

THE ANGLO-SAXON IN THE SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE.¹

THE WORKINGMAN IN AUSTRALIA.



IN Australia we have a continent reserved in the Southern Hemisphere, as the greater part of North America is reserved in the opposite hemisphere, for the social and political experiments of the Anglo-Saxon race. The already many-sided development of our English-speaking people has here found for itself a large and splendid field, where the conditions are in many ways new and deeply interesting.

Australia is adding a new chapter to our race experience. As we study it we should remember that the value of this race experience is cumulative. More and more the various sections of our English-speaking world must react upon one another. Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Australasia, South Africa, these are the old and the new centers of that ever-widening life to which a common genesis, language, and literature, a common necessity of dealing with other races, and, on the whole, parallel lines of political and social effort, give that degree of likeness which produces mutual interest and mutual reaction. Already our politics and literature furnish abundant illustrations of the extent to which these communities influence one another. Professor Bryce's latest book supplies conclusive proof of the deep, sympathetic, and critical attention with which the evolution of American institutions is watched in Great Britain, while a glance at any American book-shelf shows that British thought, beyond that of any other country, is constantly molding American opinion in every conceivable range of inquiry.

In his "Problems of Greater Britain" Sir Charles Dilke shows how the great colonies are furnishing, almost as much as the United States furnish, precedents helpful for the solution of questions which have engaged the attention of the motherland for centuries.

Canada, in framing her federal system, has grafted many of the results of American ex-

perience upon British institutions, and in the corresponding system which Australia is planning she will draw lessons from Great Britain, the United States, and Canada alike. In at least two great congeries of British states, possibly in the empire itself, the United States is destined to see new and important applications of federal ideas.

In the wonderful range of mutual reaction of which these are but a few examples Australia is sure to become a factor not only of importance but of marked individuality. Of all the countries which have been originally settled as offshoots of Great Britain it has the population which is most exclusively British. No other European nation has ever held any part of it, nor has the drift of continental emigration been directed to its shores. No weaker race has got, or, as I shall have to show later, is likely to get, such a footing there as will enable it to confuse the forms of national growth. Australia is more Anglo-Saxon than the United States, with their negro millions and their steady inflow of continental emigrants; more Anglo-Saxon than Canada, with its considerable fraction of French population; than South Africa, with its Dutch Boers and native races; than any country save Great Britain itself. Under the sunny skies of the Southern Hemisphere an almost purely British stock has a continent to itself as an unfilled sheet on which to write the history of its development.

Australia, again, contrasts sharply with all the other continents in those physical conditions which in the long run modify national characteristics. Its comparative isolation in the southern seas is only a type of the isolated character of many of its chief phenomena. Exceptional conditions of soil and climate, and probably also of geological history, have given it a flora and a fauna peculiar to itself. Within an area about equal to that of the United States it presents a strange combination of extraordinary inducements to man's occupation, and hindrances equally extraordinary. A climate among the most seductive and delightful in the world at times turns traitor and with relentless grip crushes out over vast areas the hope of farmer and shepherd. In some large sections an unexampled fertility of soil and a capacity to produce as few other coun-

¹ "Uppingham," in this magazine for September, 1888, and "The Reorganization of the British Empire," in December, 1888, are by the same author.

tries can everything "that is pleasant to the sight and good for food" are matched in others by a hopeless aridity to which even Africa can scarcely furnish a parallel. Over wide stretches of country the traveler meets with a monotony of scenery and a sameness of gloomy vegetation which must be seen to be understood, while in other districts all the arts of nature seem exhausted in producing picturesque effects or in giving luxuriant variety to the forms of production.

The want of lakes and great rivers, the absence of gurgling streams and fountains, seem well-nigh unbearable to those accustomed to Europe or America, but the Australian finds compensation in the stimulating elasticity of his sunny atmosphere with the outdoor life which it permits, and shudders at the thought of English mists, Canadian winters, and chilly New England springs. In its production of gold Australia was once the marvel of the world, and now new discoveries of silver as well as of gold render it probable that the application of capital and science to mining may wrest as great treasures from the center of her deserts and the heart of her hills as were once dug up from the loose soil of Ballarat and Bendigo.

It is the one continent of which it may truly be said that not only its history but even the character and temperament of its people have been primarily influenced by the geological circumstances which gave it great mineral deposits.

The partly desert and partly pastoral character of central Australia leads to the peculiar result, evidently a permanent one, that the mass of the population is settling on the rim of the continent. Each province fronts on the sea, and from this maritime base is gradually wrestling with the difficult problem of its arid interior. Large inland cities Australia can never have. Great maritime cities it already has, which increase in size out of all ordinary proportion to the general population of the country. This maritime situation of all the provinces, with an uninhabitable or partly habitable inland region, which divides north from south and east from west, is sure to give peculiar features to the political and social future of the country. The settlement of a vast agricultural population on fertile inland plains, which seems the most striking feature in the growth of the United States and Canada, will be almost entirely wanting here. Instead of this it seems likely that the great mineral and pastoral areas will continue to contribute, as they do now, to the exceptional prosperity of dense populations gathered in the cities of the coast, or in the more limited but exceedingly rich agricultural districts comparatively near the sea.

Most striking of all its features in contrast

and potential influence are its climatic conditions. Southern Australia has the temperature of southern Italy; parts of northern Australia, that of the West Indies. The grape and olive, orange and lemon, in the south; in the north the pineapple, sugar-cane, and banana—these mark the climatic limits. There is no northern Europe, Scotland, New England, or Canada to toughen the fiber of the race. For the first time the Anglo-Saxon has a whole continent where his environment tends to relax the strain of life. One has only to go to Australia to see that he enjoys the change. But will it weaken him? or what will be the line of modification? It is perhaps too soon to do more than to observe tendencies, for the history of the country is short.

A century practically covers the whole of it, while the actual record of vigorous growth is comprised within little more than half that time. The first settlement was partly a result of the American Revolution. Some new outlet was sought by the British Government for the criminals previously transported to the plantations of the Southern States or to the West Indies, and Australia was selected as a remote and entirely unsettled part of the world.

The first penal colony was founded in 1788, and thenceforward for many a day Botany Bay and Van Diemen's Land became associated in men's minds with the despair and degradation of human life. It was not a hopeful beginning. Toiling sometimes in chains, sometimes under the eye of armed keepers, and always in exile, men laid the foundations of a country which was to become in a peculiar degree the happy home of free and prosperous labor.

It is remarkable how little permanent impress the convict system with its tragedies of sin and suffering left behind it. Men transported for political offenses, for smuggling, poaching, and other misdeeds generally associated in the mind with energy and daring rather than with deeper criminality, became in many cases hardy and useful pioneers when their period of punishment had expired. Many perished by dissipation and violence. In the confused days of the gold excitement some betook themselves to bush-ranging and were exterminated with relentless severity. Comparatively few married, and the worst class largely perished with the individuals who composed it. If Australia suffered in the character of her earlier settlers, she was more than compensated by those who came later. As soon as the pastoral and agricultural capacities of the country became known, men of capital and education came in unusual numbers to the country, attracted by the facilities for obtaining land and by the advantage of cheap penal labor. With the discovery of gold in 1851 the history of

the country really began. There followed an influx of energy and enterprise such as a new country has perhaps never before received. No fields so rich or nuggets so large had ever been found before. In 1852 alone one hundred and seventy-four tons of gold were obtained. The Californian fields were now becoming exhausted, and from America as well as from Europe men crowded to this new El Dorado. In 1853 forty thousand miners were at work in the diggings of Ballarat and the neighboring districts alone. The population of Victoria increased at the rate of nearly 100,000 a year.

The overmastering energy of the new population was even more remarkable than its numbers. It is not too much to say that the men who came to Australia in the years that succeeded 1851 formed one of the most vigorous and interesting communities of modern times. They were eminently fitted to lay the foundations of a new state. Disorder was suppressed and the supremacy of law established with a vigor and completeness unexampled elsewhere under like conditions of rapid growth. It is a remarkable fact, considering the conditions under which the country was populated, that lynch law has rarely been resorted to as supplementary to the ordinary course of justice, and is now, even in the remote mining and pastoral districts, practically unknown.

In framing the institutions of the country the people had, moreover, a free hand. Great Britain's new colonial policy of leaving her colonists to work out their own development on their own lines was now practically established. The independent and self-reliant character of the population, the prosperity of the country, the freedom of self-government, and the exceptional circumstances connected with the growth of the provinces of Australia, have had the result that to-day we have legislative tendencies and social conditions which in some respects are of a more democratic type than in any other English-speaking country. So democratic are they that there has never existed any strong temptation to make them republican. The tendency is rather towards advanced forms of state socialism.

To the student of social questions the feature in the development of Australian democracy which first arrests the attention is the condition of industry. Ends which on the continent of Europe reformers have only dreamed of and rulers have but begun to think about, which in Great Britain and even in America are being reached slowly and painfully, have here been gained at a bound, and are now accepted as in the natural order of events.

The position of the laboring man in Australia is unique. He has shorter hours of work, a

higher average of pay, and more distinct and direct political recognition than anywhere else. The combinations among workmen to give effect to their views are the most complete yet devised. Eight hours is the limit now fixed by custom for a working day, and the custom is so universal that no law is needed to give it force. The struggle by which this limit was secured in Victoria took place as far back as 1856. On the main street of Ballarat is a monument erected to the memory of James Galloway, there described as the "founder" of the eight-hour system in Victoria, and he died in 1860. On the same monument is inscribed the Australian workingman's ideal, "Eight hours' work, eight hours' recreation, eight hours' rest." To commemorate the triumph of labor the 22d of April is observed in Melbourne as a festival under the name of the "Eight Hours' Day." A public holiday is proclaimed; the trades march in procession; the city corporation, the governor, and the leading public men unite in recognizing and giving significance to the general holiday. Thus is an epoch marked by a country which happily has no victories to celebrate but those of industry.

The shortened day's work gives the artisan an opportunity for an evening's enjoyment. Almost universally in the larger towns but five hours' work is done on Saturday. In the afternoon the workmen crowd to the public parks and gardens, to the foot-ball or cricket grounds, or go upon excursions to an extent greater than I have ever observed elsewhere. They have time for amusements and money to spend upon them. Judged by all known standards the workman's paradise is here.

One asks whether this position won by industry is permanent, or is made possible only by abnormal and temporary conditions.

It is clear that Australia's economic history is quite exceptional. The country has never been crippled or hampered by wars. The native population was never numerous enough to make serious resistance to the occupation of the land, and British men-of-war on the coasts have kept off all external danger. Never did people walk along safer paths to industrial prosperity. The product of gold alone between its discovery in 1851 and 1888 was nearly £300,000,000 sterling. In addition to this there has been a constant flow of British capital into the country for every purpose of speculation and enterprise. During the last twenty years a system of state borrowing for the construction of public works has given a steadiness to the labor market not to be looked for under other circumstances. Meanwhile competition in labor has been lessened by the distance of the country from the great centers of European population. It costs about five times

as much to go from Europe to Australia as to the United States or Canada. The greater difficulty of return makes the break more trying for the emigrant, and therefore less lightly undertaken. As a consequence, in spite of the great attractions they offer to the workingman, all the colonies have up to a recent date spent considerable sums in giving assistance to desirable immigrants in order to supply the requirements for labor.

It seems fairly clear that the present advantageous and indeed unequaled condition of the workingman in Australia has sprung from the three facts I have mentioned, viz.: the extraordinary prosperity caused by the gold discoveries, an exceptional command of outside capital, and a natural restriction on labor competition unknown in Europe or America. One other condition should be noted. I shall have occasion to refer to the singular concentration of population in the towns. This gives to labor a facility of combination much greater than is possible in countries where the population is largely agricultural and is widely scattered. The labor questions of Australia are practically settled by the action taken in Melbourne, Sydney, Brisbane, and Adelaide, and the relative influence of the urban population is far greater than in any other English-speaking community.

In saying that the status of the workingman is the outcome of exceptional circumstances I do not mean to suggest that it cannot be permanent. This is an open question. A great financial crisis, or a large influx of population, would apply crucial tests to the existing conditions of the labor problem. Prudent Australian financiers expressed to me the gravest doubts whether the country, with all its splendid resources, could bear its burdens and maintain its prosperity without a much larger producing population than it has, pointing out that the amazing buoyancy of American finance seemed to depend on an immense influx of productive and competitive labor. The workingman in Australia, on the other hand, objects to any such indiscriminate immigration as that which has filled up America, and evidently fears that it would weaken the supremacy he enjoys. Feeling runs strongly at times upon such questions, and occasionally one hears the further immigration of the poor from Europe objected to at labor meetings in a tone which makes one ask whether the workingman is not prepared to repeat on this vast continent the selfishness, nowhere more vehemently denounced than here, of the landlord in the small countries of the Old World. This extreme view, however, is probably local, temporary, and merely indicative of the hard fight which labor is certain to make for the position it has won.

It may be said generally that in race and labor problems American lines of national development are closely watched in Australia. They are watched for warning as well as for suggestion. When Australians object to the Chinaman overrunning the country with his cheap labor they are glad to find themselves in sympathy with Americans of the Pacific coast. When they object to the introduction, under specious pretexts, of a colored and quasi-serf population in the northern tropical districts, it is from America that they draw their warning. The war of secession, and American difficulties in dealing with the negro, have planted in the Australian mind a fixed resolution not to allow any large race question to grow up which may weigh down future generations with its grievous problems. To one portion of the Australian continent the temptation to permit something of the kind has come under subtle forms. Northern Queensland is tropical in climate and productions. As a sugar-producing country portions of it can scarcely be excelled. But where the sugar-cane flourishes the white man works with difficulty, if he can work at all. Up to a short time ago planters were allowed to import Kanakas from the islands of the Pacific to work the plantations, and under this arrangement large amounts of capital were invested in the business. The importations were made under a regulated system of contract. No engagement was to be for longer than three years, and every precaution was taken to make sure that the contracts were purely voluntary and the treatment of the laborers humane.

But even under arrangements so strict as this Australia grew restless and remains suspicious. A bill has passed the Queensland legislature to prevent the further importation of Kanakas after a fixed date. The planters assert that the carrying out of this bill means ruin for them, and that it has been passed through the jealousy of the white laborer, afraid even of the neighborhood of cheap competitors. Opinion in Queensland is thus divided: in other parts of Australia where local influences are not so strong, it seems to me to favor restriction. "Better an industry should perish and capital be sacrificed," men say, "than that a modified system of slavery should attain the magnitude of a great interest in this free continent."

A nice question arises, put to me thus by one of the foremost public men of Australia: "Can a population of white laborers, with votes, be expected to rule justly and wisely a population of competing black laborers, without votes?"

He had come to the fixed conclusion that it was not to be expected, and that the social

and political dangers infinitely outweighed the industrial and financial advantage of having a colored laboring population. If the conflict of opinion now going on does result in the continued employment of colored races on any considerable scale, it will certainly be under stricter regulations and closer supervision than it ever has been in any other country. Nor will there ever be a colored vote to influence national politics.

Still more decisive is the stand which has been taken against any considerable influx of Chinese. Upon this point the opinion of all classes is practically unanimous. Resistance has been urged as vigorously and almost as passionately by responsible statesmen as by trades unions or irresponsible mobs. To oppose Chinese immigration has almost become the touchstone of Australian patriotism. Where imperial treaties have stood in the way of exclusion the treaties have had to yield to the popular resolve, and Great Britain has been left to patch up the matter with China as best she can. Indications these are, no doubt, of national and industrial selfishness. The instinct of self-preservation asserting itself, is the Australian explanation. Labor has gained a new place in the world, and must make a stand for what it has won. Civilization has a new opportunity, and it is threatened. The danger is far greater than in America, perhaps imminent. China, with its 400,000,000 of people, is close to Australia. The ports of Hong Kong, Singapore, and Batavia form a connected line of easy communication, and only narrow seas lie between populous China and unoccupied Australia, with its auriferous soil, its sunshine, and its easy conditions of money-making, the magnets which draw the Chinaman. The best-paid labor in the world, the highest ideal of laboring comfort, have to face the meanest workmen and the meanest conception of what is essential to life. What makes the position critical is that 4,000,000 face 400,000,000 at close quarters. The strength of British ironclads is behind Australians, or they might have to pay more severely for their impulsive action in denying international rights to China; for China has a navy and is irritated. No code of international morality that I know of can justify the attitude of the Anglo-Saxon to the Mongolian, varying as it has done according to the particular point of national contact. Yet I suspect that race instincts and ideals are too strong for accepted standards of intercourse. I went to Australia under the impression that the anti-Chinese movement found its chief strength in the lower forms of labor jealousy. I came away convinced that it was actuated quite as much by high national ideals.

This objection to having the internal affairs

of the country influenced by the Pacific islander or the Asiatic is supplemented by an almost equally strong objection to the neighborhood of other European races.

Australians regard with extreme impatience any attempt which foreign powers make to get a footing in the Pacific. With characteristic race confidence they look forward to complete Anglo-Saxon domination of the southern seas as the natural result of their growth, and object to anything which threatens to hinder the course of manifest destiny. An impulsive effort was made by a single colony to anticipate Germany in taking possession of the whole unoccupied portion of New Guinea; and the refusal of Lord Derby, then the British Colonial Secretary, to indorse the unauthorized action of the colony was highly resented. To retain the part actually occupied the colonies at present unite in contributing a considerable sum.

Still more intense is the objection made to the establishment of French convict stations in the Pacific islands. The presence of a foreign power is here aggravated by the neighborhood of an offensive system, the evils of which Australians know too well.

While other European nations, however, cannot be excluded from the Pacific, Australians can afford to look upon their presence with greater complacency than they do. The Frenchman and the German can only be exotics in any portions of the southern seas open to their occupation. They may establish stations and develop trade, but they cannot create centers of population and national force such as spring up without any artificial stimulus in the temperate regions of Australia, New Zealand, and Tasmania. The superior energy or the drift of circumstances has placed the Anglo-Saxon in the more temperate areas of the world in Australasia and South Africa as in America, and no limit can be put to the race advantage which he derives from this fact. Political isolation from Europe such as that of America is, however, impossible for the Australian. He has reason to watch the drift of European affairs with interested keenness. The question of whether Great Britain or Russia is in India and holds command of Indian waters is vital to Australia's position in the southern seas. With the bulk of her present trade passing along routes which depend for their security on Great Britain's supremacy in the East, and with large hopes of future trade in the China and Indian seas, her interest in the Eastern question is deep and permanent. With France, Germany, Russia, and China within striking distance, with ambitions in the Pacific especially irritating to some of these powers, with a country and a trade singularly exposed to naval attack,

and with a population small compared with the vast extent of coast to be defended, connection with a great naval power like Great Britain appears essential to Australia's position. Isolated as she seems to be on the map, her interests are singularly European. She has been the first of the great colonies to unite with Great Britain in a friendly arrangement for sharing in the expense of naval defense; and the protection of common trade interests, vast already, and increasing rapidly, is of itself probably sufficient to determine for a long time to come the closest political relations with the mother country.

But this is a question which Australians will have to determine for themselves. Great Britain makes no claim to dominate their political development. If they prefer to take the risks of independent nationality, they will be free to do so. If they decide that greater dignity and greater advantage will flow from association on equal terms in a great state, their position and resources will give them peculiar influence in a closely united British Empire. The question of complete federal union among themselves is now being fought out in the face of provincial jealousies and of hesitation to surrender sovereign provincial rights which recall the difficulties of American statesmen after the Revolution. So entirely free have the separate provinces been left by the motherland to rule themselves that they shrink from submitting to bonds even of their own making. When the rising tide of passion for a united Australia has swept away these obstacles, the country will be in a better position to form a large and matured judgment on the far wider question of British national unity. Meanwhile it seems to me, after some study of the question, that the major forces in Australia, whether they be the opinion of the clearest political minds, the financial, commercial, and military interests and necessities of the country, or the sentiment of the masses of the people, tend towards continued unity with the motherland rather than towards that separation which some regard as the inevitable result of large colonial development.

The geography of the continent is fatal to the dream indulged in by some Australians of a future for the country like that of the United States, where the rapid increment of population has lifted a state into the position of a great world power by the growth of a century. The swift advance, under abnormal circumstances, of the last fifty years has encouraged this dream, but it is clearly impossible of realization. There is nothing to match the great river valleys of the Ohio, Mississippi, and Missouri, or the wide-reaching prairies which in America offered homes to millions of immigrants as soon as the

Alleghanies had been passed. Irrigation will do much to support a dense agricultural population in places. Artesian wells may do a good deal for a pastoral population in others, but on the whole the center of Australia will only be conquered slowly, and will never be densely inhabited.

But Australians are justified in framing an ideal no less inspiring, if less magnificent. A slower growth of population carries with it the probability of its being more select, and it is doubtful if any country will give the opportunity for a higher degree of individual prosperity. The glory of Australia, in my opinion, will lie not in the vastness but in the superior quality and opportunities of its population.

The resources of the country are of a kind which strike the imagination, and all the more from the element of chance which enters so largely into them. It did not take many years to exhaust the surface deposits of gold which by their extraordinary richness produced the original rush of the "fifties," but now on many of the very spots where in those days tens of thousands of miners plied the shovel and rocked the cradle shafts have been sunk to great depths to the rich quartz veins beneath, and the search for gold, once purely a game of chance, has here become a settled industry. New discoveries of the precious metals are scarcely less startling than the old ones. Queensland promises to rival Victoria in its gold-producing capacity. Mount Morgan, discovered only five years ago, is unique among the gold mines of the world. It is a low mountain, the whole body of which is impregnated with gold in an extremely diffused state, but yielding extraordinary returns, the dividends for last year alone amounting to about a million pounds sterling. Broken Hill, in New South Wales, discovered seven years ago, has already justified the claim that it is the most valuable and extensive deposit of silver known to exist in the world. By these and other late discoveries the Australian mind, which was settling down to calmness after the old period of gold fever, has been inflamed with new visions of the possibilities of the yet unexplored regions of the continent.

But Australia has in her vast pastoral areas sources of wealth as great and more permanent than those of her mines. Already she has nearly one hundred millions of sheep, which in the mild climate and under the sunny sky of the country require no shelter throughout the year and no food beyond what they get on the open plains. It is true that the sunny sky may change to a sky of brass, and that drought is the dread of the Australian shepherd, herdsman, and farmer. Occasionally there is a suc-

cession of dry seasons, and then sheep have perished by millions and cattle by thousands on the more remote stations. To master recurring droughts is the great problem of Australia's inland future. Here, as elsewhere, nature challenges man's free advance, and places some special obstacle in his way. Australians are facing their task with energy, confidence, and the promise of much success. They have learned the art of drawing wealth even from scrub land of which a single sheep requires several acres for its support. Irrigation works on a large scale have been begun in Victoria and South Australia. The storage of water in reservoirs is being carried out in a large way by munici-

palities and private companies. Throughout New South Wales and Queensland the boring of artesian wells has met with satisfactory success. Once given the certain means of carrying the flocks and herds through the occasional periods of drought, there seems no limit to the pastoral capacity of such immense provinces as New South Wales and Queensland. With completed systems of irrigation Australia promises to become one of the greatest grape and fruit growing countries in the world. The many difficulties with which men are confronted on this great continent are more than matched by its wonderful possibilities.

George R. Parkin.

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THE MEMOIRS OF TALLEYRAND.¹

TALLEYRAND'S RELATIONS WITH NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

HIS APOLOGY FOR TAKING OFFICE UNDER THE DIRECTORY.

[Talleyrand, learning that a decree from the Convention permitted his return, arrived in Paris in September, 1796. Having been made an Academician in his absence, he delivered two papers before the Institute, one on America, the other on the necessity of French colonies. Almost immediately he established the closest connection with the Directory, and presently became Minister of Foreign Affairs. This is his story of how it came about.]



PERCEIVING no element of order and no guarantee of stability in the various political factions whose struggles I witnessed, I took care to keep aloof from active politics. Madame de Staël, who had again acquired a certain influence, earnestly begged me to go with her to Barras, one of the members of the Directory. I demurred at first; I could not call on a member of the Directory without asking to see all the other Directors, and chiefly those who had been my colleagues in the Constituent Assembly. The reasons alleged to justify my refusal did not seem valid. Besides, they were conveyed through Madame de Staël, who, being anxious that Barras and I should be brought together, so managed matters that the Director sent me a note inviting me to dine with him at Suresnes on a certain day. I had no alternative but to accept. On the appointed day I was at Suresnes at about three o'clock in the afternoon. In the dining-room, which I had to cross to reach the draw-

ing-room, I noticed the table was laid for five persons. Much to my surprise, Madame de Staël was not invited. A man who was rubbing the floor showed me a cupboard containing a few odd books, and told me that the Director — the title given to Barras in private life — seldom came home before half-past four. While I was engaged in reading, I know not what book, two young men came in to ascertain the time by the drawing-room clock, and seeing that it was only half-past three, they said to each other, "We have time to go for a swim." They had not been gone twenty minutes when one of them returned, asking for immediate help; I ran, with all the persons in the house, to the riverside. Opposite the garden, between the highroad and the island, the Seine forms a kind of whirlpool in which one of the young men had disappeared. The watermen of the neighborhood quickly rowed to the spot, and two of them most courageously dived to the bottom, but all the efforts made to save the unfortunate fellow proved vain. I went back to the house.

The corpse of the young man was found only the next day, caught in the weeds at a spot more than six hundred yards distant from the place where he had disappeared. His name was Raymond; Lodève was his birth-place. Barras was very fond of him; he had brought him up, and since he had been appointed a Director he had made him his aide-de-camp. I was alone in the drawing-room, not knowing exactly what to do. Who was to tell Barras the misfortune that had just happened? I had never seen him. My position

¹ Extracts from the Memoirs, printed in advance of the volumes by arrangement with Messrs. Griffith, Farran & Co., the English publishers. (See also THE CENTURY for January.)