely represented. The main object in industrial schools, Dr. Playfair thinks, should be to teach a pupil how to become an intelligent industrial citizen, whether as an engineer, machinist, chemist, manufacturer, agriculturist, or teacher, without assigning him exclusively to either, leaving his taste and the demand for his services to determine his choice. He says that it is not the intention or plan of the industrial institutions to impart elementary instruction in science, but only to teach its application to industry. The continental schools, in many cases, require pupils to pass an examination in integral calculus before they can be admitted into the upper technical class of mechanics, physics, and machinery. This condition for admission has a two-fold advantage—first, that it enables professors to devote all their time to the industrial applications of science, and then that the industrial institution instead of acting as antagonist to those for general education, actually give them the greatest impulse, and are their most powerful supporters. Dr. Playfair remarks that "mathematics, chemistry, drawing, and designing, are not taught as separate and distinct branches of knowledge, but, throughout the courses, in connection with and in elucidation of practical pursuits. Mathematics, as a sort of skeleton for the demonstration of all other sciences, is taught in its applications to other subjects, in every course. Its use to general physics, in astronomy, and navigation, is indispensable. The comprehensive system pursued abroad is found to have a most happy effect on the future career of the student. The manufacturing chemist leaves the school with a sufficient knowledge of the principles of machinery to guide him in its management, or to aid him in the expression of his requirements. He can plan and sketch the buildings, machinery, and apparatus, which he may require, and he has been taught enough of building and contract work to know whether the plan of the architect is sufficient and the charges of the builder within moderation. The architect does not end his education with drawing elevations and planning interiors, but chemistry and physics have shown him how to test the qualities of his building materials, and have taught him the principles of ventilation, lighting, acoustics, and drainage, while mathematics enable him to calculate the stability of his structures." An English reviewer, alluding to the work of Dr. Playfair, holds the following just language:—"To our minds the introduction of this scheme, as a prominent feature in English education, will be fraught with yet another and not less important advantage. It will tend to restore to modern training the entirety and singleness of aim which this country, since she emerged from feudal barbarism, has never get gained. The youth of Greece and Rome learned in the gymnasium and the Paelestra the accomplishments and exercises which were to be every day employments of their manhood. They had nothing to unlearn on entering into the world. The youth of feudal Europe—those, at least, who were trained for arms—spent their early years in acquiring the strength and skill which were hereafter to fit them for the tournay and the battle-field. But the public school and university Englishman (and, he might have added, the university American) of the present day finds that one of his first steps, to fit himself for the world, must be to forget as much as possible of what he has learned in the schools. He has spent years in acquiring knowledge he can never use, and skill which, instead of being an aid to him, is a positive incumbrance. This is all wrong and bad. It is a high testimony to the native excellences of the English character, (also of American,) that we have reared so many great citizens in spite of a system so vicious. But, who doubts, if this vicious system was abandoned, the general standard of the national charater would be improved? Oxford and Cambridge, Eton and Winchester, as at present constituted, could not long survive the introduction of a really enlightened method of education into the country." In polytechnic institutions England is behind many parts of the continent. Jacob Perkins, an American, justly celebrated as the inventor of machinery for making cut nails, and of steel engraving and transfer bank note engraving machinery, as well as the inventor of the steam gun, was the first to originate in London a polytechnic institution, called the "Adelaide Gallery," in the Strand, which still exists. This gave rise to the Royal Polytechnic Institution, Regent street, of which Prince Albert became a patron and frequent visiter, and we have reason to suppose that it was from the curious and wonderful exhibition of practical mechanics, in connection with the lectures and experiments in chemistry, natural philosophy, &c., in this institution, which directed his mind to the importance of the Great Crystal Palace Exhibition, and which was, in effect, only a grand polytechnic exhibition, open to all nations. This has been followed by others in Europe, and one here. We had the honor, some years ago, of a personal acquaintance with Jacob Perkins (since deceased), whom we considered one of the greatest and most useful men (self made, too, at that) which this country ever produced. At the time we visited the Royal Polytechnic Institution, in 1841, a subscription course of eight lectures were being delivered by an eminent engineer, on "The Steam Engine and Steam Navigation for Naval Officers and other Gentlemen."

These lectures embraced all the materials relating to steam machinery, the construction of engines for marine purposes, the nature and application of fuel, the properties of heat, the use of water for boilers, fresh and salt, boiler explosions and their causes, the pressure and force of steam, steam gauges, &c., with notices of all collateral points bearing on the subject. In this institution there were exhibited steam engines at work in propelling various machines. A large water reservoir, for all kinds of vessels and hydraulic apparatus, was also provided. There were lectures and experiments in various branches of practical science. A good band of music was also in attendance; and thousands were drawn to the institution, while the managers of Drury Lane and Covent Garden theatres bitterly complained of the falling off in their receipts by the superior attractions of the Royal Institution, (where Davy and Faraday had won imperishable fame,) and the more recent Royal Polytechnic School of Regent street, the forerunner of all modern crystal palaces. The United States have produced many very useful and distinguished men who have been known as self-made or self-educated men, whose success has been mainly attributable, under free institutions, to a practical education, which has been well applied to their active pursuits. It is only necessary to name Powers, Clevenger, Clarke Mills, Fulton, Cass and Clay, with a host of others, as cases in point. Industrial schools should also embrace naval architecture, navigation, the laws of trade and commerce, and practical bookkeping. By establishing such schools in the United States, and making them as common and as free as possible, we should greatly advance the interest of the country in all the elements of true greatness. The study of nature and her laws, is the study of the laws of God. As man acquires conquest over physical laws, he rises just so much higher towards his Creator in intelligence, and approximates the more closely, in his mental features, to the image of Omnipotence. God's highest and best gift is reason, bestowed for the noblest and highest purposes—not to be frittered away in unavailing misapplication—but to be devoted to intellectual progress, to the amelioration and advancement of our fellow-beings, by which our own happiness is secured—to the exploration of those boundless fields of useful knowledge spread around us, and seeking their application to the improvement of man in all that can enhance his happiness and ennoble his being.

Home Thoughts for Married and Single.

The Rev. Dr. Kennedy, pastor of the Methodist Church, Washington street, Brooklyn, delivered a lecture upon this subject, on Monday evening, at the Institute in that city. There was a pretty numerous and highly respectable audience present. At a quarter before 8 o'clock the reverend gentleman entered the room, and was received with applause. The lecturer commenced by commenting upon the haste and enthusiasm, if not impetuosity, with which the national mind moves, if at all convinced of the importance of any new mechanical, scientific, political, religious, or commercial discovery or doctrine, leading the people to a neglect of the more sedate duties of social life. In defiance of this principle, if not deemed presumptive, he would take a seat at the domestic fireside, and discourse upon a subject which was well examined and understood before men's minds were impelled with telegraph speed and one hundred horse power. The lecturer then reviewed the different orders of pursuit in life, which man is destined to follow for subsistence, assigning the first place to the agriculturist, and pointed out the different effects which habits and daily engagements have upon connubial bliss. He then showed how the perfect of enjoyment of this earthly blessing could be obtained by the mutual toleration of faults and foibles between husband and wife, and a due observance of that courtesy and attention shown to each other prior to marriage, accompanied by deference and respect. The concluding portion of the lecture was taken up with some terse and very apposite remarks upon the training up and discipline of children, during which, the speaker said: When that great alarm shall be sounded with the trump of an archangel, and the fire of the last day shall wrap the world in one wide scene of conflagration, may those angel ones whose duty it shall be to save the pure "amid the wreck of matter and the crash of worlds," evince to you the holier friendship of a higher state; and amid those mansions where the gloom of midnight never falls—where alarms are never sounded, and where the terrific glare of upheaving ruin never breaks upon the ear of affrighted woman or shuddering childhood—where the brow of eternal brightness spans the path upon which the upright come to the house of God—there may you meet—

Life's ocean crossed, no wanderer lost—
A family in heaven.

CELEBRATION OF WASHINGTON'S BIRTHDAY

BY THE

Militia and Civic Societies of the City.

Exercises of the Order of United Americans, at Metropolitan Hall.

Celebration by the Eighth Regiment, Washington Grays, at the Tabernacle.

ORATION OF N. B. BLUNT, ESQ.

ILLUMINATION OF THE CITY HALL,

&c., &c., &c.

Appearance of the Park and City Hall.

About ten o'clock in the forenoon, the different military companies passed through the Park, where they were reviewed by his Honor the Mayor. Among those which were reviewed, we noticed Eighth regiment, Washington Grays, Garde Lafayette, the Veterans of 1812, and the New York Volunteers.

Before night had set in, the whole front of the City Hall was illuminated with candles. A large transparency of Washington was erected in front of the balcony of the Governor's Room, over which were the following transparencies, which were brilliantly illuminated during the entire evening:—

Washington, born Feb. 22, 1732.

TICONDEROGA. BUNKER HILL. SARATOGA. LEXINGTON.

On the west side, facing Broadway, were the following:—

WHITEPLAINS. TRENTON. CAMDEN.

On the east side, facing French's Hotel, were also the three following transparencies, which were greatly admired by the people:—

MONMOUTH. BRANDYWINE. YORKTOWN.

Exercises of the Order of United Americans at Metropolitan Hall.

The birthday of Washington was celebrated in an appropriate manner, by this Order. About twelve o'clock the members of the Order passed in front of the City Hall in review before his Honor the Mayor, and from there up to Metropolitan Hall, where they were to celebrate the day, and hear the oration of J. W. Bryce. Long before they arrived there the two upper circles were filled to their utmost capacity with ladies and children. About one o'clock, the society entered the hall, escorted by the Continentals, and seated themselves in the parquette, the band playing "Yankee Doodle."

The proceedings opened with "Washington's March," which was performed by Adams' Cornet Band.

The Rev. A. D. GILLITTE then offered up an eloquent prayer.

The "Star Spangled Banner" was then sung by the New York Quartette Association.

The letters from the invited guests were then read. Among the number of apologies sent were letters from President Fillmore, Hon. Edward Everett, Commodore Stockton, Hon. G. Briggs, and Hon. James Brooks, Esq.

A quartette was then sung by the Quartette Association.

The Band then played "Hail to the Chief," which was loudly applauded.

The New York Quartette Association then sung another quartette, which elicited thunders of applause.

J. W. BRYCE, of Franklin Chapter No. 9, then delivered the oration. He began by saying they had assembled to celebrate the birthday of one whose deeds were his eulogy. He was not there to speak of his deeds; these deeds were embalmed forever, even with those who doubted their principles. It was not his purpose to talk of Monmouth, Brandywine, or Yorktown. He would not tell them of the dark days of the Revolution, when the patriots were inspired by God, while their feet were racked with pain by walking with their bare feet on the ice on their way to Valley Forge. They should admire Washington for the number of qualities that were combined in that great man. Cæsar achieved victories which will remain emblazoned forever; but it was ambition that inspired him to those deeds. Cromwell achieved victories; but his cruelty and fanaticism disgusted his fellow countrymen. Napoleon was also a great conqueror; but ambition was his only aim. How different was Washington's course. Born of no noble family, accepting the command of the Revolutionary army with diffidence, he was not only a soldier, but a statesman that never erred. Scarce three quarters of a century have passed since the Revolution, and this country hass been blessed beyond the most absurd exaggerations of the patriots of those days. It was his purpose, with the consent of the audiences to point out those principles which were most important to the American people. Washington, in his Farewell Address, warned and besought them to preserve the union of the States inviolate, as the only way the Union could be preserved. To support the constitution is the duty of every American citizen, and to support it they should study it carefully. He wished them to see the importance of a union of the government. Every man who has a spark of true spirit should revere the words of George Washington. (Applause.) This country, which is now peopled from Maine to California, will in a few years become so solid that no body can tear its bonds asunder. They were not a political party, but Americans, who were to preserve this country inviolate from all harm and danger. (Cheering, and great applause.) Washington pointed out, in language so delicate, the danger of severing the Union, that we should obey his instructions implicitly. He told them to beware of a love for military glory. One great object of their society was to prevent any danger which may threaten the Union. Another, which they took from Washington's Address, was obedience to the laws. The Order have sustained the laws for years past, and if it was necessary they would waste the last drop of their blood in the attempt. (Applause.) It has been said that in trying to carry out the principles of Washington, they had transgressed one of his first—that was, the forming of associations; but they were formed for the purpose of defending his principles. Nobody welcomed political refugees to this country with warmer hearts than the United Americans; but they were opposed to intervention, which that sturdy beggar, Kossuth, advocated. (Great applause.) Their Order was formed for the purpose of alleviating the evils of party politics. Washington told them that party spirit should never be nurtured, and that this country should not meddle with other nations, for it would ruin the commerce and the prosperity of this free land. He then went on to say that they should pay more attention to the principles of Washington, and more especially to that part of them which referred to non-intervention. To promote the principles of this great man was the Order of the United Americans established. (Applause.)

A quartette was then sung by the New York Quartette Association.

"Hail Columbia" was then played by the Band.

The exercises concluded with the Benediction, which was pronounced by the Rev. A. D. Gillitte.

The audience then retired, the Band playing "Yankee Doodle."

The Proceedings at the Tabernacle.

At the Tabernacle it had been arranged that N. Bowditch Blunt, Esq., was to deliver an oration at half-past one o'clock, to portions of the Eighth regiment and a select number of ladies and gentlemen. The invitation was likewise extended to one hundred and fifty of the Veterans of 1812 and the Mexican Volunteers.

Long before the appointed hour, the building began to be filled. In the centre was disposed Company A of the Washington Grays, under the command of Captain Lyons; Company B, under Captain Burger; Company C, under Captain Andrews; Company D, under Captain Little; Company E, under Captain Chamberlain, and Company F, under Captain Quin. On either side were a troop of Washington Grays, under Captain Bunyan, and the Blue troop, under Captain Patterson. To the extreme left were the Veterans, under Colonel Haight, and on the right were about twenty of the Volunteers, under Colonel Burnett. When this latter body came into the room, they were honored by all the company rising and cheering vehemently when their tattered flags were displayed. Adkins' Brass Band occupied the seats immediately under the organ, and, before the proceedings commenced, played "All's Well," "Kathleen Mavourneen," "Washington's March," and, amidst cheers, "Hail Columbia."

On the conclusion of this national air, Major General Sandford, Generals Hall and Morris, Rev. Dr. Van Pelt, Mr. Blunt, and other gentlemen, entered from an inner room, and ascended the platform.

General SANDFORD occupied the chair, and called upon Dr. Van Pelt to offer up prayer. The reverend gentleman acceded to the request, and in most appropriate words called down the Divine blessing on the country in general and on the present proceedings in particular.

General SANDFORD then introduced,

N. BOWDITCH BLUNT, Esq., who came forward and said:—The birthday of Washington! What thronging memories cluster around this hallowed day! How swells the heart with patriotic pride at mention of the immortal name of Washington! Ladies, Citizens, and Citizen Soldiers—I am here, in obedience to your welcome commands, to perform the honored duty which your partiality has assigned to me. Nearly seventy years have rolled into the abyss of time since that memorable era, when, forced by stern necessity, the parent country recognized the rights of her infant progeny, and acknowledged her existence as a sovereign and independent nation. The two or three millions who survived that deadly struggle have swelled into a teeming population of upwards of twenty millions—the sisterhood of the old thirteen has increased to a united family of thirty-one; and the constrained limits of our ancient domain, overleaping the snow-capped ridges of the rocky barriers of the West, and breasting successfully the turbid waters of the Father of Rivers, now claim the mighty lakes and their outlets at the North, the Great River (Rio Grande) at the South, and the vast expanse of two mighty oceans East and West, as their present boundaries. The prophecies and taunts which, in greeting her birth, proclaimed for the infant republic a sickly existence and premature death, have, like their authors, passed into oblivion. The great problem has been solved. The capacity of man for self-government is no longer an experiment; and, in the pride of honest fame, the American republic stands before the world a vast and splendid monument of civil and religious liberty. Well may we, year by year, accord our joyous greeting at the return of that day which gave birth to him, who, under Providence, above all and more than all, was the instrument of effecting this great and enduring good. Welcome, thrice welcome, then, be this glorious anniversary; and again and again let the cheer go forth with which we hail the birthday of our Washington! It is not on an occasion, nor before an audience like this, that I am required to recount the history of his career. From earliest infancy it has been impressed upon every American heart. The tales of the nursery, the child's first primer, the youth's reader, the class book, the history of the Revolution, and the "Life and Writings of Washington," by our own American biographer, the accomplished Sparks, have performed that task alike for the infant mind, the youthful understanding, and the matured intellect of manhood and age. I well remember, in my boyish days, with what avidity I scanned his portrait as portrayed in the graceful and elegant language of a cotemporary, the Marquis Chastellux. Having visited him at his headquarters, he thus writes:—"The continent of North America, from Boston to Charleston is a great volume, every page of which presents his eulogium. Brave, without temerity—laborious, without ambition—generous, without prodigality—noble, without pride—virtuous, without severity—he seems always to have confined himself within those limits where the virtues, in clothing themselves in more lively but more changeable and doubtful colors, may be mistaken for faults. His stature is noble and lofty—his physiognomy mild and agreeable. He has neither a grave nor a familiar air. His brow is sometimes marked with thought, but never with inquietude. Inspiring respect, he inspires confidence, and his smile is always the smile of benevolence." Such was the portrait of the living man, as drawn while yet in the command of the army, and in the seventh year of the war. When the war of the Revolution broke out Washington was in the prime of manhood. Trained to arms from early youth, he united in his person all the moral and physical attributes which befit, as they should belong to, exalted station. His wisdom, patriotism and experience, pointed him out above all others as the chosen man ordained by Heaven to work out our emancipation. When, therefore, in the Congress of 1775, after the encounters of Lexington and Concord, it became evident that the struggle had commenced, that great champion of independence, John Adams, at once directed the attention of Congress to Col. Washington, then a member, "as a gentleman whose skill and experience as as an officer, whose independent fortune, great talents, and excellent universal character, would command the approbation of all America, and unite the cordial exertions of all the colonies, better than any other person in the Union." On the next day, 15th June, 1775, Washington was unanimously elected General and Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United Colonies. Two days after this memorable event, and on the very day on which his commission was signed by Congress, occurred that first great battle of the Revolution, which has rendered the name of Bunker Hill immortal, and inscribed on the roll of martyred patriots the imperishable name of Warren. The war of the revolution was not a mere struggle about stamps, or a strife about tea. It was a war of principle, a contest for supremacy of two great antagonistic forces—arbitrary power on the one side, and civil and religious liberty on the other. Between these opposing powers a war of ages had already ensued. Baffled oft—at times subdued—the etherial spirit, although slumbering through the dark night of the Middle Ages, awoke with the Reformation, and again renewed the contest. From that time it has gone on triumphing and to triumph. "Human agency cannot extinguish it. Like the earth's central fire, it may be smothered for a time, the ocean may overwhelm it, mountains may press it down, but its inherent and unconquerable force will heave both the ocean and the land, and, at some time or other, in some place or other, the volcano will break out and flame up to heaven." Of the events of the Revolution I propose not to speak. The scaffold, the dungeon, and the prison ship, alike performed their work of vengeance and cruelty. The battle fields of the Revolution have now become classic ground, and the names of Saratoga, White Plains, Monmouth, Trenton, Camden, and Yorktown, are familiar as household words. Through fire and blood the noble spirits of that day went on their course of political regeneration and national salvation. But a greater work still remained: the work of devising and framing a form of government for themselves and posterity. The original colonization of the Northern portion of the American continent was controlled by different influences, and directed by discordant and various interests. Thus, while on the bleak and barren rock of Plymouth, a band of exiles, prompted by high religious faith, and seeking an asylum wherein to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences, planted a colony, the stern Puritan spirit of whose founders existed in much of its ancient force at the period of the revolution, other causes and other influences had controlled the colonization of the middle and Southern colonies and provinces. Personal adventure, and the spirit of commercial aggrandizement, had operated mainly in the settlement of Virginia and New York, while the peaceful followers of Penn, and the Catholic companions of Baltimore, still maintained their fixed and variant religious creeds. To unite under one form of government the descendants of the Cavaliers and the Roundheads—of the followers of Luther and Calvin—the proscribed Huguenot—the persecuted Quaker, and the zealous disciple of Romish supremacy, was no easy task; and with many fears and misgivings was the Convention held of which Washington was president, and to which we owe that sacred charter of constitutional liberty which forms the bond (may it never be broken) of our glorious Union. The sages who framed the constitution, brought to the work a thorough knowledge of the science of government, a practical experience, an ardent patriotism, and an earnest, unselfish desire to promote the best welfare of