

TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Discontented Rich.

THE poor man declares, «If only I were rich I should be content.» He little knows the discontent of the rich. The occasions of discontent among the rich are of various kinds. One frequent cause of uneasiness on their part is on account of their relative poverty. There is with all but one rich man in every community—always some one richer; and to certain minds this is a continual reproach. There is at times a rage for greater and greater wealth that produces a sort of fever in the blood which destroys a good part of the happiness of large possession.

Then there are social ambitions and emulations among the wealthy that tend to discontent. Some achieve riches because the strife for a living for their families is carried on with such conscience and industry that riches are the natural consequence; but some pursue riches from the passion to surpass therein; some in order to shine in a certain social set; some for the opportunity of display in general; some for the love of success; some for the love of power. Emerson says: «The pulpit and the press have many commonplaces denouncing the thirst for wealth; but if men should take these moralists at their word, and leave off aiming to be rich, the moralists would rush to rekindle, at all hazards, this love of power in the people, lest civilization should be undone.» But this love of power, this emulation, and this passion for success, do not conduce to the contented mind.

There is still another cause of discontent among the rich—a discontent occasioned by their very riches. There have always been examples of this unease; but, on the whole, it is a modern ailment, a form of the altruism that had its most notable date some nineteen hundred years ago. In our day the discontent of the rich, of the well-to-do, is probably greater than ever before in the history of civilization, save in exceptional moments of religious revival or mania.

In its extreme form this discontent is morbid and enfeebling; it is moody and self-reproachful, and leads to unreasonable and unwise action. In its more usual manifestation this discontent is accompanied by just so much pricking of the conscience as leads to a keen sense of responsibility, an appreciation of the hard labor behind every piece of money and every bond and security. This discontent is noble, and leads to useful living. It builds hospitals and museums and halls of learning and churches; it builds character and honorable and devoted citizenship; and, as good as all else, if not better, it breeds justice, consideration, and sympathy in trade and in all manner of business.

But there are riches of another kind—riches of inherited faculties of culture and of character—which also produce a noble discontent, and always have done so. It is this discontent that is to-day making itself felt in works of philanthropy and of good citizenship all over the United States.

In no class is this discontent of the mentally and morally rich more plainly seen than in the walks of the higher education, among the professors in the colleges for men and women, and among the undergraduates and the graduates. Civic duties are assumed with enthusiasm, and works of benevolence are entered upon with a wise choice as to individual activities. The University Settlement system is one of the most prominent of the adopted means of public service. Yale undergraduates are noted for good works in many fields. Harvard's «Student Volunteer work» is a wisely guided coöperative effort by young men of the university «to get hold of the thing called charity, philanthropy, social service, most simply and effectively, to secure a real adaptation between it and the condition of college life.» In a word, these fortunate youths are not content to keep unshared their own riches of the mind and of the spirit.

So there are more kinds of riches than one, and there are at least three kinds of discontent to which the owners of riches are subject: a discontent contemptible, a discontent natural and salutary for the race, and a discontent noble and productive of good works. Of this last kind there cannot be too much.

The Fight for the Forest Reserves.

READERS OF THE CENTURY do not need to be reminded of the progress that has been made during the last six years in the direction of a civilized and scientific policy for the preservation of the national forests from the destruction which threatens them from fire, the indiscriminate use of the ax, and the hoof of the sheep. On the meridian day of Mr. Harrison's administration, March 4, 1891, a beginning was made by the enactment of a provision authorizing the President to withdraw from entry and set apart as forest reserves such tracts of the public domain as, in his judgment, should be necessary for the preservation of the timber or for the conservation of the water-supply of agricultural regions. In the closing days of the same administration, at the recommendation of the Secretary of the Interior, the Hon. John W. Noble, the first practical step was taken under this law, in the proclamation of fifteen reservations, amounting to 13,000,000 acres, including chiefly the great Sierra Reserve of California. September 28, 1893, President Cleveland established the Cascade Forest Reserve in Oregon, comprising about 4,500,000 acres. On the 2d of March, 1896, in response to a request by the Hon. Hoke Smith, Secretary of the Interior, the National Academy of Sciences, in accordance with the obligations of its constitution as an official governmental body, undertook the investigation of the public forests through a commission consisting of a body of experts whose superiors for the purpose cannot be found in the country, nearly all of whom, moreover, are familiar, by long experience, with the needs of the West and with the character of the forests to be investi-

gated. The commission consists of Professor Charles S. Sargent of Harvard, chairman; Professor Wolcott Gibbs, president of the Academy, *ex officio*; Alexander Agassiz; Professor W. H. Brewer of Yale; General Henry L. Abbot, U. S. A. (retired); Arnold Hague of the Geological Survey; and Gifford Pinchot, practical forester, secretary. For an average of more than three months five members of this commission were in the field, and the first result of its labors (which, by the way, are given without compensation) was to recommend the establishment of thirteen additional reserves, comprising over 21,000,000 acres, the special reasons being given in its report to the Secretary of the Interior, the Hon. David R. Francis, on whose further recommendation these reserves were set apart by President Cleveland by proclamation of February 22, 1897. There remains to be presented the main report of the commission, which will formulate a policy, to be submitted to Congress, for the intelligent care, control, and use of the reserves. When this shall have been adopted a most important reform will have been fairly instituted, which cannot but have an excellent influence on the settled policy of the government toward its forested lands, of which the reserves are but a very small fraction. By this advance the whole country will be the gainer, but chiefly and immediately the regions west of the Missouri River.

Nevertheless, the reservation policy has met with bitter opposition, chiefly from representatives of Northwestern States in Congress, who at the last session went so far as to induce the Senate to attach to the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill a «rider» annulling the proclamation. The friends of the reserves drafted and procured the adoption of a substitute for the rider, making liberal provision against alleged injuries to actual settlers. It is understood that President Cleveland would have vetoed the bill on account of this rider alone. For other reasons it failed to become a law, and the reserves, as we write, are still intact. It is, however, well known that the opposition is not satisfied with the substitute, and that no effort will be spared, by appeal to President McKinley or by legislation at the extra session, to annul the new reserves. Whether any changes in the limits of the reservations are desirable, a careful discussion of the objections will determine. This consideration apart, the issue is plainly joined between those who, from indifference or interested motives, are willing to expose the public forests to destruction, and those who, with the warnings of history to inspire them, are determined, if possible, to make a new start in the right direction. On the conservative side are two Presidents, three Secretaries of the Interior, and a Forest Commission of disinterested and famous scientific experts, to whose support are rallying the most intelligent forces of the country. And while, doubtless, sincere men and good citizens may be found in the opposition, its mainspring will be discovered to be the interest of certain persons or corporations which have profited, and desire to profit, by extensive and reckless destruction of the timber, inspired by that delusive and fatal maxim of pessimism so prevalent in a new country, «After us the deluge.»

An incident of the contest at the recent session affords an object-lesson of great significance. When the promoters of the rider presented it to the California

senators, they were informed that the new reserves in that State must be omitted from the annulment. This was in strict accord with the well-known conviction of Californians that the reservation of large tracts of high altitude in the Sierra is one of the greatest pieces of good fortune that ever befell the State, insuring as it does a perpetual supply of water to extensive agricultural regions dependent wholly upon irrigation. In fact, the commission, during its visit to California, was fairly besieged by requests to inspect large areas of land which it was desired to include in new reserves. What is true of California time will show to be true of the other States. After a little disquiet and alarm, sedulously fomented by sheep-herders and mining companies, and based on a misapprehension or a misrepresentation of the effect of the reservation policy, it will be found that no previously existing right is endangered, while the interests of the whole local population, present and to come, are to this extent safeguarded against the perils attendant on denudation, such as have overtaken the countries bordering on the Mediterranean.

The prospect of so great a good should stir up the newspapers, the universities, colleges, and other educators, the boards of trade and chambers of commerce, and the farmers and laboring men of the whole country, and especially of the West, to make known to the President and to Congress their desire that the forests should be saved for the people, instead of being left exposed to the ravages of a few. Indeed, had a wise policy directed the government control of its forest and mineral wealth in the past, the franchises from these sources might have relieved us at critical times of the dread of an annual deficit in the national finances. It is not too late at least, to see that destructive agencies do not add to the already strenuous conditions of life in the West a heritage of calamity for generations to come.

Who are the Hypocrites?

THE friends of political immorality, apparently without exception, call the friends of good government «hypocrites.» The phrase is one of their most powerful arguments. They never find political rascals afflicted with this vice: it is only «snivel-service reformers,» «purists,» «high-toners»; that is to say, George William Curtis, James Russell Lowell, Carl Schurz, and men of that type. The bosses, boodlers, spoilsmen, lobbyists, and demagogues; all the men who grow rich on corruption funds, all the men who buy office for cash or otherwise, all the thugs and man-killers in politics, are declared by them to be, on the whole, morally preferable to the reformers, because of the saving virtue of «freedom from hypocrisy» and «dislike of sham and pretense.»

After a close observation of political methods for many years, it seems to us an interesting phenomenon that «hypocrisy» and a «lack of frankness» should assume so loathsome an aspect in the eyes of political immoralists. A personal acquaintance with the principal reformers of the country leads one to believe that instead of being hypocrites, they are about the only men interested in public affairs who tell the truth openly and fearlessly concerning them.

The cant, humbug, and hypocrisy of the professional politician have been the subject of ridicule for ages. If

he calls decent people hypocrites, it is only «the reply churlish,» the vulgar «You're another» of the streets. No doubt the machine politician often tells the truth in private; he sometimes by inadvertence tells the truth publicly, as, for instance, the delegate who wanted to know what they were there for if not for the offices. But the whole position of the typical modern machine politician is false and hypocritical, as that of the demagogue has been from classic days till now. He pretends that he is the «friend of the people,» that he is working for the principles of the «grand old party,» when the honest fact is that he is merely conducting an employment bureau for the benefit of himself and the other «boys.»

The enemies of the merit system are always ostensibly in favor of «common-sense,» «genuine,» «practical,» or «progressive» civil-service reform; they are in favor of the «principle,» but against the present «academic methods.» They don't want so much «starch» in the merit system, but of course they dote upon the merit system itself. What they really want, of course, is some means of «beating» the law, of getting around the Constitution, in order to distribute offices as rewards to party workers or personal retainers who would be likely not to win their places by means of competitive examinations.

These examinations are *not* «academic» except when they ought to be; that is, when the duties of the office require «academic» knowledge of a specific kind. The reports concerning their ridiculous and unpractical character originate in hypocritical falsehood. The examinations do not result in placing none but college-bred men and women in office; the college-bred appointees are in a small minority. The examinations, as every one knows who has conscientiously looked into

the system, are most sensible, and apply with precision to the duties of the particular office to be filled.

As a matter of fact, there is no hypocrite more offensive and dangerous than the «organization» manager, who spends his time feathering his nest, and who charges his own infirmity of hypocrisy upon his critics and betterers.

«Don't!»

It would be interesting to follow the fortunes of all those who shall succeed in entering the public service of the United States at this time of change, in order to determine how many will yet confess that the thing they sought with such eagerness proved the bane of their lives. In those branches of the public service covered by the merit system, and where most of the higher offices in the same service are so covered, there is a chance for an honorable career. But where only a short term is probable, and where promotion means that the official will lose his place with a change of administration, how often has successful office-seeking meant the failure of a career!

We do not refer to the high representative offices, where conspicuous service even for a short term may mean honorable reputation. We refer to those places, often remote from home, which are held pleasantly for a time, but which, as things now are, mean often the losing of the thread of one's life, drifting out of the current of affairs, sometimes the acquiring of a distaste for ordinary business, ending in years spent either in aimless idleness, or continued searching, disappointment, and bitterness.

We have known young men to be very glad that they had not resented the application of Punch's matrimonial advice to their own office-seeking ambitions. We have never heard of any one who was sorry.



OPEN LETTERS

A Sleeping King.

IT has been said truly by many observers that in the United States of America public opinion is king; but the qualification has been added usually that it is king only when it chooses to exert its power. Mr. Bryce, in his admirable and unequalled chapters on the subject in his «American Commonwealth,» opens his discussion with this impressive tribute: «Towering over Presidents and State governors, over Congress and State legislatures, over conventions and the vast machinery of party, public opinion stands out in the United States as the great source of power, the master of servants who tremble before it.» But he closes his discussion with this, among other qualifying statements: «What opinion chiefly needs in America, in order to control the politicians, is a more sustained activity on the part of men of vigorously independent minds, a more sedulous effort on their part to impress their views upon the masses.»

It must be admitted by all observers that public opin-

ion in this country has not towered over either politicians or legislators to such an extent during the last few months as to make them tremble before it. Indeed, it is doubtful if ever before in the history of the country politicians and legislators have shown such indifference to public opinion as they have recently. For the first time in our history they have adopted a policy of ignoring it. The most objectionable of them carry forward their schemes in the open interest of bad government without paying any heed to either criticism or exposure. If they wish to put bad men in office, and the character of the men is exposed, they treat the exposure with silence, and put in the men. Formerly they thought it unsafe to leave damaging charges unanswered or unrefuted; now they think any attention to them unnecessary. Their policy is summed up in the view once expressed by one of their number who was rebuking an associate for replying to the arguments of opponents: «Oh, let 'em talk—we've got the votes.»

If public opinion were active, this policy of silence

would not be followed. It is clearly the politicians' belief that if the king be not dead, he is sleeping so heavily that they need have no fear of him, for the present at least. Their feeling of security is based largely upon the steadily growing hold which they have been gaining in recent years upon the nominating machinery of our politics. They control that machinery absolutely now in nearly all cases, and in that way they get possession of the votes which are necessary to enable them to carry through the legislatures such schemes as they desire, without regard to criticism. They have driven public opinion out of the primaries; it finds no voice there, and they think that by suppressing it there they have stripped it of its power. If the people can elect to public office only such men as the machines and bosses permit to be nominated, then indeed has public opinion become powerless.

As a matter of fact, however, public opinion has merely to exert itself to become as powerful as ever. There is a weapon ready at hand for the destruction of every bad primary nomination. Under the Australian ballot laws, which are in force in nearly all our States, a small number of citizens have only to unite in favor of a candidate to secure his nomination by petition. When thus nominated, his name must be printed upon the ballots, under certain disadvantages in most cases, it is true, but still printed, with the regular party candidates. If public opinion were vigilant and active, this power to nominate by petition would be held as a moral club over every party primary and nominating convention, and would exert an influence for good upon every one of them. Why is it not so held? Because public opinion, as created by the men who believe in good government, is not active, but lethargic and indifferent.

Popular government cannot be left to take care of itself. If the most intelligent and honest elements of the population will not do their part of the work, they cannot expect the other elements to do it for them. It is folly to turn the business of government over to the political machines, and expect them to manage it otherwise than in their own interest. The men who are in the machines have gone into politics to get a living, and they are in control because men who think this is not a proper use of politics are neglectful of their duties. The only remedy for this condition of affairs is for the men who believe in good government to go to work and secure it. Finding fault with the machine politicians will accomplish nothing unless it be followed by active measures to defeat their candidates and plans. This, as we have said, can be done by using the privilege of making nominations by petition. If the friends of honest government in all parts of the country will organize themselves into such associations as the Good Government clubs in New York city or the Civic Federation in Chicago; will make it their business to watch all regular party nominations; and will, in every case in which a bad nomination is made, set on foot a movement to secure a desirable nomination by petition, beneficial results will be certain to follow in time. The mistake should not be made of expecting success immediately; that has been the ruin of many a promising reform movement. Enlistment must be for the war, which in politics means for life. The machines do not stop with one election or a dozen elections. They keep at work all the time. Their opponents must do the same.

Sustained activity, as Mr. Bryce says, is the only thing which will restore public opinion to its position of power, and keep it there. We must rid ourselves of the idea that good government can be secured for all time by some single great stroke. Hard as it is to secure it, the task of keeping it after it has been won is far more difficult. Reformers must learn of the machine politicians that incessant vigilance and labor are the first essentials of success in politics.

Joseph B. Bishop.

John Cabot, Discoverer of the North American Continent.

JOHN CABOT was the discoverer of the continent of North America, and Christopher Columbus was not. We read in George Bancroft's «History of the United States from the Discovery of the American Continent» (nineteenth edition, Boston, 1862, 1863, Vol. I, pp. 10, 11) a quotation from the commission of King Henry VII of England, empowering John Cabot and his son Sebastian Cabot «to sail into the eastern, western, and northern sea . . . in search of islands, provinces, or regions hitherto unseen by Christian people, and to affix the banner of England on city, island, or continent, and as vassals of the English crown to possess and occupy the territories that might be found.» Bancroft then says: «Under this patent . . . John Cabot, taking with him his son Sebastian, embarked. After sailing prosperously, as he reported, for seven hundred leagues, on the 24th of June, 1497, early in the morning, almost fourteen months before Columbus, on his third voyage, came in sight of the main, and more than two years before Amerigo Vespucci sailed west of the Canaries, he discovered the western continent—probably in the latitude of about 56°, among the dismal cliffs of Labrador. He ran along the coast for many leagues,—it is said even for three hundred,—and landed. . . . He planted on the land a large cross, with the flag of England.»

It is true that on his third voyage Columbus, without knowing that he did so, landed on the South American continent; but this, Bancroft says, was long after John Cabot had landed on the North American continent and had taken possession of it in the name of England. John Cabot was the discoverer of the North American continent, and he made it known to the world. It is said that the Norsemen found America five hundred years before Columbus reached San Salvador, but their discovery was fruitless.

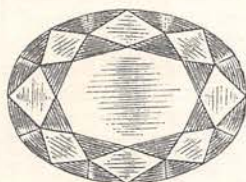
Sebastian Cabot had evidently the soul of an explorer, and after his return to England with his father on that first great voyage, he again crossed the ocean in search of further discoveries; for Bancroft tells us that Sebastian Cabot, a native of Bristol, on his second voyage, sailed from England, May, 1498, with three hundred men, «for Labrador, by way of Iceland, and reached the continent in the latitude of 58°; and having proceeded along the shores of the United States to the southern boundary of Maryland, or perhaps to the latitude of Albemarle Sound, want of provisions induced him to return to England.» (Boston edition of 1841, Vol. I, p. 11.)

When the four-hundredth anniversary (June 24, 1897) shall come, Cabot's discovery should be celebrated throughout the length and breadth of the land.

J. Hooker Hamersley.

A Historic Diamond.

AN old book which came into my possession some time ago throws so much light on a once famous diamond—not now in existence—that the readers of THE CENTURY MAGAZINE may be interested in learning something of it. The volume I refer to is in French, and is entitled «Pouget [M.], Traité des Pierres Précieuses et de la Manière de les Employer en Parure,» 4to, Paris, 1762, and seems to have belonged to one John Francillion of 24 Norfolk street, Strand, London, about 1812. He seems to have been a jeweler, or at all events a connoisseur in gems, because inserted in the volume are auction notices of historical gems, among them the Pigot diamond, named after Lord Pigot, governor of Madras, who is said to have brought the diamond with him to England about the year 1775. Indeed, in the first page of one of the auction circulars referred to the explicit statement is made that «the most noble brilliant, well known by the name of the Pigot diamond, was formerly



Exact Size
of Pigot Diamond.

Thickness of Diamond.

Size of Culet, the flat Facet
on Back.



brought to England from India by Lord Pigot.» Authorities are agreed that the Pigot diamond was a brilliant of the first water, but there is much discrepancy as to its weight and size. It is chiefly on this point that the entries in this old book are valuable. How Lord Pigot obtained possession of it is not clear. There is no record as to the place whence he obtained it, but it is probable that it was given to him by his friend the Rajah of Tanjore, for his lordship admitted to the directors of the East India Company that he «had accepted some presents of trifling value» from the Rajah. If this diamond was among those «trifles,» it was certainly a very valuable «trifle,» for it was appraised at £40,000, or about \$200,000! Lord Pigot's second term of office in Madras ended fatally, and nothing is known of the next owner of the valuable gem. The auction notice says that it was «sold at auction by Mr. Christie at his Great Room, Pall Mall, November 10th, 1802, at 12 M.»; and Mr. Francillion adds, in the careful, old-fashioned handwriting of gentlemen of his day, that it was sold to «Mr. Parker, Pawnbroker of Princess Street, Soho, for £9,975, with one half of the duty of sixpence on the pound, amounting to £124 13s. 9d.,» amounting in all to the sum of £10,099 13s. 9d. This pawnbroker seems to have made it the subject of a lottery for £30,000, but the name of the owner into whose hands it came is not known.

Mawe, writing in 1823, says that it became the property of a poor young man, who sold it for a low price. It was again disposed of, and passed into the hands of a jeweler in the city. Murray, writing in 1831, says that in 1818 it was in the possession of Rundle, Bridge & Rundle, jewelers, who sold it for £30,000 to the famous Ali Pasha, and a special messenger was appointed to re-

ceive it. Ali always wore it in a green purse attached to his girdle—green being the sacred color of the prophet. When, in 1822, Ali Pasha was mortally wounded by Kourschid, he immediately retired to his divan, and desired that his favorite wife, Vasilika, should be poisoned, and gave the diamond to Captain D'Anglas, with orders that it should be crushed to powder in his presence. This order was immediately carried out, and the beautiful gem was utterly destroyed. Murray adds: «Vasilika still lives, but the model of the diamond alone remains.» The too obedient officer bitterly regretted his folly, and the memory of the destroyed gem haunted him in his dreams for months afterward.

This, in brief, is the history of the Pigot diamond so far as known. It only remains now to adduce the evidence furnished by old John Francillion as to its weight and size. Murray gave its weight at $47\frac{1}{2}$ carats, Dieulafoy at $81\frac{1}{2}$ carats, Emanuel at $82\frac{1}{2}$ carats, and Kluge at $82\frac{1}{2}$; but Mawe, who was acquainted with the diamond, and who had seen it before it was sold to Ali Pasha, gives its weight at 49 carats, and adds that «this statement must be accepted as final.»

From John Francillion's old auction catalogue we learn that its true weight was 188 grains, which, at four diamond grains to the diamond carat, gives 47 carats as the weight of the diamond, and this must be accepted as final. The engraving from the circular here reproduced shows its thickness and width as well as the size of its culet. From this we can see that the diamond was a very shallow one, and Mawe said that it was not considered of «sufficient depth.»

George Frederick Kunz.

«The Century's» American Artists Series.

JOHN W. ALEXANDER.

MR. ALEXANDER was born in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. His first art study, under his only teacher, the American artist Frank Duveneck, was in Munich and Florence. Since 1891 he has made his home in Paris, where, after two years of ill health, he exhibited in the New Salon (Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts), of which he was elected an associate in 1893, and *sociétaire* one year later. He has also taken part in the other principal exhibitions of both America and Europe. He was elected an associate of the Société Internationale Artistique of Paris in 1894, and secretary of that society in the same year. He is also a member of the Society of American Artists.

In his manner, method, and art, Mr. Alexander is a prominent figure among the younger American artists. His works partake largely of the nature of the *tour de force*, often aggressive, and to the critic challenging. His portraits, the class of work in which he has had his chief success, possess breadth of treatment, and in their strong likeness throb with vitality. His landscape work is distinguished in line and selection, and his studies of flowers, hardly known except to his intimates, have the rare quality of conveying their essence.

Among his principal American portraits are those of Dr. McCosh, Walt Whitman, Oliver Wendell Holmes, and Joseph Jefferson.

Mr. Alexander is represented in the new Library of Congress in a series of mural paintings, «The Evolution of the Book,» one of which is shown on page 708 of the March CENTURY.

W. Lewis Fraser.

TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Hero.¹

THE monument to Colonel Robert Shaw just erected in Boston is, all things considered, the most accomplished, the greatest work of plastic art yet produced in America. It is fitting that the art of the New World should culminate in this tribute to one who dedicated his pure young life to his country, to freedom, to the uplifting of a people in bondage, to the ennobling of the whole race of man.

The character of this lovely youth, the crisis in which he was involved, the special duty which he undertook with such solemn devotion, all tend to make his figure in our national history as typical as it will be forever memorable. The sculptor, in pouring into his work all the surprise, the ardor, the very spirit of that day in Boston when the black troops marched to the front with their young commander at their head, has made the monument express more than the mere occasion, remarkable and significant as was that occasion. In this sculptured picture we see the awakening of a race, the dark, determined mass moved by a common impulse of daring endeavor; lifted above these, the high-bred form, the delicate, intense, intellectual visage, the fair Anglo-Saxon head of their heroic leader; and high over all, the everlasting ideal, the symbol of the spiritual purpose, which beckons, inspires, and gloriously rewards.

Robert Shaw was not the only youthful sacrifice to the cause of human freedom and nationality; every memory has its bead-roll of youthful martyrs, names like those of young Ellsworth and Winthrop and George de Kay. But his personality, his peculiar service, and the crowning tragedy of his career, even the circumstances of his burial, make the deed and the name of Shaw worthy of, the distinction of so expressive and splendid a monument as that which the world now owes to the genius of St. Gaudens.

As a school-boy Rob Shaw was the very type of the American school-boy of our own day—high-spirited, just, affectionate, frank, and pure of heart. His letters home show every trait of a natural, unaffected, pleasure-loving, manly youth. His parents were his confidants. To them every boyish whim, every prejudice, every hope was confessed. It was indeed a happy childhood and youth, troubled only by occasional anxiety for the health of that honored mother who still lives to see the memory of her boy assured, not only in his own great deeds, but in immortal art.

In the volumes, privately printed, in which his parents brought together with loving reverence the letters of

the boy and the soldier, along with posthumous tributes which were paid to his character and his heroism, we can watch the flowering of this noble spirit in a congenial and fortunate soil, through sunny days, till fate and opportunity brought the compelling duty and the crowning act of heroic patriotism.

He was a type, and yet his individuality was exceptionally winning—in personal beauty, in an indescribable charm of bearing and of spirit. Once, at a fancy ball, and without a mask, he so easily passed for a sweet-faced girl that the astonishment was great when, as he gleefully told the story, he spoke out «in a loud, swaggering voice.» No clearer idea of his sympathetic nature and the gentle rectitude of his character could be given than in the tribute of a classmate who declared: «He could do what few men can, and that is, tell his friends of their faults in such a way as not to give offense, and also make them correct them.»

Reared in an atmosphere of reform and intellectuality, and related to men like Lowell, Curtis, and Barlow, he took the antislavery and reform ideas of the time without morbidness or suspicion of superiority or self-consciousness. At fifteen (in the year 1852) he writes home from Neuchâtel in answer to a suggestion that that one should not be afraid of declaring one's religious opinions. He said he should not be afraid of declaring them «if there could be any kind of use in it»; but he did not wish merely to bring up discussions which would be stupid and tiresome, as he did not want to become «reformer, apostle, or anything of that kind»; he thought there was «no use of doing disagreeable things for nothing.» In the same letter he asks: «Have you seen that book named (Uncle Tom's Cabin)?» Next year he writes: «I've been reading (Uncle Tom's Cabin) again lately, and always like it better than before, and see more things in it»; adding, as if in answer to some inner questioning: «I don't see how one man could do much against slavery.»

But there is no excess of this serious note in the early letters, which abound in the joy and curiosity of healthy boyhood. Two days before he is seventeen he writes to his mother: «You mention my becoming a merchant; but that's entirely out of the question. I had rather be a chimney-sweep. They at least can have fresh air, and not get peaked and lean, like a fellow sitting all day on a five-foot stool in a nasty hole of a counting-room.» Then, as if in apology: «They are all holes here. I don't remember the American ones.» And then the genuine voice of youth: «All I can say for the present is that I have no taste for anything except amusing myself!» And yet when the time came he was will-

¹ Robert Gould Shaw, son of Francis George and Sarah Blake (Sturgis) Shaw, was born at Boston, October 10, 1837, and killed at Fort Wagner, July 18, 1863. His family moved to New York when he was a child, and have lived on Staten Island or in the city ever since. His

brothers-in-law were George William Curtis, Robert B. Minturn, Gen. Francis C. Barlow, and Charles Russell Lowell. He married Miss Annie Haggerty on May 2, 1863. His widow, for many years an invalid, divides each year between Paris and Switzerland.

ing to give the counting-room a fair trial; and again, when the time came, he was as ready for the grim amusement of war.

If it were possible here, it would be a pleasure to trace the development of Shaw's career through school life, European study and travel, and his Harvard course; it would be delightful to tell of his love of music and of literature, his comradeship with some of the most attractive and noble of the young men and women of those days just before and during the war for the Union; to watch from year to year the growth of that stern and exquisite nature. But there is time now for only a few of the leading incidents of the moving narrative.

Young Shaw took up military study and discipline with deliberate purpose. He entered the famous Seventh Regiment, New York State Militia, because, as he said to his mother, Lincoln's election might bring trouble, and he wished to be prepared to do his part for the Union. When the trouble actually came, the only thing he regretted in their sudden call to the front was that his mother was away at the time. He could not keep from tears when he remembered that she would come home to find his room empty.

It is gratifying to know that the boy whose name will be linked with that of Lincoln in the cause of human freedom saw the great liberator more than once. While the Seventh was quartered in Washington he called with young King, the son of Columbia's president, on Secretary Seward, who gave them a note to President Lincoln. The President was «sitting at a desk perfectly covered with papers of every description.» He got up, and shook hands with them both in the most cordial way, asked them to be seated, and seemed glad to have them come. Shaw thought it «too bad» for any one to call him «one of the ugliest men in the country,» for he had «seldom seen a pleasanter or more kind-hearted looking one,» and he had «certainly a very striking face. It is easy to see,» added the young soldier, «why he is so popular with all who come in contact with him. His voice is very pleasant; . . . he gives you the impression, too, of being a gentleman.»

But the Seventh's short time of service was not long enough for Shaw. Before it expired he took a commission as second lieutenant in the Second Massachusetts Regiment. Either in the regiment or on staff duty, he served faithfully till the summer of 1863, seeing meantime some of his dearest comrades killed or captured at his side. At Winchester, in 1862, a bullet which might have killed him was stopped by his watch. He well earned his promotion to a captaincy.

Early in 1863 Governor Andrew of Massachusetts, having undertaken to place negro troops in the field, concluded to select for their officers «young men of military experience, of firm antislavery principles, ambitious, superior to a vulgar contempt of color, and having faith in the capacity of colored men for military service. Such officers,» he said, «must be necessarily gentlemen of the highest tone and honor.» Reviewing the young men then in the service, and of the character described, the governor determined to offer the colonelcy of the first colored regiment to Captain Shaw.

It is significant as to his character that the greatest responsibility of Shaw's life was one not sought by

him; that he even hesitated at its acceptance; that indeed he at first refused the hazardous honor. His father took him the offer of Governor Andrew on February 3. He declined, and his father returned to New York. On the 6th he telegraphed, accepting. What strivings of the spirit made the history of those days of indecision can only be imagined. His letters show that it was in no momentary enthusiasm that he made his final resolve, but after long pondering and under a conviction of unescapable duty.

In the record of which I have spoken, the story of his remaining days rushes to its climax with the remorselessness of a Greek tragedy. We see him working to fill up the ranks of his regiment, the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts, drilling and firmly disciplining them in their camp at Readville, Massachusetts; then comes his marriage, and a few happy days stolen from the troublous times; then the presentation of colors by Governor Andrew, in an eloquent and memorable speech, to which the young colonel modestly replies; and on May 28 the triumphant march through Boston, one of the most thrilling scenes of the whole war. «Never can I forget,» wrote a friend when all was over, «that sweet smile which he gave when twice . . . I proposed to the surrounding crowd to give (three cheers for Colonel Shaw.) It was full of intelligence and sweetness. It seemed to beam with youthful joyousness, as he sat his horse so finely, and withal bore his ovations so modestly.»

Again at the front, now under General Hunter, on the islands off our Southern coast, he took part in an expedition when a village with nothing but a few women and children in it, and which had made no resistance, was burned to the ground. The command to destroy was from Colonel Montgomery, and it was not till afterward that Shaw learned that the order proceeded originally from a higher officer. To this barbarous deed he was so bitterly opposed that he wrote to the acting adjutant-general of the department that if the colonel took such action on his own responsibility he should hereafter «refuse to have a share in it, and take the consequences.» On July 16 a portion of his command did well in action, which greatly gratified him, partly because it wiped out the remembrance of the Darien affair, which had so wounded his sense of soldierly honor.

Colonel T. W. Higginson, who saw him about this time, records the strong impression he created of «quiet power,» and the «tinge of watchful anxiety in his look.» His attitude toward his men was remembered by others. In camp at Readville «he moved gracefully, kindly, and resolutely among his black troops.» One of his men said, in a published letter, that to a casual observer there was a touch of austerity in his relations with the soldiers of his regiment. No man among them would have dared to presume upon any supposed liberality of his opinions; «but had any man a wrong done him, in Colonel Shaw he always found an impartial judge.»

But now comes a sudden change of base. At James Island he learned that a new attack upon Fort Wagner was contemplated. His close friend, the lieutenant-colonel, asked him, if they charged the fort, whether he would go in front or behind the men. He replied: «I cannot tell now, but I trust that God will give me strength to do my duty.» He was heavy with despondency. His

friend begged him to shake it off. He quietly answered: «I will try.» Nights and days of marching and exposure followed. On the last day Shaw was deeply depressed, and talked despairingly. He asked to be left alone, so he could think of home. In an hour he had conquered, and his cheerful spirits returned. When his general asked him if he wished the privilege of leading the column of attack, his face brightened, and he answered, «Yes.» As the men, tired and hungry, lay flat on the ground before the assault, he was more familiar with them than he had ever been known to be before. He walked along the line, and encouraged them, saying: «Now, men, I want you to prove yourselves *men!*» «His lips were compressed, and now and then there was visible a slight twitching of the corners of the mouth, like one bent on accomplishing or dying.»

It is now nightfall, and at last all is ready. The regiment is formed in two lines, the colonel taking the right wing in front. Coming up to Lieutenant-Colonel Hallowell, he said: «Ned, I shall go in advance of the men with the National flag; you will keep the State flag with you. It will give the men something to rally round. We shall take the fort, or die there.» All his sadness had left him.

Then came the rush upon the fort. His friend saw him again «just for an instant, as he sprang into the ditch; his broken and shattered regiment were following him, eager to share with him the glory of his death.» When within one or two hundred yards of the fort a terrific fire of grape and musketry was poured upon them, tearing the ranks to pieces. They rallied again, went through the ditch, which held three feet of water, up the parapet with the flag, the colonel leading. He waved his sword, cried out, «Forward, Fifty-fourth!» and fell dead, with twenty or thirty of his officers and men killed close about him. The rest is well known. They «buried him with his niggers» in one long trench, and his father refused to have that honorable grave disturbed.

But at last the trench itself has been washed away by the waves of the Atlantic, and in the South may now be found some of those who appreciate and cherish most tenderly the fame of Robert Shaw.

A letter to those who mourned, from one who had herself suffered in like measure, expressed the thought of multitudes when the news of this «costly sacrifice» was flashed through the North: «When the beautiful vision, which was beheld by so many thousands, of the inspired and brave young hero at the head of his dusky followers, is recalled, many who never had an earnest thought about it before will feel, «This must be a sacred cause for which such a youth has offered so willingly his life.»

No death in the cause of liberty and union, save that of Lincoln himself, has been the occasion of such tributes as those which have been offered to the memory of Shaw. This was Lowell's hero when he wrote:

Right in the van
On the red rampart's slippery swell,
With heart that beat a charge he fell
Foeward, as fits a man;
But the high soul burns on to light men's feet
Where death for noble ends makes dying sweet.

And he was Emerson's youth who nobly answers to the voice of duty:

So nigh is grandeur to our dust,
So near is God to man,
When Duty whispers low, *Thou must,*
The youth replies, *I can.*

Already the prophecy of Motley is being fulfilled. «I have often thought,» he said, «how fondly his image will be retained in after-days as a type to inspire American genius. . . . Sculptors, painters, and poets will delight to reproduce that beautiful vision of undying and heroic youth, and eyes not yet created will dwell upon it with affection and pride. And when the history of these dark, tragic, but most honorable days comes to be written, there is nothing . . . that will fasten itself more closely on the popular memory than the storming of Fort Wagner by the Fifty-fourth, with their colonel falling on the rampart, sword in hand, cheering on those despised blacks to deeds of valor.»

The patriots of to-day are not now, and may not be, called upon to die «sword in hand»; but this country is in need of men who will bring into the fight against civic corruption as keen a sense of duty and as true a courage as that which inspired the young hero of Fort Wagner.

The Sculptor.

PERHAPS no living artist has so high a reputation as St. Gaudens, and so strong an artistic influence, with so little of his work familiar to the general public. His «Lincoln» in Chicago, and his «Farragut» in New York, are the statues most familiar to the people, and on these his just popular fame is mainly based. But in the art world St. Gaudens has long been known as the author of a series of medallions, of numerous portrait heads, memorial monuments, and pieces of decorative sculpture, all of which have the stamp of mastership. Before a great while his Shaw monument, his splendid and virile equestrian statue of Logan, his statue of Peter Cooper, his Sherman equestrian statue, and other works of a monumental character, will give still wider public proof of a genius the evidences of which have been fully known and appreciated by artists and critics for many years. THE CENTURY from time to time has given examples of his work, but in this number of the magazine a greater array of his sculpture is presented than on any other occasion. And although much is necessarily omitted, it is easy to see that the sculptor's fame already rests on foundations ample and absolutely secure. It is gratifying to know that he is in the fullness of his artistic strength, and that the future should hold for him as many triumphs as the past.

The Man in the Copper Box.

INASMUCH as the most serious daily inquiry of three fourths of the millions who struggle on the earth for a bare physical existence is, «How shall we be fed?» the paper beginning on page 246 of this number of THE CENTURY is of very wide significance. In it Professor Atwater offers the first popular explanation of a series of experiments which are conducted under the auspices of the government, and which promise, in their future development, to have an important bearing upon the problem of the economical and healthful feeding of humanity. Expressed in more scientific terms, the purpose of the investigation is to study the laws of nutrition: to find out more than is now known of the ways in which food

builds up the different parts of the body, repairs its wastes, and supplies energy for work and thought. While, in one sense, these researches have a purely scientific object, which is the study of the application of the laws of the conservation of matter and the conservation of energy to the human organism, from another point of view they are intensely practical, as representing an effort to gain new knowledge regarding the food of man, and his needs for nourishment, the better to fit his diet to the demands of health, strength, and purse.

The researches Professor Atwater describes are the first of their especial kind on this side of the Atlantic, although experiments more or less similar have been conducted at several German universities for more than a quarter of a century, and of late have been carried on elsewhere in Europe. Most of those in Europe have been made with domestic animals. The number with men has been small, and in no case, it is believed, have they—for lack of material resources—been so painstaking and laborious as those here described.

Several years ago the first steps were taken at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut, toward the development of an apparatus for measuring the income and outgo of the animal body. The investigation was undertaken jointly by Professor Atwater and Professor E. B. Rosa. It was conducted under the patronage of the university, and in connection with the Storrs Experiment Station, of which Professor Atwater is director, and of which the more purely scientific researches are being prosecuted at the Wesleyan laboratories.

Fortunately for the enterprise, the resources, which were at first limited, were increased by appropriations from the public funds. In the year 1894 provision was made by an act of Congress for an inquiry into the food and nutrition of the people of the United States. The act places the investigation in the hands of the Secretary of Agriculture, and wisely allows him to distribute it among the experiment stations of the country, which are in close official relations with the Department of Agriculture. It is under the immediate charge of Professor Atwater as special agent of the department. While the larger part of the inquiry is given to the study of the kinds and nutritive values of foods and the economy of their purchase and use by people of different localities and classes, a portion is devoted to more abstract research, which would naturally include experiments of such fundamental importance as these.

In 1895 the legislature of Connecticut provided a special annual appropriation to be expended by the Storrs Experiment Station for food investigations. The resources of the station were thus increased, and with the supplement from the General Government, and the original private aid, it has been possible greatly to enlarge the scope of the inquiry. Indeed, this may be regarded as one of the class of cases in which the higher scientific research has been favored by a happy combination of public and private support in such way as not only to insure the greatest economy in the use of money and other resources, but also to promise a valuable outcome.

In order to control the conditions and measure the changes affecting the living organism under examination, the human subject is isolated in a copper box, a trifle higher and longer than the stature of an average man, and only twice the width of a broad pair of shoulders; and the process of «harmless vivisection,» as it might almost be called, is made tolerable by a glass window and a telephone, enabling the subject to see and converse with friends; by facilities for reading and writing; by provision for vigorous though rather cramped exercise; and by the maintenance of atmospheric conditions calculated to have a cheering effect on the spirits of a healthy man. That a person of active mind, though buoyed by scientific ardor, could lend himself for twelve days to the experimental mercies of the copper box, and emerge with grateful emotions, is a compliment to the foresight of the experimenters, and a promise of surprising results from this method of human analysis.

Ten years ago THE CENTURY began a series of seven papers by Professor Atwater, which in a way broke the ground for these experiments with the man in the copper box. The initial paper, entitled «The Composition of our Bodies and our Food,» in May, 1887, was followed by others on «How Food Nourishes the Body» (June, 1887), «The Potential Energy of Food» (July, 1887), «The Digestibility of Food» (September, 1887), «The Pecuniary Economy of Food» (January, 1888), «Food and Beverages» (May, 1888) and «What we Should Eat» (June, 1888). It stands to reason that a scientific diet, varied to repair wasted energy, mental or physical, with the smallest tax on the assimilative powers, would confer health and a better chance for wealth on the workers of the world. In time it might also reduce the ranks of the minority who «live to eat,» by rendering more certain of attainment the benefits of «eating to live.»



OPEN LETTERS

Portraits of Queen Victoria.

PRINCESS VICTORIA AT THE AGE OF FOUR.

THE portrait of «The Little Princess Victoria,» an engraving of which, by Peter Aitken, is the frontispiece of the present number of THE CENTURY, is a small oil-painting now in the Dulwich Gallery. It is a panel,

eleven inches by eight and three quarters, acquired by the gallery in 1890. It is thus described in the catalogue:

(304) Her Majesty the Queen when Princess Victoria, aged 4 years. S. P. Denning. Full-length figure standing, large black hat with feathers, black velvet pelisse,

sable fur round the neck and crossed over the chest, gray gloves, one of which is held in the right hand, black shoes. Background landscape and blue sky, with clouds.

The catalogue states as follows:

Stephen Pointz Denning was a miniature-painter. He was also employed to make drawings for engravers. The drawing for the engraving of Sir David Wilkie's picture, "Chelsea Pensioners receiving the News of the Battle of Waterloo," was made by him, as also several of Mulready's most popular works. He was keeper of the pictures in the Dulwich Gallery from 1821 until his death, in the seventy-second year of his age, in 1864.

QUEEN VICTORIA, 1838.

THE engraving by T. Johnson of the portrait of Queen Victoria painted in 1838 by the young American artist Thomas Sully is reprinted from THE CENTURY for November, 1883, where it appeared by the kind permission of Mr. Francis T. Sully Darley. The picture is from the original oil-study made for the artist's full-length painting of the Queen for the St. George's Society of Philadelphia. Thomas Sully was one of the best-known of the earlier American portrait-painters. He lived to a ripe old age in Philadelphia, and his house and studio, preserved in the business quarter of the city, were most interesting survivals of the old days. He was born in England in 1783; died in Philadelphia in 1872. In "Hours at Home" for 1869 are some "Recollections of an Old Painter" dictated by him. In relation to the picture Mr. Sully says:

A painting-room was arranged for my accommodation in Buckingham Palace. . . .

In order to reach the painting-room I had to pass through a room called the King's closet, and I saw lying upon the Queen's desk books which showed that she did not read nonsense. Among these books were Channing's Discourses.

The Queen came to the sittings with her secretary, the Baroness Letzen. She was very affable, like a well-bred lady of Philadelphia or Boston, and used to talk about different things. I saw that she relished American freedom very much: she had not had such a treat for a long time. I told her I would get my daughter to sit with the regalia, if there would be no impropriety, in order to save her the trouble.

"Oh, no impropriety," replied Victoria; "but don't spare me; if I can be of service I will sit."

After that my daughter sat with the regalia, which weighed thirty or forty pounds. The earrings had to be tied with a loop, as I had not allowed her ears to be pierced.

One day the Queen sent word that she would come in if my daughter would remain where she was. But, of course, Blanche stepped down, and the two girls, who were almost the same age, chatted together quite familiarly.

The Queen wrote her name for me in this manner:
For Mr. Sully,

Victoria Regina.

She also gave my daughter a medal and her signature.

QUEEN VICTORIA, 1840.

THE third portrait is, with some slight curtailment, a reproduction of one by Sir William Charles Ross, R. A., who was born in London, 1794, and died 1857. He painted, in miniature, many members of the royal household (the Queen, Prince Consort, and their family), King and Queen of the Belgians, King and Queen of Portugal, and Napoleon III. He was elected Royal Academician in 1839. In the same year he was knighted. The engraving from which our picture is

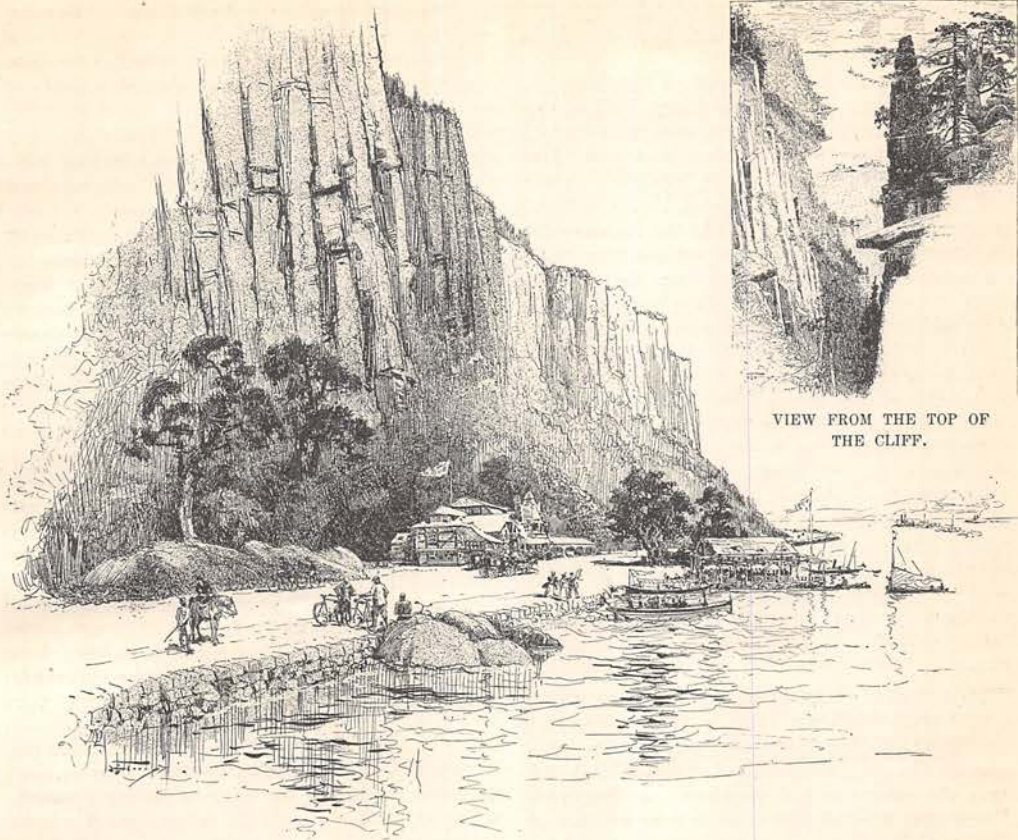
made is by Henry Thomas Ryall, a pupil of Sam Reynolds. He was an engraver, both on copper and steel, of considerable reputation. This portrait of the Queen is one of his best-known works. He died in 1867.

QUEEN VICTORIA, 1895.

THE following account of the portrait on page 168 is furnished by the Canadian artist Mr. F. M. Bell Smith: "At three o'clock on the afternoon of July 5, 1895, I was in the white drawing-room of Windsor Castle, awaiting the arrival of the Queen, who had appointed that hour for the first sitting for her portrait, which was to be included in the historical painting representing her Majesty in the act of placing a wreath upon the coffin of her dead statesman, the Right Hon. Sir John S. D. Thompson, K. C. M. G., M. P., P. C., Q. C., etc., whose sudden death on December 12, 1894, just after leaving the presence of his sovereign, was one of the most tragic events in the history of the venerable pile in which it occurred.

"In a few moments an aged gentleman who for over seventy years has filled the position of usher to the sovereign entered the room, and announced that the Queen would be detained for a short time, owing to the arrival of the Duchess of Coburg. The delay was not of long duration, however; and soon the door was thrown open, and the usher said, 'The Queen is coming!' From my position in the room I could see down a corridor for some little distance; but before the royal party came into view I heard a voice, strong, clear, ringing, speaking in such a loud tone that I wondered who could presume to so speak in such near proximity to her Majesty's private apartments. Then it struck me that it must be the Queen, and so it proved to be; and the wonderful, bell-like purity of tone, and strong, vigorous manner of her speech, impressed and surprised me. As the Queen entered the room she said, as she acknowledged my low bow, 'I am sorry to have kept you waiting'; and I could not help the recollection that some persons of less degree than England's queen had not thought it worth while to show similar politeness when failing in their appointments. The fact that I had been positively assured by some very high officials connected with the Queen's household that there was no chance whatever of her Majesty's giving me a sitting, together with the assurance from the Munshi that I need not expect more than five minutes, had led me to expect very different treatment from that which I actually received. The Queen, being seated, turned to me and said, 'You will place me in the position you desire'; and so I arranged the pose of the head and direction of the eyes, which being done, my illustrious and royal sitter sat as still as any model in the ateliers of Paris, and retained the position with a rigidity I have never known surpassed. The Queen, seeing that I could obtain a better view sitting than standing, directed the Princess Louise to hand me a chair; and during the whole of the sitting her Royal Highness stood at my shoulder, and watched with keen interest the progress of my work, which she was good enough to comment upon from time to time.

"In speaking to the Queen, I noticed that the princess always said, 'mama dear,' but never used any other form than 'the Queen' when speaking to others. The conversation between her Majesty and her daughter was



VIEW FROM THE TOP OF
THE CLIFF.

SUGGESTED DRIVEWAY AT THE FOOT OF THE PALISADES OF THE HUDSON.

for the most part conducted in German, which is, I am told, the language in which the royal family usually converse. I noticed several times that the expression on the Queen's face relaxed into a very pleasant smile when reference was made to some of the little princes or princesses, great-grandchildren of the Queen; and it was then that the singular beauty of the form of her mouth was seen. My general impression was that the photographs of the Queen did not do her justice, as there was a refinement and delicacy in the features that I had never observed in her pictures.»

FACSIMILES.

THE facsimiles from the Queen's « coronation roll » have never before appeared. It was found that as they pertained to a living personage, it was necessary to obtain authorization for their publication. The royal permission was graciously accorded for their reproduction in THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

The Editor.

A Way to Save the Palisades.

It is well known that the impressive scenery of the Palisades of the Hudson is gradually being destroyed by quarrymen. The sphere of action to devise or enforce some protective measure which may save them from further injury is confined to the two States whose territory includes this remarkable dike of rock. Though the

whole nation is deeply interested in the preservation of the unique and familiar landmark, on the citizens of New York and New Jersey rests the responsibility, both legal and moral, to protect it from further defacement. In spite of the care which private interests have taken to exclude them, quarries are being worked at four different points along the base of the cliffs, where, by lease or purchase, a foothold has been gained. The lack of permanence in all defensive measures against the quarrymen, based on the interest or sentiment of the individual resident or owner, renders it important that the States of New York and New Jersey, for the public good, should condemn and take possession of the eastern slope of the Palisades by right of eminent domain.

The menace of the future is more alarming than the damage of to-day. What with steam-drills and high-grade explosives, and an increasing demand for broken stone, there is danger of the ultimate destruction of the pristine wildness and beauty of this region; and when we consider that in the quarrying gravity here largely takes the place of manual labor, and that it is but a short haul to a good market, the doom of the cliffs appears inevitable.

On the 19th of February New Jersey passed an act requiring the riparian commissioners, in all leases or sales of water privileges of the State, to insert a restrictive clause forbidding quarrying of the Palisades;

but although this was a step in the right direction, it is not retroactive, and does not reach those already in possession of riparian rights.

Nearly two years ago the New York legislature enacted a law authorizing the appointment of three commissioners by the governor, whose prescribed duty, in cooperation with a similar commission from New Jersey created by an act of the legislature on the 13th of June, 1895, was to appeal to the national government at Washington to buy the Palisades for "fortification purposes." This appeal has been made, and neither the War Department nor the Military Committee of the House of Representatives looks with favor on the proposition. The Palisades possess no strategical or military value, and, as is well known, it is not within the power or province of the United States to preserve the natural scenery of any State. The enormous expense, some \$4,000,000, for the property included in the terms of the bill, and the heavy additional cost that would have to be incurred in adapting the rocky forest of the Palisades plateau to military uses, are further and serious objections to the measure, especially as the clearing of "open places for manoeuvres and camps" would be as destructive to the wild and rugged character of the top of the Palisades as the quarrying operations are to the base. The bill has been held back, by request, from an unfavorable report, merely as an act of courtesy.

The passage of an act by each of the States, giving to the United States the right to take title to this property for a military reservation, concludes the legislation that has been accomplished on this subject, and leaves the quarrymen still unmolested in their work of despoiling the Palisades "of the moss and hue of antiquity." The military-park scheme is dead, and the sooner this fact is accepted, the speedier will the rescue be accomplished.

A practical and comparatively inexpensive way of saving the Palisades has been suggested, which has been received with marked approval by those who have made an impartial study of the question. It would also result in conferring a great benefit on the public. It is that the States of New York and New Jersey should unite in condemning the narrow strip from the edge or base of the steep rocks down to the river, and should convert this slope into a park, with a broad driveway along the water's edge from Fort Lee to Piermont, a distance of thirteen miles. The region is already connected with the New York shore by ferries at Fort Lee, Yonkers, and Tarrytown, and might be connected with the Jersey City boulevard, and thus be made a beautiful addition to the park system of the metropolitan district, and a new resource for driving, riding, or cycling. This would give New Jersey a continuous drive of thirty-five miles—from Bergen Point to Nyack. Of afternoons this driveway, in the cool shadows of the majestic wall of rock above, and commanding the broad expanse of the Hudson and the beautiful scenery of the opposite shore, would thus afford continual delight to the observer of

the picturesque in nature, and add to one of the great scenic features of the world.

This thirteen miles of river-bank detached from the costly land above contains an area of 900 acres, and can be obtained, it is estimated, at a cost of \$300,000 to \$400,000. The construction of a roadway along the water's edge, as proposed, would be comparatively inexpensive, as the very best material is at hand every foot of the way. Although the slope is generally covered with a luxuriant growth of trees, underneath is a mass of loose, detached rocks, which, with the exercise of proper care, would supply all needed material for filling and grading without injuring or defacing the natural growth, which is one of the attractions of this shore; and as the water is very shallow under the whole length of the Palisades, the filling would be proportionately slight on the entire length of thirteen miles.

The Hudson is essentially a New York river, and consequently there is greater and more general interest among her citizens to preserve the conspicuous features of its natural scenery than in New Jersey, although eleven miles of the Palisades are in that State, and only two miles and a half are within the boundaries of New York. It is proposed to ask the governors of the two States to recommend the enactment of laws, similar in their provisions, by which the States shall divide equally the cost of obtaining and laying out the eastern slope of the Palisades, and shall share in the care and control by an interstate commission.

F. P. Albert.

The Affair at Guiney's Station.

ON page 493 of the February CENTURY, General Horace Porter, describing the affair at Guiney's Station, on May 21, 1864, says: "While riding forward, a little in advance of headquarters, with another staff-officer, I saw a body of the enemy on the opposite side of a stream which we were approaching. This made us feel a little apprehensive for the safety of the commanding generals, as Hancock was many miles in advance, and the head of Warren's corps was a considerable distance in the rear. . . . It was promptly decided to order the regiment of infantry commanded by Colonel C. H. T. Collis, which served as General Meade's headquarters guard, to make a dash across the stream and endeavor to drive the enemy from his position on the opposite bank. This was promptly and gallantly done."

In justice to myself and the gallant officers who were all impelled upon that occasion by the same impulse which influenced me, permit me to say, by way of correcting the above statement, that, so far as I knew, no staff-officers of Generals Grant and Meade were near when the enemy intercepted and engaged my command; the presence of the enemy was discovered by troops of my brigade, and the attack was made on my own responsibility, without an order from any one; and it was for this reason that I received the thanks of Generals Grant and Meade on the field.

*Charles H. T. Collis,
Brevet Major-General U. S. V.*

NEW YORK, February 8, 1897.

TOPICS OF THE TIME

«The City for the People!»

AMERICA, in its «Greater New York,» will on the first of next January present the spectacle of a municipality in size next to the very first among all the cities of the earth. On the preceding November the inhabitants of this great new municipality will decide as to the character of the men who shall govern it, and the influences that will control these men. The free institutions of America cannot escape being judged anew before the whole world in connection with the decision to be then made by the voters of the various boroughs of New York. It is no wonder that the millions of inhabitants of this imperial municipality are beginning to be stirred by the contemplation of the fateful experiment about to be entered upon, and that the disinterested citizens of the metropolis are not content to let corrupt machines and blackmailing bosses choose all the candidates and quietly take possession of the city's offices and the city's revenues.

Citizens' movements have been successful in New York before this, and their success now and in the future would be more assured were it not that the people have unfortunately become so used to seeing city politics run in many of its details by men of disreputable character and associations that the sight of decent men taking an interest in local government savors of impertinence in many minds. The corrupt machine-men play upon this prejudice, and endeavor to effect by ridicule what they cannot accomplish by reason.

Of course, as a matter of fact, if there is anything humorous in the situation, it is the preposterous pretense of the corruptionists that *they* are the true statesmen, the disinterested patriots, the only citizens to be trusted with the direction of public affairs, and that other citizens become ridiculous by simply doing their manifest duty in connection with local government. It must be, after all, a weak sort of brain that can be influenced in the interests of the boddlers, bosses, and bribers by ridicule of this kind.

The idea is indeed absurd that the complicated machinery and gigantic business interests of the newly constituted metropolis are safer, on the one side, in the hands of the set of men who are at the present moment disgracing the name of a great political party in their conduct of the affairs of the State by appointments among the most shameless ever made in this commonwealth, and by hypocritical and treacherous attacks upon the merit system in the civil service, or, on the other side, in the hands of that local organization the very name of which stands throughout the civilized world as a synonym for civic corruption, rather than in the hands of a genuine Citizens' Union of the most public-spirited and disinterested elements of the entire community—capitalists and day-laborers, men of all parties, of all

creeds, of all conditions in life, believing in home rule, in honest, constructive, and progressive city government, and united upon a platform which has been well epitomized in the phrase, «The city for the people!»

He must think ill of the intelligence and honesty of the people of the metropolis who deems it hopeless to hold up to them higher ideals. Is New York to be the only one of the world's great cities that is to be perpetually menaced by, or actually in the possession of, political adventurers? The way out for us, and the way to stay out, lies in such movements as that so successful in Birmingham, as described by United States Consul Parker in *THE CENTURY* for last November. The conspicuous success there, said Mr. Parker, was not achieved in a day, or maintained without effort. «The men who began the work learned everything possible about the needs of their community, and proceeded by speech and writing to explain them, and to demonstrate the necessity and policy of undertaking reforms. One class has not transacted the public business, leaving to another the management of charitable, religious, and educational institutions; *all has been treated as part of the civic life that must be carried on.*»

As to the new city of New York, Dr. Albert Shaw, whose studies of municipal problems are well known to the readers of *THE CENTURY*, declares, as an expert, that the new charter in its very nature, more than any other framework of municipal government that he has ever known, calls imperatively for non-partizan administration and for the conduct of municipal elections upon strictly municipal issues.

In the winter just passed, our own local history, and our municipal problems of every kind, have been studied and debated—in «the borough of Manhattan,» at least—as never before. The City Club and the Good Government Clubs, the Public Education Association, the League for Political Education, the City History Club, the City Lectures Committee, the public-school evening lecture courses, the Reform Club and the Social Reform Club, the various «Settlements,» and other organizations, have all been at work. The church clubs have also taken up civic subjects.

There has been, to some extent, a revival of civic patriotism. The constitutional separation of the municipal from State and national elections is the opportunity of the honest and patriotic citizens of the Greater New York. The whole civilized world will look on at the progress of this municipal campaign, and await with keen expectation its momentous result.

The Pleasures of Yachting.

It is not many years since a popular prejudice associated the pleasures of yachting with idleness and wealth, hardly to be thought of except as a questionable luxury. Did not the mariner and the fisherman likewise spread

their white wings above the treacherous waters, and did they not solely and wisely find joy in the fact that they were ashore again, thank God! and with some profit? But the idea has made way among the American people that yachting and the other outdoor sports, aside from being the most rational diversions of people of leisure, are the natural solace of active minds, the means by which the physical balance, disturbed by the demands of civilized life, is most efficaciously restored. There is no more warrant for the sedentary recreation of him who labors with his muscles than for the wasteful gambols on sea and land of the mind-worker when his hour of rest has come. And it is a fact that the surprising growth of yachting, tennis, golf, bicycle, and other athletic clubs throughout the land, is not indicative of increasing distaste for serious employment on the part of educated and well-to-do people, but rather of a more wholesome view of the relation of play to work. Indeed, the most active members of these organizations are as often as not the busiest men in professional life and in commerce. Not only are the present votaries of outdoor sports the rank and file of industry, but they are the cause of new and vast expansions in the industrial life of the world. Even the superannuated have been lured by the present taste back into the ranks of quasi-active life, for graybeards are no longer forced to the solemn inertia of an Eastern kadi as a necessary adjunct of personal dignity.

With the exception of the bicycle-trade, yacht-building has perhaps led in the expansion of industry to meet the demands of outdoor pleasure. Refinements of science and mechanics have added to the cost of the larger yachts, and, at the other end of the scale, have produced better boats for a smaller outlay. But coöperation may divide the cost, and it is not unusual even for the «twenty-one-footer» to be built by a «syndicate» corresponding numerically to the necessary crew. Yet there is no great bar of expense to the field of yachting pleasures. The little craft that is a rowboat in calm and a smart, able cat-boat in breeze or blow was never so popular as at present; many a schooner or big single-sticker carries at the davits an open boat provided with centerboard and easily adjusted canvas, and which, if the truth were told, confers on the owner more of the characteristic delights of sailing than the expensive craft handled by a professional crew.

While there is an equableness of temper and a briny sparkle in the salt-water yachting-grounds which render them superior for the sport to the inland lakes and rivers, the pleasures of yachting are no longer monopolized by the dwellers on our coasts. On many a lakelet of the West may be found fleets of spry craft representing the skill of the most famous builders of the world, while the larger bodies of fresh water in summer teem with a nautical life somewhat modified from that of the sea-coast to suit the whimsicalness of interior winds, and waters of a tamer aspect, yet more disquieting when aroused. The Eastern yachtsman strolling on the lake front at Chicago may well wonder to see the sloops close-reefed in a breeze which at home would invite him to carry topsail, when, if he were at the tiller in that flawy and vicious breeze, he might now and then realize that he had lost some of his nerve with a change of sky.

Not that the pleasures of yachting are to be had only

at a risk to life in excess of the dangers that lurk in other outdoor sports. Holiday revelers who go out in boats ostensibly to fish or sail, but really for the unrestrained companionship of flask and jug, are responsible for nine tenths of the reputation for danger to life that is attached in the popular fancy to boating. On the contrary, yachting is one of the safest of sports, because sailing is a plain science, easily learned by any person of practical faculty and ordinary discretion and common sense. It is true that many persons ride horses year after year without accident who might not attain to perfect control of a sail-boat. This is because the intelligence of the horse comes to their aid and keeps them in the road. On the other hand, many lives are sacrificed every year to the timidity or viciousness of the horse; whereas in a sail-boat the steerer has only his own disposition to deal with, and in greater measure may anticipate the changes to which his environment is subject. Science has placed at his disposal simple means of adjustment; it is necessary only that he should be able to think clearly and methodically, and should not be foolhardy. Even the golf-field has its dangers, derived from the careless and the inapt. Some degree of danger resides in every sport the cultivation of which adds to the sureness of human faculties; but it may be safely said that no sport, properly taught, is safer than that of yachting, or more productive of calm judgment and physical self-reliance.

Until amateur aeronauts shall sail here and there through the upper spaces, «horsed upon the sightless couriers of the air,» those who know that the greatest spice to physical exercise is freedom and self-reliance will skim the salty blue or the turquoise lake, with one hand on the tiller and the other within reach of the main-sheet. Here is activity with restfulness, excitement with quiet, energy without weariness; the vitalities of wind, wave, and tide course, as it were, through the sensory nerves of the yachtsman; mind and muscle joy in their cunning dominion over the giant forces of the elements; and the soul, if it please, expands to the wider horizon of the eye, and calmly roves into the beauty-land lying in the kaleidoscopic angle between water and sky.

Language before Literature.

THE recent visit to the United States of the distinguished French critic M. Brunetière has naturally revived the discussion of the relations of language to literature,—relations nowhere more intimate or more evident than in Paris,—and leads one to ponder on the differences between a literary country like France and a country like the United States, where books are read rather than considered—indeed, where there seems to be a marked diminution even of reading. This statement may be met with facts and figures showing the establishment of new libraries, the multiplication of university extension, etc.; but, without derogation of these excellent influences, it must be perceived on second thought that they make for scholarship or erudition rather than for literature; for they rarely go deeply into what is now the fundamental lack in American education—knowledge of our own language. After all, what makes one book a piece of literature, while another is not, is the presence of that subtle and yet tangible quality called style; and what is

style but the knowledge of how to use language, plus the individual element of personality necessary to all art? If, then, one asks, How are we to hasten the day of a greater American literature? the answer is, first, that it cannot much be hastened, except through good writers; secondly, that in the main good writers grow out of a literary soil; and, thirdly, that the tillage must begin at the root—namely, in the cultivation of language.

By the cultivation of language we do not mean the achievement of philological or rhetorical profundity, in which respects we are no doubt further advanced than we were fifty years ago. Science, with its academic methods, cannot create literature. The falling off of notable production and the deterioration of public taste in literature may be coincident with great advances on the pedagogic side. Nor are individual great writers to be counted on as a crop to be sowed with a certain seed; genius groweth where it listeth. We are now speaking of the less exceptional but still desirable high average of authorship. What is needed as the basis of a broad national literature is a high standard of speech, a high regard for language as a fine art, such as one finds everywhere in France, which has an atmosphere in which letters flourish naturally. The French are justly accused of insularity and chauvinism, but they are not to be accused of neglecting their own literary art. They understand their literature, and know how to express themselves in correspondence and conversation, in writing and oratory. It is curious, by the way, that at the very time that M. Brunetière is laying stress on oratory as a force of current life, in America, for dearth of great speakers, it seems to be losing its hold. Perhaps in another decade the present revival of debating by the universities will restore the vogue of the orator. But in any art—and we are now pleading for literature as a fine art—finesse of expression must go with force of thought. In France boys are taught the niceties of their own tongue by rigid criticism, by the best examples of their own literature, and by the exactions of an educated public sentiment. In the United States a boy may go from the kindergarten to a university degree without even learning the use of «shall» and «will,» or «may» and «can.» If he has failed in the lower grades, his chance of learning what can be taught of his own language is fairly gone; his shortcomings seem to be accepted as part of his matriculation at college. There he gets meager individual attention. It occurs to nobody that his defects on the literary side should be treated as a doctor treats the ailments of a patient. Not one boy in twenty in the college preparatory schools can speak his own language with tolerable accent, enunciation, and correctness, and not one parent in fifty knows or cares whether he does. In the family, manners are usually taught, but rarely speech. Probably there are not in Congress at the present time a dozen speakers of literary distinction, and the low standard runs through every other profession, the bar and the clergy not excepted. The hopeful aspect of this condition of affairs is that, under strictures of recent years, and in response to the exactions of at least one university, the preparatory schools are showing signs of improvement.

These defects are not wholly to be corrected in youth even by the reading of the best books, which, without

direction, may become languid and aimless. Yet it is mainly to the reading of the best literature that we must look for a cure of our slipshod American habits of speech. Our own brief period abounds in examples of high-bred and distinguished writers and orators,—Hawthorne, Webster, Wendell Phillips, Emerson, Curtis, Lowell, and others,—men who, for the most part, came out of the best literary atmosphere we have had—that of New England in the second quarter of the century. The traditions of that time ought to inspire us to resist the tendency which, it must be confessed, the popular literature of the day is exerting to take us farther and farther from our former dignified and virile literary standard.

As an adjunct of this cultivation of good language, we need a severer school of criticism. The larger influences of criticism upon literature have been well stated by M. Brunetière in this passage in one of his American lectures. Speaking of criticism, he says:

«It has other utilities more immediate also. Some day it will be of singular use to the artists themselves. The artist does not repel criticism which leaves him free to be himself, to manifest his own temperament, but embraces it eagerly. A second use has been illustrated in the past, and will doubtless be again in the future. Criticism has been creative. It has more than once caused a great literature. In the sixteenth century the criticism of the school of Ronsard created classicism, and when their ideal had been worn out, another was created by Lessing and Herder, the veritable creators of the German literature which followed them. A third use is that when criticism has probed it reestablishes the distinctions which fashion and mutual praise are so ready to wipe out. Whatever pleasantries may be directed against it, criticism is sure to flourish more and more, because as we become more and more democratic it becomes more and more necessary to have the competent few perform these services in the general confusion of ideas; and if criticism should disappear, it would be the artists and the public who would suffer.»

All that M. Brunetière has here said of the whole range of the function of criticism applies pertinently and cogently to that part which has to do with the cultivation of the fine art of literary expression. One of the best services that criticism can perform is constantly to remind us that there is a standard of good speech, and to measure every new performance thereby.

Greece.

A BOOK just issued in Paris, «Souvenirs d'Amérique et de Grèce,» by the Baron Pierre de Coubertin, brings vividly to mind, by contrast, the tragic days through which Greece has passed since the hour of her triumph at the time of the revival of the Olympian games, only a year ago last spring—a time of renewed national pride, of joyous hopefulness, of world-wide recognition and approbation. It must have seemed to the Greeks themselves that all the world had come to the splendid fête made complete by the generosity of their own countrymen in the appointments of the occasion, and by the creditable part taken by the Greeks themselves in two of the contests.

No one who witnessed the giving by King George of the prizes can ever forget the inspiring scene under the Attic sky in the immense Stadion—the triumphal procession, the cheers, the noble music, the whole inspiring spectacle.

The winning by the young native peasant of the Marathon race (graphically described by Coubertin, the originator of the games, in the book, as well as in *THE CENTURY* for last November) helped to arouse the national pride and a spirit of emulation in the entire people. For weeks after the games, wherever one went one saw impromptu contests. Not only the athletic, but also the heroic and the national spirit of the country

was aroused, and it may be that the excitement was not without its effect upon the minds of the masses in precipitating the desperately unequal struggle with the Turks.

Alas! poor Greece! Alas! as says Coubertin, the stupidity of Europe, which, having consented to make a kingdom of Greece, made it too little and too poor to exist, though still it does exist by its own indomitable spirit!



OPEN LETTERS

Dangers and Benefits of the Bicycle.

DANGERS.

IT is easy to understand that anything has its merit which entices into the open air a people too devoted to pen, ink, and printed paper, and too sedentary in habit. It is also obvious that any muscular exercise not too severe or too prolonged must increase circulation and respiration, and indirectly promote the nutritive processes that lead to health.

On the other hand, it needs no elaborate argument to carry the conviction that the young hoodlum who spends his Sundays and the greater part of his shorter periods of leisure in straining his immature muscles, including his heart, in demonstrating how far and how fast he can propel his «bike,» is liable to shorten his life and sacrifice possibilities of usefulness unseen by those who despise his present vulgarity and curse him as a common nuisance of the highway. Equally evident is it that the elderly man or woman whose heart is no longer a perfect pump, whose blood-vessels are somewhat brittle, and whose other organs are more or less the worse for wear, runs the danger of speedy death from heart-failure (properly so called), apoplexy of the brain, or a similar hemorrhage into another organ, or from some other result of overstraining an enfeebled system.

As to the development of nervous diseases, eye-strain, the harmful results of improper saddles,—and none is altogether satisfactory,—the average reader of medical and semi-medical articles probably concludes that there is some truth and some exaggeration in the words of warning so eloquently and so repeatedly uttered.

No recourse to statistics is needed to prove that risk of accident is far greater for one engaged in muscular exercise than for the stay-at-home, for the man going ten miles an hour than for the one who is content with a three-mile gait, for one threading his way among horses, wagons, and electric cars than for one jostling his own kind on the sidewalk. Except for the increased number of bicycles, the wheelman is safer now than he was ten years ago. Not only is his vehicle better built, and the danger from falls minimized by lowering the center of gravity and placing it far behind the front axle, but he rides over better roads, and accidents due

to the selfish indifference or diabolical malice of drivers of horses are becoming less and less frequent as the latter learn the needs and the rights of wheelmen, and as the bicycle becomes more and more the vehicle of the masses.

SPINSTERS IN THE THIRTIES.

THE benefits of the bicycle are to be noted particularly in the case of women who have passed the heyday of youth and have not yet reached the calm of middle life, but who are passing through a period of mental fermentation and physical irritability of varying degree according to their social sphere, temperament, and habits. The matron with engrossing and for the most part pleasant cares may slip from youth to middle age with scarcely a realization that the glamour of the former is waning, and without the physical reflection of a purely mental disturbance. In some respects she is more prone to actual organic disease than her unmarried sister, but it is the latter who is especially liable to mourn over the lost gaieties of younger days, to feel herself becoming less essential to active life, and, in turn, life becoming less endurable to her. The spinster who is an integral part of some pleasant household, or who is born to that class of society which has money and leisure for making a business of pleasure, may also find growing old a tolerable, if not actually agreeable, process. But it is the solitary female, the one who commands the gaieties of life only so long as she can keep white hairs and wrinkles from appearing, who has not the prosaic but necessary basis of philanthropy, of social activity, or the various phases of new-womanism, who somewhere in the third decade of life realizes that the evil days have come, and the years when she is forced to say, «I have no pleasure in them.» Teacher, stenographer, seamstress, wage-earner in whatever field, or the unwilling parasite on some struggling relative, she becomes the prey of mental yearning and dissatisfaction, and it is little wonder that actual disease follows. Life, irksome enough in health, becomes doubly so now; and the two factors, mental and physical suffering, act and react on each other in a vicious circle. The manifestation of the nervous state of such a woman may localize itself in some one organ or apparatus; some special form of neuralgia may set in, or the supply of nerve-power to the stomach may be so deficient that, without organic

change, a serious dyspepsia ensues, or any one of a number of other organs may be similarly depressed in function, singly or in association. Such women are particularly apt to fall into the hands of the quack who assiduously circulates a list of questions suggesting complaints which the victim will imagine, if she does not already possess them. Even if the patient consults a regular physician, the result is not satisfactory to either. The particular symptom complained of may be relieved, but a relapse occurs as soon as medicine is discontinued. General tonics are tried, but the patient fails to reach the point of permanent good health. Something is lacking, and the wise physician very soon realizes that the lack cannot be supplied from the drug-store. To such patients the bicycle is a blessing. The woman who would not—yes, could not—muster courage to walk a mile in familiar and uninteresting streets, will gladly put forth the same amount of energy in pedaling three miles to reach a park or the real country; and once there, the temptation to further exercise is irresistible.

It may be an open question whether the bicycle is destined, as some enthusiasts claim, to revolutionize the social life of our people; there is no doubt that it can furnish an excellent substitute for ordinary social occupations in the class of women referred to as lacking in this element of worldly pleasure. The bicycle is more than a vehicle: it is almost as much of a companion as a horse or a dog, while the exhilaration of rapid motion, the accessibility of charming bits of nature, the mastery of time and space, afforded by this steed of steel, more than atone for social companionship which depends on no deep-seated affection.

It would be a mistake to suppose that the bicycle is the much-needed mental and nerve tonic of the poor woman alone. There is an opposite class of patients who, not being obliged to work, are simply too lazy to be well, and who fall into the loathsome habit of invalidism. Some—by no means all—of this class can be appealed to through the bicycle, and restored to a natural and healthy interest in life.

THE BICYCLE AND THE TENEMENT-HOUSE.

FEW men have urgent need either of a new machine for enforcing exercise or occupying the mind; yet there is many a middle-aged or elderly professional man who is exchanging flabby fat for firm muscle, is increasing his breathing-space, toning up his circulation, and putting old age five or ten years farther ahead, by discarding the carriage, buggy, or street-car for the bicycle. The wheel is also effecting a radical change in the lives of many poor artisans. A second-hand wheel can be paid for from the car-fare which would be spent in a year, and the ten or twenty cents a day saved during the wheeling seasons of the next year or two may mean added health as well as comfort. Or it may be that the bicycle allows the workingman to reach home for a good warm dinner during a nooning too brief, otherwise, for anything but the appetite-destroying dinner-pail or the dyspepsia-breeding cheap lunch, which, after all, is twice as expensive as a plain, wholesome meal cooked at home. Again, the bicycle, by annihilating distance, makes it possible to seek a home in the suburbs, or at least in a thinly populated portion of the city, remote from the noise, dust, and crowding of

the business center. Thus the hygienic as well as the economic and social level of the workingman's family is raised. It is no exaggeration to say that the bicycle is making self-respecting householders and property-owners of men who would otherwise become the victims of tenement life, necessarily dependent on the charity of the city physician,—for the poor have an enormously high susceptibility to disease,—and destined to succumb to a progressive pauperism which leads to dependence on one form of charity after another, till the professional dead-beat and beggar is evolved. Yet the simple explanation of this miracle is the centripetal tendency of all city valuations, the rent of the ill-ventilated three-room suite of the tenement, with its utter lack of indoor privacy and outdoor freedom, being the same as that of a five-room cottage a few miles distant, with good ventilation, sanitary plumbing, the possibility of at least a small garden, and the certainty of an atmosphere not only of pure air, but of independence.

MARKED MUSCULAR DEVELOPMENT NOT THE SEAL OF RUGGED HEALTH.

IT may surprise many of the readers of this article to be informed that marked muscular development is not the seal of rugged health that they have imagined it to be. Given, on the one hand, a professional or business man, whose fists are useless as weapons, whose chest expansion is only two inches and a half, and who is abundantly satisfied with a three-mile walk or a ten-mile bicycle ride, and, on the other hand, a trained athlete who can expand his chest to the extent of five inches, and who can trust either to his fists or legs for safety, and supposing them to be otherwise fair representatives of their respective types, the chances of life and freedom from disease are greatly in favor of the former. Remarkable muscular development is seldom attained save at the expense of some serious organic lesion. The ideal of the hygienist, therefore, is a man of moderate and symmetrical muscular development. Moderation excludes the factor of competition, which is the basis of all athletic sports. Symmetry is obtained from no one natural form of exercise or athletic amusement, but requires careful anthropometric study of the individual, and a tedious attention to the prescribed exercises at elaborate training machinery. This, in turn, means the sacrifice of the element of *fun*—a very important hygienic consideration—and of outdoor exercise, unless one has almost unlimited leisure for physical training. Hence, for the civilized man who earns his bread by mental acumen or muscular skill rather than by actual perspiring toil, and who trusts to a general regard for law and order rather than to his natural weapons, comparatively slight muscular development is necessary; nor is it worth his while to tax his leisure or curtail his enjoyment of outdoor sports in the attempt at symmetry. The tendency of all civilized athletics is to develop the locomotor power of the body rather than the capacity for stationary work; and so far as the health of the vital organs is concerned, experience teaches that walking or any other leg exercise in the open air is sufficient.

EFFECTS ON CLOTHING AND MORALS.

THE bicycle seems destined to effect a reform in clothing. Sensible shoes, and neckwear that will not inter-

ferre with the poise of the head nor compress the great blood-vessels, have already become popular. Otherwise the ordinary attire of men has no specially objectionable features, though breeches are certainly more comfortable than trousers during hot weather, for bicycling or any other purpose. The wheeling-costumes thus far devised for women have shown a realization of the unfitness of ordinary dress rather than an appreciation of the changes needed. The one hygienic result that has been achieved by all efforts in this direction is the elimination of the long skirt which sweeps the filth and infection of the highway into the homes of civilized man, and doubtless is the cause of many an inexplicable case of contagious disease. If the fashion would only extend to other street dress, we could forgive the many offenses of wheeling-costumes against modesty, good taste, and comfort.

If the bicycle were responsible simply for distracting the attention of thousands of young men and women from artificial fashions in dress, and for creating an honest though sometimes mistaken effort at dress-reform, a great good would have been accomplished. But it is doing much more than this. It is establishing an ideal of physical health, and making deservedly unpopular the sickly heroine of less than a generation ago. The wheel is affording a wholesome outlet for energies that would otherwise be wasted in frivolity or actual dissipation, and in elevating the physical is also raising the moral tone of the youth of our land. The half-grown boy who formerly thought it manly to fuddle his brain with liquor or weaken his heart with tobacco, has changed his ideal to the not very lofty but certainly more innocent one of maintaining a reputation for speed or endurance, and while in training he proudly foregoes bad habits that he would be ashamed to abandon as a mere matter of principle. The use of strong liquors among the class of young men from whom cyclists are largely drawn is on the wane, and even "soft drinks" are used with increasing discretion.

All of this means not that the bicycle is to be used by everybody, nor that it is to be the physical and moral salvation of the age, but that it is aiding in a tangible manner in the solution of many problems, social, economic, moral, and hygienic.

A. L. Benedict, M. D.

How Napoleon Impressed a Foe at St. Helena.

THE letter which follows, from Rear-Admiral Sir George Cockburn to Sir Alexander Campbell, comes to us from H. A. Wetherall, Esq., of Hill Crest, Addlestone, Surrey, England, who found it among the papers of his grandfather, Sir George Wetherall, who was military secretary to Sir Alexander, and his executor, in which latter capacity he is supposed to have come into possession of the letter. Sir George Wetherall, who died in 1868, was also at one time adjutant-general of the English army. It is believed that this letter, which is here printed from the original manuscript, has never before appeared. In THE CENTURY for October and November, 1893, will be found an account by John R. Glover, secretary to the admiral, of the voyage with Napoleon to St. Helena. Sir George was relieved by Sir Hudson Lowe the day after this letter was written.

EDITOR.

ST. HELENA, 14th April, 1816.

MY DEAR SIR ALEXANDER Accept I pray you my best thanks for your very friendly Letter of the 20 Jan^y last and for the good things of Mauritius which accompanied it. Major Fluker was so obliging as to deliver them to me safe and I was sorry his stay here was so short as to put it out of my Power to shew him any other attention than merely giving him a Passport to see our *great Lion*, the which in fact almost cost him his Passage as his Ship was only here a few Hours & was under way waiting for him before he returned from Long Wood.

I should indeed feel very much Interest as well as Pleasure in visiting you at the Isle of France but under the existing Circumstances there is little or no chance of my having such gratification, as I am very particularly enjoined to continue at this place for the better insuring the Security of Bonaparte until the Admiral destined to remain upon this Station *during Peace*, & Sir Hudson Lowe destined to take charge of Bonaparte shall arrive, when of course I am to return straight to England as I only consented to bring the arch-Fiend of Europe to this Place & to keep charge of him here until the ulterior arrangements for the Island and the Peace Establishments for the Station should be fixed & completed, and indeed I have already been here much longer than I expected when I sailed, as I was given to understand in London that I might look for being relieved about the Middle of Jan^y last, *our Friends* the present Ministers however, as you probably know, are not given to hurry themselves much where they do not feel themselves much interested & therefore here I am still & without any positive Information as to Sir H. Lowe or my relieving Admiral but of course living in daily or I may say hourly hopes of seeing them, a long Sojourn here not being very enviable. After this Explanation you will not be surprised to learn that I never for a moment thought of bringing Lady Cockburn with me, but I am sure she will feel much flattered & pleased by Lady Campbell's & your kind Recollection & Invitation, of which I shall inform her in my next Letters, she was very well by my last accounts which were to the end of December and gave me Reason to hope that long ere this my Family may have been increased.

I perfectly agree with you with respect to the Indian naval Command & have not the most distant Idea of taking it or any other whilst Peace continues or is likely to continue.

I have got on here better upon the whole than I expected, My *Prisoner Extraordinary* is most securely lodged, *at last*, and with the Regulations now established here I do not hesitate in saying it is quite impossible for him to escape, he & I are not quite such good Friends as we have been, he having lately made some Requests which I did not deem it prudent or proper to acquiesce in, and unaccustomed as he has so long been to have his Wishes or his Whims controuled in any manner this made him mighty angry, & he has since shewn very distant & sulky with me, but as you may suppose his Sulks or his Smiles have equally little avail with my Determinations. I have given him as much Latitude as I think consistent with his safety, & you may rest assured he will obtain no more, until I hand him over to those destined to have the future charge of him. Were I to attempt to give you my opinion of him, it

would I fear appear too much like trampling upon a fallen foe but in a few Words I will say to you, the more I see of him & know of him the less do I like or admire him, his conduct is far more like that of a spoiled child thwarted than of a Great Man under Misfortune, and (what will perhaps surprise you as much as it has me) his Manners are particularly low & bad and nothing can exceed the apparent capriciousness & overbearing ill nature with which he treats those French Persons who have shewn their attachment to him by accompanying him hither & who continue to flatter him & cringe to him in a way that is neither to be understood nor seen without feelings of disgust & contempt by Englishmen.

Adieu My dear Sir Alexander. I am sorry to say this Miserable Rock offers nothing likely to prove acceptable to you but if I can serve you in aught when I return to *Cavendish Square* pray believe the Pleasure I should have in executing your Commands.

I beg my best Respects & Regards to Lady Campbell and that you will believe the real Esteem with which I ever am, My dear General

Most faithfully & truly yours

G. COCKBURN.

This will be conveyed to you by the *Icarus* Brig of War, which Vessel I send to remain with you until a better Vessel may arrive from England to take your part of the Station—the Commander of the *Icarus* has (certainly very improperly) brought his Wife with him from England & she cruizes with him in the Brig as however the fault is not hers poor Woman, and she appears to be very quiet and respectable I venture to ask of Lady Campbell & yourself to shew her any Countenance or Civilities which may be in your power without inconvenience.

General Grant's Veto of the «Inflation Bill.»

THE brief note by EX-Minister John A. Kasson, in the April CENTURY, touching General Grant's veto of the «Inflation Bill,» has called to my mind a statement of some importance made to me upon the same subject by the Hon. John A. J. Creswell of Maryland. I had not supposed that the incident referred to was unfamiliar to historical students. If it is, General Creswell's statement will certainly throw some additional light upon it. It will be remembered that General Creswell was Postmaster-General at the time, and it may be added that among his many high gifts marked ability as a lawyer and strength as a financier were included. I chanced to come into familiar acquaintance with him through the fact that he was the general counsel for the government before the court of Alabama claims, of which I was a member. His statement, which I think must be taken as altogether reliable, is somewhat at variance, but not strangely so, with Mr. Kasson's statement of what General Grant said.

General Creswell informed me that while President Grant did not submit the «Inflation Bill» to the consideration of the cabinet as a body, he did talk with the different members about it. At the close of one of the meetings the President requested General Creswell to remain. When they were alone the bill was discussed, the President saying that although he had thought much upon the subject, he had been unable to come to

a conclusion as to the true line of his duty. General Creswell urged him to veto the bill. The President replied that he was inclined to do so, but the pressure for approval of the measure, on the ground of party necessity, was greater than he had ever before experienced. He said that all but two members of his cabinet advised him to find reasons for signing the bill, and urged that a veto would imperil the prosperity of the country and perhaps wreck the party which had twice elected him. After considerable discussion the President said that his disposition of the measure would doubtless be the most important act of his administration; that in the midst of all the various contentions it was apparent that he must decide the matter for himself; that his judgment was opposed to the bill, and he thought he would veto it, although the weight of official recommendation was in its favor. He said he would have to see what he could do in the way of writing a message before the next cabinet meeting, and requested the Postmaster-General to come to him an hour in advance of the next meeting to see what he should produce.

When General Creswell called prior to the next meeting, the President took from his desk and read a very carefully written memorandum setting forth the considerations which had led him reluctantly to determine to sign the bill, and asked the cabinet officer how he liked it, and if he did not think that, all things considered, he had reached the wisest conclusion. Upon being met with expressions of surprise and regret, he took from his desk another paper and read it. It was the since famous veto message. General Creswell said with enthusiasm: «Mr. President, if you will use that, it will put the substantial sense of the country under lasting obligations to you.» «No matter what it does,» was the reply, «it is the only thing I can write upon the subject and satisfy my judgment and conscience, and I shall adhere to it.» He then explained that he had sometimes found that he could come to the safest conclusions by writing for himself the strongest possible paper on each side of controverted questions, and that he had worked until late into the previous night applying that test to the «Inflation Bill.» He said that at first he had given himself up to the thought that he would sign the bill and file with it an explanatory memorandum. He had made this as strong and logical as he could. Then he turned to the other side, and set to work to write the most convincing veto message of which he was capable. The result left no doubt in his mind as to which side had the weight of reason and argument. He felt sure of the right course, and, regardless of clamor and abuse, he would have pleasure in pursuing it.

This doubtless shows the operation of General Grant's mind, and the facts as to what he did in this connection, more fully than his statement to Mr. Kasson. It also shows that Mr. Kasson is in error in supposing that he destroyed the one document before preparing the other, and that he prepared and kept them *for comparison*, which seems to me to be the point of the whole matter, and that he showed both to at least one person. Indeed, both documents may yet be in existence. The difference between the two statements is not great, however, and is easily explained.

All who remember General Grant's manner of speech may readily believe that when he said the veto message was «the only thing I can write upon the subject and satisfy my judgment and conscience,» it was not necessary for him to add, «and I shall adhere to it,» before the matter was completely determined so far as his administration was concerned. His countrymen know much of *General Grant*, but I surmise they have much yet to learn concerning the singular purity and balance of mind, the independence and wisdom of judgment, and the quiet force of character of *President Grant*.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS. *Andrew S. Draper.*

Anecdotes of Lincoln and Grant.

I. LINCOLN'S READINESS.

I HAVE not hitherto happened to read or hear of the following relating to Lincoln. It seems very characteristic, and worthy of preservation. I give it just as it was told to me by one who was present and heard Lincoln at the time.

In March, 1860, after his famous Cooper Union speech, Lincoln spoke in the town hall at Meriden, Connecticut. The hall was packed with people. Men were there from New Haven, where he had spoken the evening before, among them, on the front row, being President Woolsey of Yale. Discussion as to whether, if elected, a Republican could be inaugurated had been current. During the speech at Meriden a man seated on one of the window-sills at the side of the hall, in a piping voice interrupted Lincoln with: «Do you believe, Mr. Lincoln, that if the Republicans should elect a President they would be able to inaugurate him?» For an instant it was as if a blight had fallen on the audience; then there was a storm of hisses, and cries of «Put him out!» etc. They did not want to face that situation. But Lincoln, straightening himself to his full height, and pointing to the man, soon showed that he wanted to take care of him; and the crowd observed absolute silence as Lincoln, beginning calmly, and with a bit of the Western drawl unique to his audience, but closing with the fire and force that matched the cut of his words and the strength of his logic, answered:

«I reckon, friend, that if there are *votes* enough to elect a Republican President, there 'll be *men* enough to *put him in.*» The audience literally «rose to its feet,» cheering and shouting; and none jumped quicker or higher than President Woolsey. That settled that question once for all in Meriden; and it is said that not a man who then heard Lincoln but was determined not only to vote for him, but to help «put him in,» if necessary.

John P. Bartlett.

II. GENERAL GRANT'S CIGAR.

SHORTLY after General Grant took command of all the armies of the United States he was in Washington. Dr. Daniel Simmons, of 97 Lee Avenue, Brooklyn, was then in the army, serving as corporal in Company A of the First Regiment Veteran Reserve Corps, having been transferred from the 83d Regiment New York Volunteers, and was on duty at Washington. He was in command of the guard stationed at the headquarters of General Halleck.

Smoking was very offensive to General Halleck, and he ordered Corporal Simmons to instruct the guard on duty not to allow any one who was smoking to enter. The guard was so instructed. Very soon after the order was issued, General Grant visited General Halleck's office, and the soldier on duty informed him of the order, and said he could not enter while smoking, and General Grant threw away his cigar.

General Grant no doubt mentioned this incident to General Halleck, for he at once sent for Corporal Simmons, and as he entered the room General Halleck said:

«Do you know this gentleman?» looking toward General Grant.

Corporal Simmons replied, «No.»

General Halleck then said that he was General Grant, and that the soldier on duty in the hall had compelled him to throw away his cigar before he would allow him to enter.

Corporal Simmons replied that that was according to the orders from that office to him, and that he gave that order to the guard.

General Halleck then said that the order, so far as it would affect General Grant, must be countermanded.

General Grant at once said:

«No; there is no good reason why General Grant should not comply with orders, and the man on duty did just right.» He then said, directing his remarks to General Halleck: «I hope you will not change your order.»

Corporal Simmons says the order was not changed, and that he afterward saw General Grant visit the office on several occasions, always without his cigar.

B.

The Social Menace of Specialism.

UNDER the stress of a competition unequaled anywhere else, the everlasting American desire to «get ahead,» success has come to mean an ability to do a limited kind of work better than any one else can do it. The price of that success is constant, all-absorbing devotion to that one kind of work, in most cases to the exclusion of all other kinds and of all other subjects of interest, except in rare moments of relaxation, grudgingly self-conceded. The result is often atrophy of the unused faculties, as Darwin, through exclusive devotion to scientific investigation, lost, as he himself confesses, his early appreciation for poetry.

Specialism does not stop when one has become a specialist. For one must, as a corollary of its principal proposition, «call in a specialist,» whether it be a matter of theological dogma, art criticism, sanitary reform, advertising method, or even amusement—from baseball to dining. Thus it is that when we give a private dinner we often call in some professional purveyor of amusement—a singer, or dancer, or reader, or magician—to add the lacking touch of completeness; and when we give a public or club dinner, we do not do our own talking, but fall back upon a specialist to talk to us and for us—a professional «after-dinner orator,» who makes a business of providing for such occasions the maximum of humor (or «good stories») and the minimum of instruction (or serious eloquence). What an aptly descriptive term, as marking the status of the modern elaborate dinner, is the phrase, so common in large cities: «Why, he's a professional diner-out!» And what an aggrega-

tion of bores will be the dinner-party of a not remote future, when specialism shall have done its perfect work! It is no great stretch of the imagination to picture the coming man as tongueless and earless, so far as the higher purposes of human intercourse are concerned. For his tongue will talk only the language of his own specialty, while his ears will be closed to the language of his neighbor's specialty.

Arthur Reed Kimball.

«The Century's» American Artists Series.

SARAH C. SEARS.

WHEN, in 1893, it was announced that the W. T. Evans prize for the «most meritorious water-color painted in this country by an American artist» in the Water-Color Society exhibition had been awarded to Sarah C. Sears (Mrs. J. Montgomery Sears), those familiar with art matters wondered who the newcomer could be, and a good deal of curiosity was awakened in regard to a work by an unknown artist of such merit as to be judged the most worthy by the consensus of the aquarellists. Happily, when seen, the verdict of the jury was indorsed by the knowing, who were unanimous that the intentions of the founder of the prize had on this occasion been fully met. The picture, «Romola» (of which a repro-

duction, engraved on wood by Henry Wolf, is printed on page 420), was also awarded a medal at the World's Fair in Chicago. It showed a firm grasp of the essentials of picture-making, and a virility of handling unusual in the medium employed. It transpired that Mrs. Sears was among those whom fortune has permitted to handle the brush and palette without thought of reward other than the *succès d'estime*—one of that class, each year more numerous in the art-world, who, possessing the talent and the training of the professional artist, do not enter the lists with him in bread-winning, and yet to whom the word «amateur» in its ordinary sense does not apply.

Mrs. Sears's career since that time has been such that it will not be disputed that as an aquarellist she is the peer of her professional brethren.

Sarah C. Sears is of New England origin, having been born in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Her present home is in Boston.

She has been the pupil by turn of Ross Turner, Joseph de Camp, the late Dennis M. Bunker, Edmund C. Tarbell, and George de Forest Brush. She is a member of the New York Water-Color Club.

Mrs. Sears's principal works are «Romola» and portraits of Mrs. Bunker and of Mrs. Templeman.

W. Lewis Fraser.



Mis' Dance's Buryin'.

WE three were still at the breakfast-table when some one knocked at the dining-room door. No one responded to our «Come in.» Presently the knock was repeated; it was one that sounded as if knuckles had no part in it, but as if some heavy-handed person had thumped the door with the open flat of his hand.

«Go see who that is, Mason.» Mason was the yellow boy who broke our dishes for twenty dollars a month. Without stirring from his place by the sideboard, he announced, «It's some of them outdo' niggers wants to see Miss Flaunce.»

«How does he know?» I asked, whereupon Mason looked smart, but maintained a discreet silence until (Miss Flaunce) asked him directly: «How do you know who it is, Mason?»

«I know it's outdo' nigger, 'cause no cullud pusson what lives in a fambly don't knock that a-way; en he come to see Miss Flaunce 'cause he knows better 'n 'sturb'e boss at breakfuss.» Having proved his acumen, Mason shifted the weight of himself and his brain-power from one leg to the other, and smiled a smile of conscious brightness.

«Perhaps it's Jim Raincrow from the stable to see about the new mules,» I suggested.

«No; he means it is one of the wood-choppers—do you, Mason?»

«Ya-s-s-s, Miss Flaunce,» assented that young person, with much elegance; his soul was happy when he was included, however incidentally, in the conversation. Then, with a pleased wriggle, he continued, «It's Billy Sinkholes; he's been awaitin' yo' convenience in the pantry.»

«We've finished breakfast; tell him to come in.»

«In heah, Miss Flaunce? Not wishin' to cut off yo' disco'se, he's right raggedy, Miss Flaunce, en—»

«And you can take away the breakfast, Mason.» After which implied rebuke nothing was left him but to usher in Billy Sinkholes, not without first making himself obnoxious to the «outdo' nigger» by imperious cautions as to his boots.

Finally the old man appeared, standing in an apologetic attitude outside the threshold, and making so low a reverence that the old felt hat in his hand swept the floor.

«Mornin', Miss Flaunce; mornin', boss.»

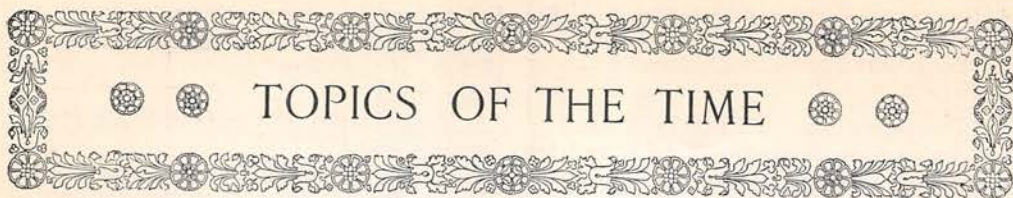
«Come in, Billy.»

«Inside de do'?»—looking around for a mat on which to make assurance doubly sure as to his boots. Finding none, Billy tapped the toe of each delicately against the jamb, dropped his hat outside the door, and took one step into the room.

«You right well, Miss Flaunce?»

«Very well, thank you, Billy.»

«En 'e boss, he well too?»



TOPICS OF THE TIME

Is the Senate Justly Criticized?

FLIPPANT and unreasoned attacks upon any branch of our government are greatly to be deprecated. They tend to bring American institutions into popular contempt; they discredit authority and discourage patriotism. At the same time it is evident that there is equal or greater danger in the withholding of legitimate criticism. If evils are not seen, understood, and denounced, they will grow till the injury may be well-nigh irreparable.

For a number of years that body which the fathers first called the «second branch» of the Federal legislature, and which is now called the Senate, or «upper house,» has been the subject of popular suspicion and ridicule. Its conspicuous defenders have, unfortunately, come more frequently than otherwise from within its own membership. It has become the fashion to berate the Senate. To so great an extent has this been the case that there are many who forget that the Senate still contains not only able, but upright and public-spirited senators, men who are most unjustly included in any general condemnation.

There are several occasions for the criticism. One is the fact that the Websters, Clays, and Sumners are no longer living; that the Senate contains no men of comparatively first-class caliber. Even if this is acknowledged to be true, the fact would not in itself be sufficient to excuse the present popular disdain of the Senate. A senator could very well retort that the Grants, Shermans, and Sheridans, and the Emersons, Lowells, and Longfellow, have also passed away. It may be true that the average of ability is lower, but it would require a detailed and elaborate comparison to make such a fact clearly evident. Under this head a legitimate criticism might be suggested in the avowal that the Senate—indeed, our whole political life—has, under the boss system in politics, fallen into such disrepute that the upper house of Congress is not as attractive as formerly to men of commanding abilities. But in such a criticism cause and effect would be inextricably confused.

Again, and here criticism is not easily thrown aside, it is held that the senatorial representatives of some of the States, of some, even, that are considered the most important, are intellectually and morally inferior and unfit; that, indeed, the very presence in the Senate of certain of these men is in itself an outrage and a scandal. When men of the character mentioned not only help to make up the membership of a legislative body, but are able to take a prominent, and at times a commanding, position in its councils and in its decisions, we come at once upon a reasonable ground for public prejudice.

But it is not only that such men have become mem-

bers of the body,—apparently in good, regular, and influential standing,—but the means by which certain of them reached their positions reflect dishonor upon the chamber to which they belong. For if it is seen that the boss, the demagogue, and the corruptionist may obtain, and do obtain, by chicanery and corruption, seats in a representative assembly, and especially if it is seen that such members are sometimes not less, but more powerful than others, then it is inevitable that the respect for that assembly should diminish among the people.

Another occasion for criticism lies in the rules and customs of the body itself, whereby single senators or a small group undistinguished for wisdom or character, may delay, and even defeat, the most pressing needed legislation. Instances of disastrous obstruction have been of late years so conspicuous that they are constantly in the minds of the people, and they are coupled with, and not palliated by, other notorious instances of the very absence of that «coolness, system, and wisdom» which, according to the expectation of Madison, were to distinguish the proceedings of the Senate as compared with those of the lower house of Congress.

Public opinion being the power behind all government, it is especially important that that part of the government which legislates should be keen to discriminate between, on the one hand, ignorant clamor, selfish propagandism and demand, and, on the other, that intelligent, disinterested, and genuine public opinion which it is imperative that legislators should regard. One reason for prejudice against and reasonable criticism of the Senate is based upon the fact that of late years it has in its action proved more subservient to the former than to the latter influences. It is true that the actual drawing of the arbitration treaty, its popular indorsement, and its indorsement by a majority even of the Senate, constitute a great victory for the humane principle involved; and yet the lukewarmness of many senators who voted for the measure, and its final rejection owing to its failure to obtain a two-thirds vote, are truly alarming symptoms of the indifference of our «upper house» to the enlightened public opinion of the country, no matter how widely and decisively expressed.

The length of the term of a senator, being half as long again as that of the President, was intended, of course, to have a conservative tendency. What this device has lately tended to conserve is that «courtesy of the Senate» which, added to the senatorial share in Executive appointments, has given rise to rapacious attacks upon the prerogative of the National Executive. The length of the senatorial term has created a «good-fellowship» resulting in that mutual accommodation or log-rolling which constitutes one of the most notorious causes of complaint against the upper chamber.

It is interesting to note that some of the most conservative of the makers of the Constitution desired that

the Senate should not only give equal representation to the several States as such, but that it should also especially represent property. It was even suggested that the President should be worth not less than one hundred thousand dollars, a judge fifty thousand, and congressmen a proportionate sum. One member of the convention wished «the Senate to bear as strong a likeness as possible to the British House of Lords, and to consist of men distinguished for their rank in life and their weight of property.» This was not because of devotion to merely selfish property interests, but for the same reason that some of the fathers of the republic desired that the voters of the United States should be freeholders, believing that they would be «the best guardians of liberty.»

It was Benjamin Franklin who said, in opposition to the property qualification for members of the government: «If honesty is often the companion of wealth, and if poverty is exposed to peculiar temptation, the possession of property increases the desire for more. Some of the greatest rogues I was ever acquainted with were the richest rogues.» The property qualification was not adopted; but although there are probably not as many very rich men in the Senate as is popularly supposed, there has grown up, strangely enough, a property representation in the Senate, not at all in the interest of liberty and good government. There seems, indeed, to be color for the suspicion that the old method of corporations, capitalists, and speculators, in employing professional lobbyists or attorneys for either corrupt or legitimate legislative uses, has been in part, though not wholly, superseded in the State legislatures and in Congress. In the case of State legislatures it is well known that nowadays a great deal of «protection» is secured to corporate or large private interests by means of so-called political contributions (really blackmail) to the State bosses, whose creatures in the legislature can be relied upon for services in emergencies. A corporation magnate either has himself elected by a subservient legislature to the United States Senate, or he procures through local committees the election of senators who are sure to take a favorable view of legislation in which he and his friends are interested. There is probably much less bribery of the old-fashioned, brutal kind in Congress than there was thirty years or so ago; there is less corruption there in general. There are few men in the Senate who are under gross suspicion; but there are, in addition to these, senators whose conduct in relation to legislation in which they or their backers are interested may be said, in the language of moderation, to be indelicate; there are enough of both classes to create scandal, and largely to account for the wide and most unfortunate ill repute into which the Senate has fallen.

One of our leading and most thoughtful statesmen, still active in politics and affairs, said the other day that he had no desire to enter the Senate; he could do his work outside of it, and would not then be subject to the ill repute that attaches to that body. He thought the Senate deserved its present most unfortunate reputation—a reputation more unfortunate for the country and for our system of government than for the particular body or individuals affected.

We have no desire to overrate existing evils in the

Senate or elsewhere in our machinery of government. If one representative body in America is, for the time being, neither in its membership, methods, nor action what it should be, it is the fault more of the people than of the system, though a more popular system of electing senators may be desirable. As for the people, they are not fairly represented by the Senate as a whole only because they refuse to take political matters to heart, except in great emergencies. No one has a right to criticize the Senate, or anything else of which he thinks ill in national, State, or city government, unless he himself is doing his full duty as a citizen. Indifference, neglect, on the part of the voter account for most of our troubles. The people of the cities are beginning to take hold of local government more generally and with greater earnestness. Perhaps it is by this way that will come our deliverance from the evils of our national politics.

The Forest Commission's Great Public Service.

AT first glance it might seem that the action of Congress during the extra session, in suspending all but two of the Western forest reserves, proclaimed by President Cleveland on the 22d of February on the recommendation of the Forest Commission of the National Academy of Sciences, was a staggering defeat of this important cause. On closer consideration, we do not share this opinion. Mr. Cleveland's action was not only patriotic in itself, but, following upon the reserves previously proclaimed by himself and by Mr. Harrison, it sets a standard of progress which will be constantly in the mind of President McKinley, upon whose administration the responsibility now rests of dealing with this belated and critical problem. To the objection that the plan for the reserves was of too great extent (posterity will doubtless pronounce it blamable moderation) the reply is that some such large scheme was needed to arouse the public, and especially the West, to consider at all the need of a conservative policy toward the national forests. This objection was doubtless expected by the commission, in view of the fact that the lands are still unsurveyed, and the mere rectification of their frontiers would have disappointed nobody. The hardships upon the settler might easily have been repaired without suspending the reserves. That these hardships should have existed is an indictment of Congress in general for its long-continued neglect to enact a just administrative system for the reserves, and particularly of certain Western senators who have defeated it.

But if the Senate has not been convinced,—and again the House of Representatives has proved itself the more conservative body,—the country is being rapidly educated. The net result of the several debates in the two houses is that every community in the Northwest has been busy with the discussion of the subject; and while, for the most part, the drift of sentiment has been in opposition to the reserves, yet after the clamor of the small and noisy class of those who are for «the old flag and an appropriation,» has subsided, the good sense of the self-sustaining American will assert itself. It will then be discovered that, after all, the truest friends of the West are not the so-called «practical» men who are willing to draw upon her dwindling forest capital until it is exhausted, but the alleged «theorists» who wish to see it

securely cared for in a way that will yield interest for all time. In fact, the poor-settler argument, which was urged upon Congress with lacrymose sentimentality and a wordy sort of patriotism very like «flapdoodle,» should have fallen to the ground before the known willingness of the friends of the reserves to provide for all reasonable local needs.

For all agree that forests do not exist simply to give greater variety to a map. They are of use solely to minister to the needs of the people. What could be more «practical» or more liberal in its consideration of the settler and miner than the view of the province of these reserves as set forth by the «theorists» of the Forest Commission? We quote from their report to the Secretary of the Interior on May 1, 1897:

A study of the forest reserves in their relations to the general development and welfare of the country shows that the segregations of these great bodies of reserved lands cannot be withdrawn from all occupation and use, and that they must be made to perform their part in the economy of the nation. According to a strict interpretation of the rulings of the Department of the Interior, no one has a right to enter a forest reserve, to cut a single tree from its forests, or to examine its rocks in search of valuable minerals. Forty million acres of land are thus theoretically shut out from all human occupation or enjoyment. Such a condition of things should not continue, for unless the reserved lands of the public domain are made to contribute to the welfare and prosperity of the country, they should be thrown open to settlement and the whole system of reserved forests abandoned. Land more valuable for its mineral deposits, or for the production of agricultural crops, than for its timber, should be taken from the reservations and sold to miners and farmers, the mature timber should be cut and sold, settlers within or adjacent to the boundaries, unable to procure it in other ways, should be authorized to take such material from reserved forests as is necessary for their needs, and prospectors should be allowed to search them for minerals.

And yet, in the face of this declaration, which is embodied in the legislation adopted, an alliance of the West and the South succeeded in rallying twenty-five votes in favor of the total abolition of the reserves. This is all the more remarkable because the vote was taken at the very time when Congress was giving great attention to the relief of the sufferers by the Mississippi floods, the chief object to be attained by the reserves being the prevention of similar calamities. It was the blind leading the blind. Mr. Cable's remark that «a man may be depended upon to shoot away from the uniform he has on» seems to be in need of revision.

An even greater public service on the part of the commission is the thorough treatment of the forest problem in the report from which we have quoted. This is the first time, we believe, in the official history of the government when there has been anything like an adequate grappling with this question. The report covers succinctly the whole field, with significant reference to the costly experiments of other countries in retrieving calamities similar to those which are impending here, and sets forth with graphic detail the unceasing dangers which menace the forests from fire, nomadic sheep-husbandry, and the depredations of mines and lumber companies. This would, however, be of little value were it not supplemented by the proposal of a practical system of forest preservation, both temporary and permanent, carefully thought out by men whose business it has

been to make a study of this topic. The heart of this system is *control which rests on the moral and physical support of the army*. This was to have been expected: for, indeed, there can be no other conclusion when it is considered that the dangers to be provided for are those which largely involve in the rank and file intelligent police service, and in the administrative officers cultivated intelligence, firm adhesion to duty, and removal from temptations to corruption. All these qualities experience shows to be characteristic of the army. No progress can be made that is not based on the fundamental principle that local control of national interests is invariably had control. The system recommended by the commission, while it would admit of the enlistment of local forest guards, would insure a trained and intelligent supervision on the part of army officers—a desideratum, in our opinion, not to be obtained from any system of civil administration.

It is to be hoped that Congress will not consider that its duty to the forests ends with the suspension of the new reserves and the enactment of a system of temporary rules for the old. The question should be studied in exactly the spirit in which it has been studied by the commission, and it should be recognized that the problem is one of such enormous importance as to justify a prompt but careful working out in legislation of the principles recommended by the report. When it is remembered that the members of the commission—of whom Professor Charles S. Sargent is chairman—have given their eminent services without compensation, they should at least receive at the hands of Congress the gratitude and compliment of consideration for their ideas.

Meantime, as the subject is likely to be before the people from now until the 1st of next March, when the act of suspension is to terminate, we may renew our hope that it will receive also from the commercial and educational institutions of the country the attention commensurate with its importance. The report of the Forest Commission is to be obtained from the Secretary of the Interior, and it ought to be in the hands of every newspaper, board of trade, chamber of commerce, scientific body, and educational institution in the country.

Memorable Words.

MANY things combined to make the ceremonies connected with the unveiling of St. Gaudens's monument to Robert Gould Shaw on Memorial day, in Boston, an occasion of unusual significance and importance. As the readers of the *JUNE CENTURY* had special opportunity to learn, not only were the deed and the hero, or rather the heroes, well worthy of a splendid memorial, but the monument itself was well worthy of the persons and the action commemorated. The latter is a point often curiously neglected, it being apparently, in the opinion of many promoters of such memorials, an absolutely unimportant detail, as if one statue were as good as another. The general interest in, and universal praise of, so noble a work of art as this by St. Gaudens should be the means of setting a standard in the matter of public monuments which committees cannot disregard.

It was one of the felicities of the occasion that the sculptor was not overlooked, as is frequently the case. Again and again the heartiest acknowledgment was made of the evident fact that a masterpiece of modern

art had been that day displayed to the admiration of men. It was felt that the words of the mother of the hero, gracefully quoted by Colonel Lee of the Monument Committee, expressed the literal truth when she said to the sculptor: «You have immortalized my native city; you have immortalized my dear son; you have immortalized yourself.»

Then, again, the parade was a model of its kind, not tediously extended, but appropriate and suggestive in all its details, including as it did the New York Seventh Regiment, of which Shaw was a member, and including also veterans, white and black, who had been associated with him in the field.

Again, the proceedings in Music Hall were of a high order. Fortunate the State and city whose officials can take their natural parts in such exercises as these with such rare dignity and ability! Functions of this sort are among the duties of public officials, and it should not have to be remarked as exceptional when the participation of so-called «public functionaries» on public occasions of this character proves to be entirely satisfactory. And yet, in our day, how often are great States and great cities represented in like ceremonies in a manner to make self-respecting and patriotic citizens ashamed!

Governor Wolcott's address was as stirring as it was brief, as was also that of Mayor Quincy, who, in this passage, uttered with eloquence a profound sentiment:

It is not often those whom the world esteems the most successful or the greatest who leave the most valuable examples and lessons to posterity. It is rather the man whose life or death touches some deep chord of universal sympathy,—appeals to the imagination or the sentiment of all mankind. When far greater soldiers are forgotten, our descendants will still cherish the memory of the gallant youth who fell with «his hurts before,» leading a hopeless charge, blazing the path of freedom for a race in bondage.

Professor William James, whose brother was associated with Shaw in the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts Regiment,¹ while tenderly picturing the youth who fell at Fort Wagner, made the occasion memorable by adding to the praise of the heroes of war solemn and timely words, exquisitely chosen, that hold the true lesson of Shaw's pathetic and glorious career:

Ages ago war was the gory cradle of mankind, the grim-featured nurse that alone could train our savage progenitors into some semblance of social virtue, teach them to be faithful one to another, and force them to sink their selfishness in wider tribal ends. War still excels in this prerogative. . . . Man is once for all a fighting animal; centuries of peaceful history could not breed the battle instinct out of us; and military virtue is the kind of virtue least in need of reinforcement by reflection, least in need of orator's or poet's help.

What we really need the poet's and orator's help to keep alive in us is not, then, the common and gregarious courage which Shaw showed when he marched with you, men of the Seventh Regiment. It is that more lonely courage which he showed when he dropped his warm commission in the glorious Second to head your dubious fortunes, negroes of the Fifty-fourth. That lonely kind of valor—civic courage, as we call it in peace times—is the kind of valor to which the monuments of nations should most of all be reared; for the survival of the fittest has not bred it into the bone of human beings as it has bred military valor; and of five hun-

dred of us who could storm a battery side by side with others, perhaps not one would be found ready all alone to risk his worldly fortunes in resisting an enthroned abuse. The deadliest enemies of nations are not their foreign foes; they always dwell within their borders. And from these internal enemies civilization is always in need of being saved. The nation blest above all nations is she in whom the civic genius of the people does the saving day by day, by acts without external picturesqueness; by speaking, writing, voting reasonably; by smiting corruption swiftly, by good temper between parties, by the people knowing true men when they see them, and preferring them as leaders to rabid partizans or empty quacks. Such nations have no need of wars to save them. Their accounts with righteousness are always even; and God's judgments do not have to overtake them fitfully in bloody spasms and convulsions of the race. . . .

The lesson that our war ought most of all to teach us is the lesson that evils must be checked in time, before they grow so great. The Almighty cannot love such long-postponed accounts, or such tremendous settlements. And surely he hates all settlements that do such quantities of incidental devil's work. Our present situation, with its rancors and delusions, is the direct outcome of the added powers of government, the finances and inflations of the war. Every war leaves such miserable legacies, fatal seeds of future war and revolution unless the civic virtues of the people save the state in time. Shaw had both kinds of virtue. As he then led his regiment against Fort Wagner, so surely would he now be leading us against all lesser powers of darkness, had his sweet young life been spared.

But the most significant feature of the occasion was the appearance, as one of the chief orators, of a member of the colored race—one who, though born a slave, is now recognized as one of the country's most thoughtful and useful educators and genuine patriots. If there were any in that audience in whose minds lingered a question as to the wisdom and utility of Shaw's magnificent self-sacrifice, that question was answered not only in the words, but in the known character and career of the speaker, Booker T. Washington. It may easily be imagined how moving were words like these spoken at such a time and place:

Not many days ago, in the heart of the South, in a large gathering of the people of my race, there were heard from many lips praises and thanksgiving to God for his goodness in setting them free from physical slavery. In the midst of that assembly a Southern white man arose, with gray hair and trembling hands, the former owner of many slaves, and from his quivering lips there came the words: «My friends, you forget in your rejoicing that in setting you free, God was also good to me and my race in setting us free.» But there is a higher and deeper sense in which both races must be free than that represented by the bill of sale. The black man who cannot let love and sympathy go out to the white man is but half free. The white man who would close the shop or factory against a black man seeking an opportunity to earn an honest living is but half free. The white man who retards his own development by opposing a black man is but half free. The full measure of the fruit of Fort Wagner, and all that this monument stands for, will not be realized until every man covered by a black skin shall, by patience and natural effort, grow to that height in industry, property, intelligence, and moral responsibility where no man in all our land will be tempted to degrade himself by withholding from his black brother any opportunity which he himself would possess. . . .

If through me, an humble representative, nearly ten millions of my people might be permitted to send a message to Massachusetts, to the survivors of the Fifty-fourth Regiment, to the committee whose untiring

¹ Adjutant Garth Wilkinson James was wounded at Fort Wagner, but not fatally.

energy has made this memorial possible, to the family who gave their only boy that we might have life more abundantly, that message would be, Tell them that the sacrifice was not in vain, that up from the depths of ignorance and poverty we are coming, and if we come through oppression, out of the struggle we are gaining strength. By the way of the school, the well-cultivated field, the skilled hand, the Christian home, we are coming up; that we propose to invite all who will to step up and occupy this position with us. Tell them that we are learning that standing-ground for a race, as for an individual, must be laid in intelligence, industry, thrift, and property, not as an end, but as a means to the highest privileges; that we are learning that neither the conqueror's bullet, nor fiat of law, could make an ignorant voter an intelligent voter, could make a dependent man an independent man, could give one citizen respect for another, a bank-account, nor a foot of land, nor an enlightened fireside. Tell them that, as grateful as we are to artist and patriotism for placing the figures of Shaw and his comrades in physical form of beauty and magnificence, that, after all, the real monument, the greater monument, is being slowly but safely builded among the lowly in the South, in the struggles and sacrifices of a race to justify all that has been done and suffered for it.

One of the wishes that lay nearest Colonel Shaw's heart was that his black troops might be permitted to fight by the side of white soldiers. Have we not lived to see that wish realized, and will it not be more so in the future? Not at Wagner, not with rifle and bayonet, but on the field of peace, in the battle of industry, in the struggle for good government, in the lifting up of the lowest to the fullest opportunities.

Sergeant Carney, next to Shaw, was the hero of Fort Wagner. Though shot twice, he crawled from the bat-

tle-field to the hospital, declaring, in his anguish, that the colors held aloft in his hands had never touched the ground. When the speaker turned to this dusky hero, then upon the stage, the excitement, the acclamations, made a scene long to be remembered.

In the mere accomplishment of oratory, in the power to speak rather than read, in the skill to seize and bear along the minds and the emotions of listeners, in dramatic climax, it was the colored man who excelled. But the substance of Washington's address was of such generous and noble quality that the art with which it was delivered becomes a matter of secondary importance.

We have spoken before of the verification of Motley's prediction that song and art would long exalt the fame of Shaw. Another American poet has added a wreath of stately, most musical, and fitting verse to the tributes already dedicated to his memory. The later poem is not to lay upon a grave, but to decorate a monument. Aldrich's «Ode» does not, like the earlier verse, celebrate death, but heroic life and «undying youth»:

A pæan, not a knell,
For heroes dying so!
No need for sorrow here,
No room for sigh or tear,
Save such rich tears as happy eyelids know.
See where he rides, our Knight!
Within his eyes the light
Of battle, and youth's gold about his brow;
Our Paladin, our Soldier of the Cross,
Not weighing gain with loss—
World-loser, that won all
Obeying Duty's call!



OPEN LETTERS

General W. F. Smith at Petersburg.

IN the April CENTURY the author of « Campaigning with Grant » says of « W. F. Smith's Attack on Petersburg, » the italics being mine:

Smith at half-past seven threw forward his troops in strong skirmish-lines. After a short struggle the enemy was forced back from his intrenchments in front of our center and left, and Smith's second line then made an attack upon the rest of the works. The Confederates were now driven back at all points, four guns were captured and turned upon the retreating troops, and *before dark* the whole line of intrenchments, about two miles long, had been carried, and three hundred prisoners and sixteen pieces of artillery captured.

Now, if I started at half-past seven to do all that work, it could not have been finished before dark, and time and darkness are important elements in the question. There is no foundation for that assertion as to time, for it was after nine o'clock before the assault was over. The assertion that I captured the whole line of intrenchments is also without foundation. From near the Jordan's Point road to the Appomattox, on the left, the enemy's works were intact, and their capture oc-

cupied the army several months. That very portion of the works, as will be seen, was the subject of a suggestion with reference to the disposition to be made of Hancock's troops on their arrival. I quote with reference to Hancock:

The head of Hancock's troops reached a point a mile in the rear of Hinks's division . . . about half-past six, and two divisions of Hancock's corps were ordered to push on and cooperate in the pending movement. Hancock himself rode forward to where Smith was, to learn the exact situation and participate in the attack; and though senior in rank, waived his rights in this respect, and left Smith in command of the operations, for the reason that he was more familiar with the ground and the movements of the troops up to that time. It was now after dark, and Smith contented himself with ordering up the two divisions of Hancock's corps to occupy the works which had been captured. This was not accomplished until about eleven o'clock *and the object of the movement had failed.* . . . It was a moonlight night; Kautz and Hinks were quite familiar with the country; . . . a bold dash . . . would undoubtedly have secured the prize, and made a vast difference in the campaign which followed.

The entire statement as to Hancock's command, and its participation in the movement of that day, is wholly

erroneous. The records say that. About four o'clock P. M. of June 15, 1864, under authority from General Grant, I wrote a note to General Hancock, detailing the situation, and suggesting that he should assault with his command in the vicinity of the Norfolk and Petersburg Railroad—that is, on the left of Hinks, who held the left of my infantry line. General Hancock received that despatch at 5:40 P. M., and he states that two of his divisions were massed on the *left and rear* of General Hinks at 6:30 P. M. This was about half an hour before I began the assault, and the locality was precisely the one from which I had suggested that his attack should be made. General Hinks wrote to me afterward that during the progress of his assault he had offered to send a staff-officer to the general of Hancock's leading division to guide his division to the portion of the line on the left which he (Hinks) could not cover in his assault. Of this, however, I at the time knew nothing, as I was engaged in making the assault on the strong bastion in front of Brooks's division. In my note to Hancock I had not asked him to support me directly, but to go in and carry out an attack beyond my reach. I did not see General Hancock until my assault was over, and after I had returned from the front, having while there given Hinks orders to reverse the slopes in the rear of the captured works to put him in a defensible position; and that order was not given until after the reception of official despatches from the signal-stations announcing many reinforcements arriving in Petersburg. The statement that Hancock waived rank is utterly without foundation. That I knew nothing of the arrival of Hancock's troops, and that I did not see him until after nine o'clock, are shown by the fact that at that hour, and after the receipt of despatches announcing the arrival of reinforcements to the enemy, I signalled to Butler: «I must have the Army of the Potomac reinforcements immediately.» I should certainly not have sent such a despatch after I knew that Hancock's troops were at hand, or after my interview with him. The assertion that I gave orders to Hancock's troops is without foundation. The record shows what orders were given, and who gave them; and according to my report made on the 16th of June, Gibbon's division did not relieve my colored troops until midnight. The troops of General Kautz were of no service to me during the assault. (See his report.¹) Hinks and his command did excellent service.

The following statement is also made in the article:

General Smith said that before taking the last works that he had captured, he had heard rumors that the enemy was crossing the James to reinforce Petersburg.

In my note to Hancock I said: «General Lee is reported crossing at Chaffin's Bluff.» There was no rumor about this; it had come from the signal-station at Cobb's Hill, and was a report as to facts. At 6:50 P. M. the following message was sent to me: «A train of fourteen cars loaded with troops just passed toward Petersburg. The enemy also appears to be sending troops on the roads west of Petersburg. Another train of twenty-two cars has just passed toward Petersburg loaded with troops.» On the same page of the War Records are two other signal despatches—one of 7:30 P. M., saying, «A train of thirteen cars has just passed toward Peters-

burg; also a heavy gun by the turnpike»; and one of 8:30 P. M.: «Two trains have passed toward Petersburg. Too dark to see what they were loaded with, or the number of cars.» At 9:30 P. M. I received the following while at the extreme front: «Hancock has been ordered up by General Grant's and my orders. Another army corps will reach you by 10 A. M. to-morrow. It is crossing. *They have not got ten thousand men down yet.* Push on to the Appomattox.» This last was from General Butler. Now, are these rumors, as the author of «Campaigning with Grant» states? As I had not ten thousand men in the morning, and had lost several hundred, I should have been reckless to have plunged into the woods, in an unknown country, at ten o'clock at night, to meet such a force as was reported by Butler and his signal-officers, besides having to attack, before reaching the Appomattox, a town where every house was a fortification, and all this in the middle of the night. In addition to the Confederate reinforcements reported as arriving, the sixteen pieces of artillery which I had captured indicated the presence of a goodly number of men. Farther on the paper says that General Grant

had just reason to feel grievously disappointed over the failure of the admirable plan conceived for the capture of Petersburg. . . . It was no wonder that he felt keen disappointment when Smith's command failed to seize the golden opportunity he had prepared; but brilliant generals, like eminent sculptors, in executing their best conceptions sometimes find that their tools break in their hands.

If Grant had «an admirable plan conceived for the capture of Petersburg,» and had set me as the agent to carry out that plan, he knew on the morning of June 16 whether or no I had «failed to seize the golden opportunity he had prepared.» At 1 P. M. of that day Mr. Dana, Assistant Secretary of War, telegraphed to Secretary Stanton as follows: «I went over the conquered lines with Grant and the engineer officers. The works are of the very strongest kind, more difficult even to take than was Missionary Ridge at Chattanooga.» In a paper written by Colonel Lyman of the staff of General Meade, he (Colonel Lyman) states that General Grant, on leaving the captured works on the 16th, met General Meade, and called out: «Well, Smith has taken a line of works stronger than anything we have seen this campaign. If it is a possible thing, I want an assault made at six o'clock this evening.» (Military Historical Society of Massachusetts.) On the 17th, at 11 A. M., still a day later, Grant telegraphed to Halleck: «The Eighteenth Corps (Smith's) was transported from White House to Bermuda Hundred by water, moved out near to Petersburg the night of its arrival, and surprised, or rather captured, the very strong works northeast of Petersburg before sufficient force could be got in there by the enemy to hold them.» On July 1, 1864, sixteen days after the assault on Petersburg, Grant wrote a long letter to Halleck, saying: «I have feared that it might be necessary to separate him [General Butler] and General Smith. The latter is really one of the most efficient officers in service, readiest in expedients, and most *skillful in the management of troops in action.* I would dislike removing him from his present command unless it was to increase it, but, as I say, may have to do it yet if General Butler remains.» On the 6th of July, at 10 A. M., twenty-one

¹ Vol. XL, Part I, p. 729, Official Records.

days after the assault on Petersburg, Grant telegraphed to Halleck as follows: «Please obtain an order assigning the troops of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina serving in the field to the command of Major-General W. F. Smith, and order Major-General Butler, commanding department, to his headquarters, Fort Monroe.» This request, granted, would have put me in command of the Army of the James. On the 7th of July the order was published in these words: «The troops of the Department of North Carolina and Virginia serving with the Army of the Potomac in the field under Major-General Smith will constitute the Eighteenth Army Corps, and Major-General William F. Smith is assigned to the command of the corps. Major-General B. F. Butler will command the remainder of the troops in that department, having his headquarters at Fort Monroe.» By the telegrams and letters from Grant from the 16th of June to the 7th of July, is it not shown, beyond any doubt whatever, that he was persistent in his efforts to increase my command, and not acting as toward one with reference to whom «displeasure was aroused»? Is there any indication that he thought his tools had broken in his hands? The quotations above made are from Grant's writings in the War Records.

In the May CENTURY the paper «Campaigning with Grant» says that General Grant

was constantly embarrassed by some of his subordinates. General W. F. Smith was engaged in quarrels with his superior officers as well as with his associates. An acrimonious personal warfare was progressing between Butler and him. . . . Grant finally made up his mind that he would either have to relieve General Smith or several prominent commanders, and the result was that Smith was given a leave of absence, and was never recalled.

On June 21 I forwarded to headquarters some correspondence with General Butler, and asked to be relieved from duty in the Department of Virginia and North Carolina, which request was not granted. On July 1 Mr. Dana telegraphed to Secretary Stanton: «Butler is pretty deep in controversial correspondence with Baldy Smith, in which Grant says Butler is clearly in the wrong.» On the same day Grant wrote to Halleck as already quoted, adding a suggestion that Butler be given a command where «there is a dissatisfied element to control.» This suggestion was not deemed practicable, and General Grant on July 6 telegraphed to Washington, asking for

an order putting me in command of the troops then in the field under Butler, and ordering Butler to Fort Monroe, and this order was issued on July 7.

About July 1, I applied for leave of absence on account of my health, which was very much impaired, and received the following letter from General Grant:

CITY POINT, July 2, 1864.

GENERAL W. F. SMITH:

Your application for leave of absence has just come to me. Unless it is absolutely necessary that you should leave at this time, I would much prefer not having you go. It will not be necessary for you to expose yourself in the hot sun, and if it should become necessary, I can temporarily attach Humphreys to your command.
U. S. GRANT.

These extracts and orders show conclusively, from General Grant himself, that up to the publication of the order of the 7th I was not embarrassing General Grant by my quarrels; and as the only contention I had had was with General Butler, not having had even the shadow of a quarrel with any other «superior officer or associate,» I cannot understand how such an error should have crept into such a paper.

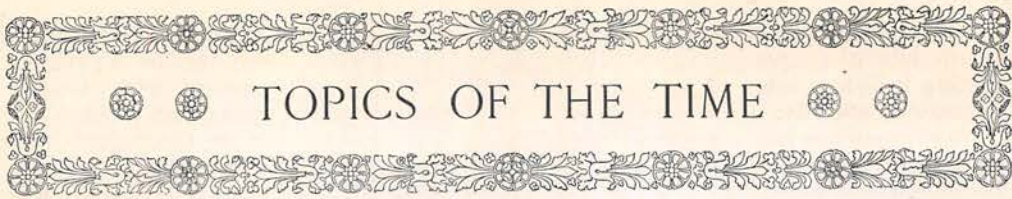
W. F. Smith.

«Scientific Kite-Flying»—An Acknowledgment.

IN the symposium on scientific kite-flying in the MAY CENTURY, in which reference is made to the work at the Blue Hill Observatory, no mention is made of Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch, the director of the observatory. It should be known to your readers that no continuously and graphically recording instruments had ever before been elevated into the air by means of kites until the work was taken up at Blue Hill; that no such records were anywhere else available for scientific study when THE CENTURY articles were written; that the work at Blue Hill is the most thorough exploration of the free air within a mile of the ground ever made in any manner; and that all the deductions concerning the conditions of the air were drawn by the staff of the observatory. Finally, and most important of all, this investigation was carried on, in connection with the other work of the observatory, with the private fortune of Mr. Rotch, for the sole purpose of increasing the world's fund of scientific knowledge.

H. Helm Clayton,
Meteorologist of the Blue Hill Observatory.





TOPICS OF THE TIME

«The Century's» Prizes for College Graduates.

WITH the aim of encouraging literary activity among college graduates, THE CENTURY MAGAZINE offers to give, during four successive years, three prizes of \$250, open to persons who receive the degree of Bachelor of Arts in any college or university in the United States during the commencement seasons of 1897, 1898, 1899, and 1900.

- 1st. For the best metrical writing of not fewer than fifty lines.
- 2d. For the best essay in the field of biography, history, or literary criticism, of not fewer than four thousand or more than eight thousand words.
- 3d. For the best story of not fewer than four thousand or more than eight thousand words.

On or before June 1st of the year succeeding graduation, competitors must submit type-written manuscript to the Editor of THE CENTURY MAGAZINE, marked, outside and inside, «For the College Competition,» signed by a pen-name, and accompanied by the name and address of the author in a separate sealed envelop, which will not be opened until the decision has been made. It is to be understood that the article submitted has not been previously published.

The Editor, at his discretion, may withhold the award in any class in case no manuscript is thought worthy of the prize.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE reserves the right to print the prize manuscripts without further payments, the copyright to revert to the authors three months after the date of publication.¹

THE above offer has been formulated after consultation with some of the leading educators of the United States. In some respects the proposition differs from the usual prize offer. It is meant to cover a wide range of belles-lettres, and to stimulate interest in purely literary production on the part of college graduates. It may be said that «short-story» writing needs no extraordinary stimulus in this country. The «output» is already large, and much of it is of excellent quality. Perhaps in this case the demand has had the usual effect upon the supply. It has, we believe, always been the habit to decry «magazine poetry,» even when a large part of it was written by those who are regarded as our «great poets.» But then and now the poetry of the better American magazines has probably been of finer quality than indiscrimi-

¹ The above was announced in the public press Saturday, July 24, 1897.

nate criticism concedes. The department of our literature perhaps most in need of stimulus is that of the essay. There would seem to be fewer well-equipped and accomplished critics and essayists than our literature needs.

THE CENTURY'S offer naturally brings up consideration of the often-noticed fact that so few of our literary men, since the earlier days, have been college graduates. The writer some years ago made up a list of about forty of the then living prominent American authors. A very small proportion of these were found to be college graduates. The proportion of that class of writers appears to be gradually increasing; but if a list were made of a dozen or fifteen of the men and women now at the head of American literature, the public would be surprised to find that there were so many more A. M.'s, L. H. D.'s, and LL. D.'s than B. A.'s among them.

Doubtless the greater attention given of late in some of the colleges and universities to the study of literature pure and simple, especially to English literature, is partly due to a knowledge of their own disproportionate representation in our modern authorship.

The direct efficacy of institutions, of academies, in the creation of artists in general will always be a matter of dispute, as well as the question of the benefit of the academy to the individual genius. Would Shakspeare and Keats have done better if they had had the advantages of university training? Would Milton have been greater without these advantages? Is Winslow Homer a greater painter because he never studied in Paris, or is he great in spite of having missed the discipline of the Beaux Arts? Doubtless John Keats would have been glad to have had John Milton's «opportunities,» but would he then have enriched the literature of the world with more exquisite odes than those «On a Grecian Urn» and «To a Nightingale»? Questions like these are, and will always remain, very pretty subjects for debate.

Debatable also is the question of the value of prizes in stimulating literary activity of a high order. One of our advisers remarks that such prizes have not worked well among undergraduates in a certain university, as the young men have preferred to put their work on the regular subjects of instruction. But such a result of the prize method among undergraduates does not imply a similar result among graduates, as the conditions are, of course, entirely different. Others of our educational advisers are very hopeful concerning the experiment. At any rate, the experiment appears to be well worth trying, and we trust that substantial good will come of it.

Good Men and Bad City Government.

It is a generally acknowledged fact that in the government of cities America has made its most conspicuous governmental failures. An incident of such failures, and partly accounting for them, is the frequent refusal of the men most active in all good works to participate in what is termed «local politics,»—even in «reform»

politics,—for the reason that such participation would interfere with their usefulness in connection with those religious and philanthropic organizations with which they are identified. The situation is very clearly set forth in an extremely interesting book published not long ago by a young citizen of New York, well known as one of the originators of the City Club, whose study of political conditions has not been the less thorough and fruitful because disinterested and public-spirited. Mr. Edmond Kelly says, in his chapter on «The Church and the State,»¹ that the necessity of holding off from politics on the part of the churches and the lay institutions which are kindred thereto has had a subtle reaction upon all who attend church; «so that abstention from politics has grown to be a sort of virtue, and, indeed, a matter of pride.» Again, church and charitable institutions are brought into contact with municipal office-holders, but generally in the relation of men who have favors to ask. These institutions are often land-owners. «Every owner of land is brought continually into contact with the city authorities in regard to such questions as assessments, improvements, sewers, police protection, and the like.» In cities «where a *per capita* allowance is paid to religious institutions for those whom they support, this relation is intimate, and apt to become collusive. Charitable societies are continually called upon to confer with the heads of public charities, of prisons, of public schools. The necessity for this intercourse occasions a mutual disposition to be on good terms with one another; especially is this the case with those who are in the relation of suppliants for favor. There arises, therefore, amongst church-goers and charitable people a notion that, however evil the city authorities may be, they are to be appeased, not fought, and, in the language of a contributor to the (Charities Review,) that more can be got out of them by coöperation than by resistance.»

Mr. Kelly goes on to say—and he evidently is speaking from close experience—that when a movement is started to reform unendurable abuses, and when appeals are made for assistance, the reformer is amazed at the answers often received.

Clergymen very justly say that they cannot divide their congregations by introducing amongst them the sword of politics. The same answer is made by such bodies as the Young Men's Christian Association, by the managers of workmen's and boys' clubs—in fact, by every religious institution that has a pulpit or educational influence. But this is not all. The habit of tolerating municipal abuses and of conciliating municipal bosses has created a temperament which is perhaps a still more redoubtable enemy to good government than the enforced neutrality of religious bodies; for it is temperament that determines conduct, and it is from the conduct of her citizens that a city benefits or suffers. Now if the temperament of the best of her citizens is one of submission to municipal misgovernment and of aloofness from all matters political, then the salt has lost its saltiness, and we may well ask, Wherewith shall it be salted?

Some good men beg off because they are devoting all their energies to the correction of some social evil in the community, and they do not wish to diminish their influence by political complications. «And so we are like a well-intentioned but insubordinate crew on an

unseaworthy ship. Each one of us has attached himself to a particular leak, and will not hear of giving heed to any other matter, however much greater may be its importance to the safety of the ship.» While one is sponging away a few drops near at hand, tons of water are pouring into a gaping hole.

Especially in our cities, the elections, except under exceptional conditions, carry out the will, not of the people, but of a few corrupt political leaders, and it is only rarely, fitfully, and under extraordinary circumstances that the real popular will is expressed. It is also clear that this is due to the fact that the citizen has abdicated in favor of political machines; and that in so doing he has been guilty of a political crime; and that if he performed his clear political duty,—that is to say, if he took the necessary steps to see that the proper candidates were nominated, and gave as much time to secure such nominations at periods of small excitement as he does at periods of great excitement,—it would be perfectly possible—nay, easy—for him to have his way year in and year out. In other words, the citizen only attends to his political duties when driven to it by impulse and temper; he never performs them for the same reason that he does his domestic duties—because they *are* duties, and he feels under a moral obligation to do so. It is believed that if the citizen knew what vital interests depended upon the yearly elections; if he were alive to the uselessness of devoting his time to charitable and philanthropic societies so long as the administration of our public charities, of our public schools, and of our public prisons was in the hands of ignorant and self-seeking politicians; if he appreciated that it was idle to spend his money on private charities so long as the money of the city was being squandered in manufacturing the very paupers and criminals which it was his aim to succeed; if, in a word, he understood that his well-intentioned efforts have only for effect to trim the luxuriance of vice, and by trimming to promote its growth, it is believed that the energy, wealth, and disinterestedness that now dissipate themselves in infructuous if not in absolutely injurious effect would, by concentration in better-directed channels, purge the State of politicians, relieve the laboring classes of the incubus of pauperism, and largely diminish the effect of crime.

The author's contention is that virtually every great problem which now faces humanity is a political one. «The problem of pauperism and socialism, of education and crime, can only be handled by the State.» He holds that in a broad sense political duties have a religious character, and that although the church may not be an instrument through which the work can be effected, «it is through religion only that the work of regeneration can effectually be accomplished.» By religion the author is far from meaning ecclesiasticism; he defines the religious spirit philosophically as «the desire and resolution to fight animal instinct in so far as it clashes against spiritual instincts essential to social life.»

Mr. Kelly's practical suggestion is that what the churches, as such, cannot do, good men in the church can do. He thinks that «the spirit of enthusiasm which has heretofore been employed in organizing private charities should now be employed in organizing effort to achieve more fruitful results through the more powerful operation of public office.» He is aware of the necessity of avoiding any sectarian bias, but he thinks that the clergymen could do a great deal of a practical character in such movements, which should be thoroughly non-partizan.

Mr. Kelly's timely work unites general philosophical discussion with statements and suggestions of immediate and pressing application. Some of his readers may

¹ «Evolution and Effort and their Relation to Religion and Politics.» D. Appleton and Company.

not follow with approval either all his philosophical leadings or all the details of his practical program; but probably most of those who read his argument will acknowledge to a new and vivid sense of the evils which need to be corrected in American municipal government, and will agree with the author that a great amount of ethical effort is being diverted from its proper channel in the refusal of so many men of virtue to make their influence felt for good government. Under the system of universal suffrage such diversion is little less than a crime against the state.

There are so-called «good men,» leading church mem-

bers, active in American municipal politics, who merely illustrate how much harm can be done by the possessors of a dual conscience—one for the Lord's day, and one for election day; and there are «political parsons» who are a public nuisance. But there are a great many churchmen who are «good» even in the trying field of public duty, and there are clergymen whose good sense makes their participation in civic affairs never other than proper and useful. But good citizenship needs to be reinforced more largely with these elements, for the fight is on for good city government in all parts of the country.



OPEN LETTERS

Glave's Last Letter and his Death.

NOTE BY THE EDITOR.

THE conclusion, in the present number, of the material from the diary of the African explorer Glave adds interest to the private letters which follow, and which form an interesting postscript to this important series. It will be remembered that Mr. Glave died just at the conclusion of his expedition, May 12, 1895, at Matadi, near the mouth of the Congo.

Shortly after his arrival at Matadi, he wrote a letter to the President of The Century Co., dated April 25, 1895, in part as follows:

« . . . The administration of the Belgians is decidedly progressive. Five large, comfortable boats have replaced the tiny A. I. A. *Royale* and *En Avant* on the upper river; a reliable postal service has been established to the very limits of the state territories; the Arab slavers have been crushed beyond ever again being a menace to the state's authority; and the Congo Railway, already running over a well-laid track for sixty miles, promises completion in three years' time, provided sufficient funds are found. This line will of course supersede the miserable depopulating system of manual transport by the native porters (the Bakongo), and will, when finished between Matadi and Stanley Pool, bring the heart of Africa within easy reach of the markets of the world by steam communication. The state intends also to carry a telegraph line from the coast to Tanganyika, and operations are already begun.

« Coffee of a superior quality has been found to grow out here in nearly every district, with most promising results; and, to my mind, coffee and rubber will constitute the main articles of profitable export. Ivory is getting constantly scarcer, and in a few years' time trade in elephant-tusks will have yielded up its important position in the list of African products. All the Belgians on the Congo are elated at the prospect of the Congo Free State being taken over by Belgium and made into a (colony); but this country cannot become a colony in the true sense of the word. Its unhealthy

climate forbids this. Not only have dangerous fevers to be fought, but the climate reduces one's vigor and strength, and one's blood becomes watery and poor. It appears to me that even if colonists decide to face these dangerous conditions, the next generation will bear the brunt of the experiment. I have frequently seen children who have been born out on the Congo, and they are always bloodless-looking little creatures, and at the first opportunity they are sent home for safety. The fact of being born out here does not exempt them from fevers. Recently I saw a little girl ten months old who had already had several fevers.

« With regard to African sicknesses, experience and experiment are constantly furnishing knowledge concerning the remedies and treatment to be employed. Billious, hematuric, or black-water fever is the principal menace to life, and often proves suddenly fatal; in spite of the ablest doctoring, a patient sometimes dies after two days' illness. On the other hand, certain constitutions resist these fevers in a remarkable way. Dr. Sims, of the American Union Missionary Society, who has been eight years at Leopoldville without going to a temperate climate, remains in good health in spite of having had, besides small fevers, twelve hematuric or black-water attacks! . . .

« The occupation of the territories of the Congo Free State by the Belgians is an enormous expense, and the administration is making most frantic efforts to obtain a revenue of a size sufficient to enable it to pay its way. In the fighting consequent upon this policy, owing to the inability or disinclination of natives to bring in rubber, slaves are taken—men, women, and children, called in state documents *libérés!* These slaves, or prisoners, are most of them sent down-stream, first to Leopoldville. There the children are handed over to a Jesuit mission to be schooled and to receive military training from a state officer established at the mission for that purpose. In two years this Catholic mission has buried three hundred of these poor, unfortunate little children, victims of the inhuman policy of the Congo Free State! In one month seventy-three new graves were made! On the *Ville de*

Bruxelles, the big state boat upon which I descended the Congo, we took on board at the equator one hundred and two little homeless, motherless, fatherless children, varying from four years to seven or eight, among them a few little girls. Many of them had frightful ulcers which showed no sign of having been attended to, although there was a state doctor at the equator station. Some few had a tiny strip of cloth, two or three inches wide, tucked in a string around the waist to hide their nakedness, but half of them were perfectly naked. As they were huddled together on the lower deck of the boat on the damp, chill mornings, shivering with cold, death was marking many more for hasty baptism and a grave at the Jesuit mission near Leopoldville. By the time we reached Kinsassa, Stanley Pool, there was a great deal of sickness among the children, principally fevers and coughs; many were hopelessly ill. If the Arabs had been the masters, it would be styled iniquitous trafficking in human flesh and blood; but being under the administration of the Congo Free State, it is merely a part of their *philanthropic* system of *liberating* the natives! The whole world seems to think that the Congo Free State is a civilizing influence, and that philanthropy and love of justice are prompting every effort of the administration. . . . It is his [the King of Belgium's] duty to learn the true state of things in the dominion of which he is sovereign. . . . I feel myself considerably run down by my residence in Africa; my physical strength does not diminish, but I am anemic, liverish, and mentally sluggish. . . .

«At this moment there are no startling movements on the Congo, and were it not for the forced commerce peace would reign everywhere. In the Stanley Falls regions Commandant Lothaire has a big expedition composed of twelve whites, three hundred regular soldiers, and a host of irregulars. He has gone northeast from the falls to Lake Albert Nyanza, with the idea of establishing the state's authority in these regions, and intends placing small garrisons along his route to establish communication through the land. One of the objects of this expedition—one might safely say the main one—is the collection of ivory, said to be in vast quantities in the native villages. Captain Franqui is on the Upper Onellé; and according to what news leaks out from the official bureau, the state has had serious fighting, and Franqui is in urgent need of assistance. . . .»

On April 11 the Rev. Lawson Forfeitt, of the Baptist mission at Underhill, near Matadi, addressed Mr. Glave, who was on his way down the river, in the following kindly spirit: «Your message arrived yesterday with a letter for Mr. Casement, who was here last month. . . . Thinking it possible you might be sick on the road, and in need of help, I opened your letter. I trust you will pardon the liberty. . . . My wife and I hope you will give us the pleasure of your company while you are in the neighborhood.»

On May 20, 1895, Mr. Forfeitt described the visit and death of Mr. Glave in the following letter to the President of the Century Co.

«The sad news of the death of Mr. E. J. Glave will have reached you ere this letter arrives. Mr. W. Clayton Pickersgill, C. B., British consul, landed here from the coast an hour after Mr. Glave died; and as he left two days later for Europe, he kindly undertook to write

you and the relatives in England while on the voyage. Just before the end came, Mr. Glave requested me to take charge of all his effects, and deal with them as per inclosed memorandum. In going through his correspondence I found letters from you, the tone of which showed me that you regarded Mr. Glave not simply from the point of view of professional association, but that you entertained for him feelings of real personal friendship and esteem.

«I feel, therefore, that you will wish to know something more than the *fact* of the death, and that any further details I can give will be received with sorrowful satisfaction by you and Mr. Glave's many friends in America.

«I believe Mr. Glave wrote to you by the mail which left here on April 27, so that you would hear of his safe arrival at this point, the port of departure for Europe, he having successfully accomplished the great feat of crossing the continent.

«I had not met Mr. Glave before, but of course his name as that of an old African was well known to me. I need not say that my wife and I looked forward to his arrival with much pleasure, and we greatly enjoyed his company during the two or three weeks he stayed here as our guest. We are happy to believe he also enjoyed the time spent here, for in a letter to my brother at Upoto, Upper Congo, one thousand miles from here, he wrote on May 10, only two days before his death, as follows:

«(I do not at all regret the delays, for the missions down here have extended to me the greatest kindness. To your brother and Mrs. Forfeitt I am deeply indebted for their untiring consideration and whole-souled hospitality. I have spent about two weeks with them, and felt from the first moment thoroughly at home. It is indeed a great privilege to enjoy such sterling friendship.)

«I trust you will not misunderstand my motive in venturing to quote Mr. Glave's kind words. My sole object is to enable you as far as possible to gather how he spent the last two or three weeks of his life, in agreeable association and fellowship with his own countrymen, and not away alone in the bush. This fact, I think, will give some comfort to his friends at home.

«While here Mr. Glave made excursions of two or three days each on the Congo Railway (in course of construction), and to Yellala Falls, the last of the cataracts. He took several photographs of the latter to include in THE CENTURY articles.

«On the 3d of May Mr. Glave had a small fever here, which was soon overcome; and for the most part, until the fatal attack of the 11th and 12th, he was in good health and spirits, and looking forward with great delight to meeting his friends in Europe and America once more. He had already taken a cabin on the steamship *Coomassie*, and all his luggage was on board. Indeed, he spent one night on the steamer, as an attack of fever came on suddenly when he was there on the 9th. I visited him early next morning, and found him dressed and apparently all right again. Finding the steamer's sailing was delayed two or three days, Mr. Glave preferred to return to Underhill in our boat with me, so as to be away from the noise and bustle on the vessel.

«That day, Friday, the 10th inst., was spent quietly

at this station. When he went to bed, we advised him to take breakfast before rising next morning. I went to his room in the morning, and placed my hand on his forehead to see if he had any return of the fever. Noticing this, he said, (Oh, I have no fever.) I thought he had, so fetched a thermometer, which registered his temperature at 102.2°. Of course we kept him in bed and applied the usual remedies and treatment. The temperature rose steadily, and continued high all day, but he was cheerful and took nourishment well, and also quinine, etc.

«I decided to sit up that night. At 11:30 P. M. our patient slept, and did not wake till 3:30 A. M. His temperature had come down well. I gave him (Brand's Essence,) and he went to sleep again until 6 A. M., by which hour the temperature was almost normal. Symptoms continued very favorable until after midday on Sunday, the 12th. At 2 P. M. the temperature went up a little, but it was not until four o'clock that it exceeded the previous day's record. We did all we possibly could to induce perspiration, but with little result. At five o'clock we felt the case to be very serious; and Mr. Glave himself evidently felt the same, for he turned to me and said: (If I die, Mr. Forfeitt, I want you to send all my papers and photographs to The Century Co., and all my other things to my brother, George Glave, 14 Paternoster Square, London, who is to sell all for the benefit of my mother.)

«Soon after this he became for the first time delirious and violent. We tried a cold bath to reduce the temperature; but all was unavailing, and at 6:15 P. M., after a short time of quiet, though still unconscious, our friend died.

«I cannot tell you how great a shock it has been to me and my wife, and to my colleague, Mr. Pinnock, who had shared the nursing. Our own sorrow is great, and we desire to assure you, and all the relatives and friends, of our heartfelt sympathy; and we earnestly pray that God may graciously comfort all who have been so sorely bereaved by this sad event. I have seen many fevers out here, and not a few fatal cases, but never one exactly like this in its course and sudden termination.

«On Monday morning, at nine o'clock, we buried Mr. Glave's remains in the graveyard of this mission, the funeral being attended by all our European neighbors who could possibly be present. I inclose several letters from some who could not attend, thinking you may like to see them.»

Edward James Glave would have been thirty-three years old on the following September 13. In THE CENTURY for October, 1895, was printed an account of «Glave's Career,» including his explorations in Africa and Alaska.

Editor of The Century.

Public-School Lectures in New York.

A SUGGESTION TO OTHER CITIES.

THE courses of free lectures for the people given under the auspices of the Board of Education in New York have met with such success that perhaps a few words concerning the system and its results may be of value to other cities. In 1888 the State legislature passed an act authorizing the Board of Education of New York City to provide for a course of free lectures for working-

men and workingwomen, to be given in the school-houses of the city. Fifteen thousand dollars were appropriated to carry out the plan. The Board of Education placed the matter in the hands of the Committee on Evening Schools, and during the first lecture season, which lasted from January to April, 1889, 186 lectures were given in six school-houses in the most densely populated centers of the city, the total attendance being 22,149, or an average of 119 persons at each lecture. During the next season 329 lectures were given between October and April, at seven centers, the total attendance being 26,632, or an average of 81 at each lecture. Comparing this number with that of the previous year, the committee began to doubt either the popularity of this form of instruction or the wisdom of the management. It was resolved to place the care of the free lectures under one responsible head, and Dr. Henry M. Leipziger, well known as an educator, was chosen to direct the work. His reforms in the free-lecture system were: first, the issuing of ten thousand pocket bulletins from each center, containing the list of lecturers and a brief statement explanatory of each lecture; second, large placards in the windows of neighboring stores and in shops and factories, giving the lecturers' names and subjects: Changes were made in the corps of lecturers, and liberal use of the stereopticon was decided upon. Technical scientific lectures were made plain by experiments. The attendance at the 185 lectures given the next season was 78,295, an average of 423 at each lecture. Some of the practical subjects treated that season were «Every-day Accidents, and How to Meet Them,» «How to Breathe,» «How to Take Care of the Eyes and Ears,» «Light and Color,» «Practical Electricity,» «How Worlds are Made,» «The Cañons of the Colorado,» «Abraham Lincoln,» «Money, and How to Make It,» «Survey of Architecture,» etc. While these lectures were not given in courses, a correlation was maintained between many of the subjects, so that a current of interest was supported throughout. The most instructive lectures were the ones most keenly enjoyed, and the attendance was so large at many of the school-houses that it was difficult to accommodate the people. A bill was passed by the next legislature empowering the Board of Education to rent halls if necessary; and Cooper Union Hall, the American Museum of Natural History, and the Hebrew Institute were brought into use. One of the problems confronting the managers was how to secure the services of able lecturers for the small sum of ten dollars; but it was soon discovered that many men of excellent talent were willing to lend a helping hand even for so small a fee.

The attendance during the fourth season was 122,243. The next year the lectures were made more varied, and 130,830 people heard 310 lectures. The sixth season, 170,368 people attended 383 lectures; and the seventh season there were 224,118 people present at 502 lectures. In 1895-96 this number was increased to 392,733 and 1040 lectures, of which 795 were illustrated with stereopticon views, and 73 by experiments. They were held at thirty different centers, and the attendance on the last night was 9289. During the past season, closing April 1, 1897, 426,357 persons heard 1066 lectures.

A strong evidence of the popular favor is the universal good order and eager attention characteristic of the

audiences in every part of the city. Besides the local superintendent of the lecture center, policemen, private detectives, and others are always on duty, though their services are seldom required. Having delivered lectures during the last season at twenty of the centers, including every grade of audience, from the Battery to Bedford Park, on both sides of the city, the attendance ranging in number from 250 to 2200, I can bear personal testimony to the delightful sympathy, the whole-souled responsiveness, and the perfect decorum of the people. The work has grown until it has become the largest free-lecture course in the world—a people's university, without a building of its own or a faculty, but inspired and carried out by the masses it is helping to educate and humanize.

New York is peculiarly fortunate in having so much available lecture talent at hand; but similar results can be obtained, with patience and persistence, by the school boards of many others of the larger towns and cities, especially in university towns where lecturers are plentiful. Ministers, lawyers, doctors, teachers, and other well-informed people could be called upon, and lectures on citizenship, literature, travel, business, natural history, laws of health, and questions of the day could be intelligently treated in hundreds of cities. This truly noble and far-reaching system of culture might be employed to the physical, intellectual, and moral elevation of many other communities of the American commonwealth. Doubtless Dr. Leipziger, under whose skilful management the system has been developed in New York, would send helpful material to any who cared to address him at his office in the Board of Education building, 146 Grand street, New York.

NEW YORK.

S. T. Willis.

«The Century's» American Artists Series.

IRVING RAMSAY WILES.

IRVING RAMSAY WILES is best known for his excellent compositions in black and white, many of which have

appeared in *THE CENTURY*; but as a painter he is equally worthy. The quality of the work, both in oil and water-colors, which he shows from time to time at the exhibitions is so much above the average as to cause his painter friends to wish that the demands of the publishers upon his time were less exigent.

The leading characteristics of Mr. Wiles's painting and designing are refinement and good taste, a color-sense in the main attractive, good drawing, and a «touchy» handling that is not too loose. These qualities eminently fit him for portrait-painting, in which he has been successful, and in which those interested in his career hope to see him obtain a wider field.

Mr. Wiles, who is only thirty-six, has had a uniformly progressive career. Born in Utica, New York, he first studied with his father, L. M. Wiles, himself a good painter; later, at the Art Students' League, under Carroll Beckwith and William M. Chase. In 1882 he went abroad, and entered L'Académie Julien, where he had the advantage of the criticism of Le Febvre and that wonderful teacher, the late G. R. C. Boulanger. Mr. Wiles was also the pupil of Carolus Duran.

Upon his return to America in 1884, he at once came to the front as an illustrator. In 1886 he received the third Hallgarten prize, National Academy of Design, for the painting «The Corner-table»; 1889, the T. B. Clarke prize, National Academy of Design, for the picture we print as a frontispiece, «The Sonata»; 1897, the W. G. Evans prize, Water Color Society; 1889, honorable mention, Paris Exposition; 1893, medal, World's Columbian Exhibition; 1897, medal for portraiture, Tennessee Centennial.

Mr. Wiles is an associate of the National Academy of Design, a member of the Society of American Artists, the Water Color Club, and the Society of Painters in Pastel.

His principal portraits are of Dr. Edward Eggleston, Mr. Richard H. Halsted, General Martindale, and Mrs. Hugh J. Grant.

W. Lewis Fraser.



IN LIGHTER VEIN

Irish Love Song.

YOU darling, you white one, you sigh of fresh air,
With stars for your bright eyes, and wind for your hair,
And snow on your bosom,—'t is inside it too,—
You 'll kill me wid grievin', faith, that's what you 'll do!

There's sun in your kisses, there's frost in your frown,
An' there's light in your smile to light valley and town;
Yet I, in the dark, must go pokin' around;
'T would be well for my peace I was undher the ground!

Did Nature grow stingy, imposin' a dearth,
Faith, you as one blossom would save a bleak earth;
And were I the wild wind, I'd roam in forego
To hang tenderly over the spot where you'd grow.

Oh, Molly avourneen, I'm wastin' apace;
And the last thing on earth that needs spoilin' 's my face.
Faith, the dogs in the village run howlin' wid fright
At the sight of me walkin' abroad in the night.

But I 'll own you, my dewdrop, my flush of young dawn;
Though the chase be a long one, I 'll thrain wid the fawn;
And I 'll have you and hold you, your heart to my heart,
Till no wiles of this world can put us apart.

Oh, I 'll cherish and tend you and feast you on love,
Till the angels, in envy, look down from above;
And the grave earth itself 'll be one glowing smile
That 'll start 'neath your footsteps and spread mile by
mile!

Thomas D. Bolger.

TOPICS OF THE TIME

Heroes of Peace.

THE virtue of military courage, and the part of that virtue in making and preserving nations, are never likely to be underrated. As Professor William James said in his recent address, quoted in the August CENTURY: «Man is once for all a fighting animal; centuries of peaceful history could not breed the battle instinct out of us; and military virtue is the kind of virtue least in need of reinforcement by reflection, least in need of orator's or poet's help.» Military courage, indeed, seems to be latent in the mass of mankind—so much so that, put to the test, its absence is exceptional and surprising. Nobody likes to be shot at, but few men will refuse to go into battle. There were panics in our Civil War; these are psychological phenomena by no means implying genuine cowardice; but in the whole war, and on both sides of it, how many genuine cowards were brought to light? The moral bravery we call «civic courage» is indeed a rarer virtue than the courage military among the citizens of the Republic.

But without, at the moment, dwelling upon the kind of patriotism which is sometimes displayed, and is so greatly needed, in times of peace, we wish to call attention to the series, now being published in THE CENTURY, on those «Heroes of Peace» who have done valiant deeds, not for their country, but for their fellow-men; who have been physically and morally brave in the emergencies of hazardous occupations, or in those of more commonplace and every-day life. None of the readers of this magazine can accuse it of having neglected to glorify the courage of the battle-field. Aside from those periodicals altogether devoted to military and naval matters, THE CENTURY would probably be called, on its record, the «fightingest» magazine of modern times, with its «war series» and lives of great soldiers, sailors, and war-time statesmen. In the language of the Southern orator, we and our readers have «fought, fit, died, and bled, no end» together this many a long year—and we still seem to see some fighting ahead! Perhaps a magazine with such a war record owes it to the fitness of things to make an equally powerful peace record. Not that the arts of peace have been neglected, but that the «Heroes of Peace» deserve from such a source particular and conspicuous attention.

It will be remembered that the first article of the series was Mr. Gustav Kobbé's «Heroism in the Light-house Service,» published in THE CENTURY for June, 1897. The second, on heroism in the police service,—that metropolitan police service of which Mr. Roosevelt, the author of the article, was lately the official head,—appears in this number. It is a study of the subject from the point of view of an expert; and it has a secondary, but most timely, interest in its bearing upon civic government—in fact, upon the pending campaign in the greater city of New York; for it shows the tremendous necessity of the government, not only of the police force, but, by implication, of every muni-

cipal department, without interference from national political organizations, especially from such organizations as are given over to selfishness and spoils. Mr. Roosevelt's story of the attack of the spoilsmen upon the board, because it insisted upon promoting fit men and heroes instead of the favorites of bosses, ought to make the blood of every honest citizen of New York boil, and boil to some purpose in this very campaign.

What Mr. Roosevelt says incidentally about the courageous lives of «engineers, firemen, brakemen, and train-hands generally» reminds us that an article from the most authentic sources will be here published on this very subject. Another, on the heroes of the Fire Department, will be from the pen of Mr. Jacob A. Riis. Other «Heroes of Peace» will have their place in the series, which promises to be as curious as it will be exemplary. The only difficulty in the way is the great embarrassment of riches in any such undertaking, as one may prove by the merest glance at the newspapers of almost any day of the year.

Leaders of American Thought.

It is sometimes remarked as a misfortune of the American political system that the method of choosing legislators directly from the district to be represented, added to the habit of making frequent changes in the representation, tends to drive many men out of public life who are natural leaders. This, it is maintained, somewhat lowers the standard of our representative bodies, and deprives the country of the benefits which it would derive from a larger number of well-known and highly trained public servants. It can be shown, even, that while conspicuous success in Parliament means an uninterrupted career, a similar success in Congress may be the very thing that will stand in the way of the return of the congressman to the next Congress. For instance, if a congressman becomes a leader of his party, and actually carries through some party measure, the opposite party may think it worth while to concentrate its campaign work in his particular district, in order to discredit the cause by the personal defeat of its champion. Something like this has happened in at least two conspicuous instances in recent years, and to leaders of first one and then the other party in the House of Representatives.

Without stopping to discuss this subject further, or to quote the opinions for and against the American system, we only wish to note that, however frequent may be the changes among the official representatives of political policies and public opinion, America possesses a permanent group of representatives and leaders who are without any political position whatever. Our public thought is, to a certain extent, swayed by men of national reputation who are not in office; who, in some cases, have never held office, either representative or executive. This country has indeed a noble body of intellectual leaders—in numbers all too small, to be sure, but men honored everywhere for ability, character,

public spirit, and that unselfishness, that disinterestedness, which in a democracy like ours is a source of almost unlimited power.

We are moved to these reflections by the reading of two books of essays which have just come to our desk, one by the bishop of a metropolitan diocese, the other by the president of a great university.¹ Even more than by the intellectual and literary force of any one chapter of these works are we impressed by the ideality, the instinct for noble things, the passion for the nation, that permeate the whole of each of these high-thoughted volumes. The word patriot is in danger of degradation from the often confounding of the disgusting imitation with the sacred reality; but here speaks that sort of patriotism which is the continual salvation of the Republic; that noble pride in country which will have the country pure; that love of country which is in truth the love and service of humanity—which has in it a kind of worship surely acceptable to him who is the God of nations.

So long as the Republic nurtures and listens to such leaders of thought as these, no patriot can despair. The reign of corrupt bosses exists largely because of our absorption in the opportunities of freedom. It takes some imagination—some *attention*, at least—to realize the demoralizing empire of professional spoilsmen, when, after all, one finds himself comfortable in his home and business. But our true leaders—men like Lowell, Curtis, Schurz, Potter, and Eliot—are the creators of that nobler public opinion which finally reacts upon the entire machinery of government and the entire life of the community, to their gradual cleansing and bettering.

Fortunate in Enemies and in Friends.

WE heard an interesting conversation, the other day, on the value of enemies. One of the speakers maintained—and who shall deny it?—that enemies discover and correct weaknesses, create definite policies, stir up friends, and excite energies that lead to victory. Enemies are as useful for causes as for individuals.

The last observation is appropriate to the obvious good turns that the enemies of civil-service reform are always doing that beneficent and triumphant cause. The recent activity of the enemies of the reform at Washington seems to have had much to do with the victory the reform has just enjoyed there. The congressional inquiry has developed unimpeachable testimony as to the practical superiority of the merit over the spoils system; and the threatenings with which the air was at one time filled were the means of showing the new administration (if it needed any such demonstration) how deeply the reform is based in the common sense and conscience of the American people. And now a most valuable object-lesson is being prepared, in the interests of the reform, by the formation, on the part of certain hungry patriots, of an Anti-Civil-Service League.

But the merit system has also been fortunate in its friends. President McKinley, by the widely extended guards he has put up against unjust removals, has again

proved himself one of the chief friends of the reform. The new rule requires that no removal shall be made from a position subject to competitive examination, except for just cause and upon written charges, of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defense. A similar rule, applying to clerks and carriers in the post-office department, was put in operation three years ago under Postmaster-General Bissell and President Cleveland. It has worked well there, and the principle is now made to apply to the entire competitive civil service.

President McKinley's action is all the more creditable as it is taken in the face of clamorous attacks upon the entire merit system by unwise members of his own party. The President is helping powerfully to fulfil his own prophecy, contained in his declaration, made years ago on the floor of Congress, that civil-service reform «has come to stay.»

Beauty as a Principle.

NOTHING is more common than to find among otherwise well-educated people an incomplete development of the sense of beauty. There are people in whom the love of any art—music, or painting, or poetry—seems to be developed at the expense of the other arts, if not to their exclusion. The indifference of certain painters to music, or of certain musicians to pictures, may be accounted for on the theory that the sense of beauty is innate,—«born, not made,»—or that it is atrophied on one side by reason of excessive growth on another. But besides this lack of a nice and comprehensive esthetic sense among those of one's general acquaintance, one sometimes meets an artist who exhibits not only indifference to beauty of all sorts except the sort which he pursues, but an actual contempt for it. We have known admirable painters—who might better have been lamenting their lack of appreciation of the «faculty divine»—to waive aside the work of the great poets, as though they were deceivers or deceived, instead of new eyes with which to look at nature and truth. It has been said that «no one who has acquired an art in his youth can be wholly unhappy»; but it is certain that this acquisition may be obtained at the expense of a greater happiness, and even to the detriment of a larger sense of beauty. This broader sympathy is quite as likely to be found in those who merely enjoy beauty as in those who create it. The narrowness of musicians is proverbial, due, perhaps, to the necessity of specialization on the executive side; but in composition their feeling touches a more extensive range of human emotions. The influence of nature-study and of travel upon our people has been great, and yet one is often shocked by the failure to respond to natural beauty on the part of those who have chosen some form of art as a career, or who at least are part of the artistic world. It is not by the segregation, but by the unity and interplay, of the arts that the highest results are obtained, as in the Renaissance, when they went hand in hand in an activity the like of which has not since been seen. For one's own advantage, and for the advancement of the world, it is well to cultivate hospitality toward all forms of art, remembering that

God fulfils himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world.

¹ «The Scholar and the State, and other Orations and Addresses,» by Bishop H. C. Potter. «American Contributions to Civilization,» by President Charles W. Eliot. (THE CENTURY CO.)



OPEN LETTERS

How Boston has Systematized its Parks.

A LESSON FOR ALL AMERICAN CITIES.

IN answer to the editorial request to describe the Boston park system, I would say that it deserves careful consideration, on the part of all friends of municipal progress, as an exceptionally felicitous example of wise and artistic planning with reference to all the various recreative and sanitary needs that open spaces of a public character can be made to serve. It is notable that Boston was the last of the older great cities of the United States to become alive to the necessity of public parks, in the modern sense of the term, in the equipment of a progressive municipality. The reason for this lay in the park-like beauty of its suburbs, with woods and fields easily accessible to the population, and in the existence of the large, old-fashioned Common, and the more recent Public Garden, in the very heart of the town. But with the expansion of the city, and the consequent gradual disappearance of rural charms, the necessity for the preservation of areas of open space within convenient reach became apparent. It was twenty-two years ago that a special park act was accepted by the citizens, and it is about eighteen years since the work of construction was begun. Up to the present time something over twelve million dollars have been expended upon land and construction.

The regret has frequently been expressed in many quarters that the work could not have been undertaken years before, in view of the many lost charms of the surrounding landscape that might thus have been preserved. But, on the other hand, it is felt that it is better, after all, that the delay should have occurred, on account of the more artistic methods that have been developed, the growth in public appreciation of such methods, and the consequent disposition and ability to do things in a larger, more intelligent, and consistent way.

If a large city were to be planned for location upon a beautiful and virgin site, with our present knowledge it would be a comparatively easy task to adapt it to the conditions of the place with regard to all the requirements of use and beauty, and there would be an unspeakable advantage in the utilization of the natural landscape opportunities of the region. A city of ideal beauty might thus be created, and the work would be possible of accomplishment with remarkable economy of resource. While such an opportunity would be a piece of rare good fortune, it is worth remembering that in the assured expansion of many small towns of to-day into large and important centers there exist, in large measure, opportunities not dissimilar in character, and that the problem of the growth of our great cities also includes similar conditions. Intelligent growth, instead of the haphazard expansion of former periods, should be the aim in the municipal activities of the present age. Modern science has placed in our hands the means essential to such growth, together with a knowledge of what the circumstances demand. Of cardinal impor-

tance are the adaptation of every scheme for municipal development to topographical requirements, and a wisely considered use of the natural features of a site in determining the permanent character of landscape surroundings.

This principle has to an unprecedented degree governed the designing of the Boston park system. While that system has by no means been planned as a whole, these ideas have been followed as its development has gradually progressed from comparatively small beginnings. It would be instructive to trace the various steps in this development; but present limitations forbid, and it can now only be said that the system comprises a series of public open spaces, each related to and complementing the others, each possessing a marked individuality in landscape character and in the part which it plays in the general scheme of public recreation in the open air.

Boston is fortunately situated in regard to these ends: a maritime city lying upon an island-studded bay, with estuaries penetrating a strikingly diversified landscape; a region not modeled upon a grand scale, such as distinguishes the country about New York, but with a broad and liberal graciousness in the charmingly picturesque commingling of hills and valleys, woodlands and marsh levels, with many ponds and various clear streams, and margined by the sea in an irregular coast-line of bluffs and rocky headlands alternating with shining beaches—the whole country toned and softened by nearly three centuries of human occupancy. Much of this has been ruthlessly mutilated, and conspicuous areas are hopeless wrecks of former beauty. But much yet remains unspoiled, and the city, with such landscapes lying upon nearly every side, has been enabled to take good advantage of its natural endowment.

Boston had the good fortune to obtain the services of Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted at the outset, and the entire park system has been designed by that great artist and the firm of landscape architects at whose head he stands, and has been carried out under their immediate supervision. The Park Department is governed by a commission of three members, prominent citizens appointed by the mayor, who consider it an honor to serve the community without pay. They have had the good sense to follow the advice of the experts in charge of their work in practically all matters of design, construction, and administration. The department has been singularly free from political interference. The attitude of the commission in this respect has not infrequently aroused most vindictive resentment on the part of the mercenary element in city politics, but the civil-service law has been a strong bulwark against such aggressions. These conditions have given the Boston parks a noble artistic unity, which underlies and assures the widest popular utility in providing the various forms of recreation which public open spaces of different kinds can be made to serve.

The central feature of the Boston system is the great park of the city, Franklin Park, which corresponds in its general character to Central Park in New York and Prospect Park in Brooklyn, but more nearly resembles the latter in the simple breadth and unity of its scenery. Vistas of a noble range of hills bring several miles of country-side within the park so far as landscape effect is considered. A line of parkway, unique in character, connects Franklin Park and a chain of other pleasure-grounds with the heart of the city by an irregular route of something like seven miles, with drives, rides, walks, and a long reach of waterways. First in order comes the Arnold Arboretum,—the beautiful great «tree museum» so well described by Mrs. Robbins in *THE CENTURY* for April, 1893,—a tract of hill and dale where every variety of tree and shrub which can be made to grow in the Boston climate flourishes under the most favorable conditions in a way that combines delightfully the highest demands of botanical science with popular instruction and recreation. This has been done under the cooperation of Harvard University with the city of Boston.

A half-mile farther on is Jamaica Park—a fresh-water pleasure-ground, with most of its area occupied by the beautiful Jamaica Pond. The land acreage is just sufficient to assure an attractive margin of pleasant shores. At this park aquatic recreation is the main feature, with excellent opportunities for skating in winter.

Leverett Park is a continuation of Jamaica Park, with a striking diversity of scenery in groves and tree-clumps, grassy slopes, small ponds, brooks, and cascades, and provision for the establishment of a zoölogical collection of fresh-water aquatic life in and about a series of shallow pools.

Leverett Park continues the parkway along the valley of a charming stream, one of whose sources is Jamaica Pond, and which forms the boundary between Boston and the town of Brookline,—this and the succeeding division of the improvement having been carried out jointly by the city and the town. The next division is a long and comparatively narrow section called the Riverway, which in landscape character recalls some of the loveliest aspects of rural England. Then, just as the neighborhood of a streamlet on the New England coast changes as it approaches the sea, so as this clear little river joins the creek that now safely carries the waters of a once very troublesome stream—Stony Brook—to the estuary of the Charles, the scene gradually assumes a littoral aspect, and brackish waters meander through marshy levels with bosky banks. This remarkable reproduction of the tranquil landscape of salt-marshes is a novel feature in park design, and is notable as an absolute creation of scenery upon a foundation of nothing but repulsive mud-flats and a shallow bay, just as the Riverway is an instance of the restoration of a formerly beautiful landscape. «The Fens,» as the marsh scenery section is called, form the artistic guise of a necessary and very important engineering and sanitary improvement. A short and narrow section, the Charlesgate, brings the parkway to its terminus at the Charles River. A chain of picturesque and ever-varying scenery is thus presented all the way from Franklin Park. Under formal urban conditions the system is

carried through the handsome residential Back Bay section to the threshold of the business districts at the Public Garden by way of Commonwealth Avenue, now in charge of the Park Department.

Another very important element in the system is Marine Park at City Point and Castle Island. This is the seat of the greatest yachting headquarters in the United States, and the maritime movement forms a brilliant and animated spectacle through the summer. The use of Castle Island for park purposes has been given by the National Government. The island has been connected with the main, and between it and a long iron pier at the Point a «Pleasure Bay» with a horseshoe curve gives opportunity for safe boating. Facilities for beach-bathing on a large scale are provided, sites for club-houses are allotted to the various yacht-clubs, and a great aquarium is contemplated. For two miles along the shore of the peninsula of South Boston the Strandway, now under construction, makes a beautiful bayside drive, and, continued as Dorchesterway to the end of Massachusetts Avenue, the chief cross-town thoroughfare, gives Marine Park a pleasant and convenient connection with the rest of the system. Another parkway line, just determined upon, will connect Franklin Park directly with the Strandway, and make a continuous line of park roads, about thirteen miles long, from the Public Garden to Castle Island.

There are several minor public grounds in various sections of the city, recently established by the Park Department, not connected with the main system, but models of their kind as local and neighborhood open spaces, in contrast to the sixty-five open spaces of various kinds which, for the most part, are shabbily and yet expensively maintained by the Public Grounds Department, apart from the regular park administration.

The municipal park system of the city forms but a minor portion of the area of public open spaces included in the Metropolitan Parks District of Boston, which in 1892 was created for this purpose, comprising a cluster of thirty-six municipalities. The metropolitan system already includes more than sixty-five hundred acres, with other large areas publicly held in various ways under the administration of that department by a board of five commissioners appointed by the governor. There are two noble public forest reservations,—the Blue Hills, with over four thousand acres, and the Middlesex Fells, with about thirty-two hundred acres,—besides the Stony Brook Woods, of about four hundred acres: the latter an expansion in a picturesque grand parkway which is to connect the Blue Hills with the Boston system at the Arnold Arboretum. Within the district is also the important public forest of the city of Lynn—the Lynn Woods, comprising two thousand acres. All these are wilderness tracts of remarkable sylvan charm, requiring only the simplest forms of judicious improvement to let Nature do her best and to adapt them to public use. This improvement need be little more than the planting, thinning, and care of trees, with expert disposition of appropriate varieties according to landscape conditions, together with a well-devised system of good roads to make the scenery in all parts conveniently accessible for the public.

A small tract of great importance is the Beaver Brook Reservation, to the westward of Cambridge in Waltham

and Belmont, embracing a famous group of grand and primeval oaks, and the cascade celebrated by Lowell in his exquisite poem. Of inestimable value in the metropolitan park scheme are the dedication to public use of several miles of ocean front at Revere Beach, and of the shores of the Charles River for a large portion of its course through the metropolitan district. Also included are the similar improvement of the shores of the two other rivers, the Mystic and the Neponset, so far as practicable, and the connection of the various reservations with the city and with each other by lines of boulevards and parkways, the latter to comprise in their chain the most important large ponds of the district, several of which are very beautiful.

Several of the metropolitan municipalities outside of Boston have recently engaged in the work of park improvement, most important being Cambridge, which has taken for the purpose nearly all the shores of the Charles River within its limits. Notable park works of picturesque character have also been undertaken by Newton, Waltham, Malden, and Winchester. Including the local grounds, there are already within the metropolitan district available for recreative purposes a grand total of between thirteen and fourteen thousand acres of public open space.

The metropolitan system as projected is a work which demands years for its consummation; but it is felt that the lines cannot too soon be laid down and adopted. Altogether the Boston scheme of park development, including with the metropolitan the several separate municipal undertakings, is undoubtedly the broadest and most comprehensive yet planned for any city; and by its thoughtful adaptation of the most essential elements of the regional landscape to the needs of a great urban population, it has justly aroused the enthusiasm of the foremost authorities on the subject.

Sylvester Baxter.

A New Parliament of Religions.

AN OPEN LETTER FROM A EUROPEAN ADVOCATE OF A
NEW PARLIAMENT IN 1900.

WHEN, in 1893, the news came that a Parliament of Religions was in session at Chicago in one of the palaces of the Columbian Exposition, it gave old Europe a great and almost anxious feeling of surprise. We were told that before an assemblage of thousands, surrounded by one hundred and seventy representatives of the most diverse religions, Cardinal Gibbons had risen, his fine and gentle face set off and illumined by the scarlet of his cardinal's robe, his eyes beaming with celestial joy, and had recited the Paternoster, in the silence, as it were, of a sanctuary. The whole assembly had accepted that prayer as «the universal prayer.»

The Parliament of Religions, however, did not limit itself merely to this solemn and ideal manifestation. Following a very practical and precise program, the representatives of religious humanity, in their various sessions occupying seventeen days, studied the gravest problems of the present time. They spoke only of agreement, conciliation, souls, union, and fraternity. It was the first council where there were neither disputes nor anathemas.

Now, although Mr. Charles Bonney, a religious-minded thinker, was the first to propose the idea of a Parliament

of Religions, and the Rev. Dr. Barrows, a Protestant minister, was its practical and effective organizer, yet it is but just to recognize that the coöperation of the Catholic Church in the United States made it a possibility, and assured its success.

As for the advantages which may have resulted from the Parliament of Religions, Mgr. Keane, who was obliged to attend the International Scientific Congress of Catholics at Brussels (September, 1894), in order to defend the great work of the American bishops against the attacks of the Jesuits and the non-compromising spirits (*intransigents*) of the Church, set them forth thus in an eloquent discourse: «Mankind begins to detest hatred and hostility ever more and more. Humanity is making an undeniable effort toward milder forms and a more prolific blossoming of charity. And is it not the aim of religion to unite man with God and with his brethren? Religion is charity. Even though we may not be able to agree on questions of faith, may it not be possible to come to terms on charity? It would be much to give even *this* lesson to Christians: that in order to love God it is not necessary to hate one's brother who does not love him in just the way we do; that so as to be faithful to our belief, it is not necessary to be at war with a hundred who understand faith differently. But there was another very desirable utility—that of uniting the protest of every form of religious belief against materialism and agnosticism, against all forms of irreligion and unbelief, and thereby showing how contrary these things are to the fundamental ideas of mankind and its happiness.»

Might not old Europe, renouncing her past contentions, renew so great an act of generosity, liberality, and progress, and convoke a new Parliament or Universal Congress of Religions? That is the question which some French Catholics, Protestants, and Israelites asked one another. The year 1900 is to be glorified by the Universal Exposition at Paris, and it will rest on the apex of two centuries. Why should it not be chosen to mark the date of an immense religious rendezvous, where all believers might make a sole and same declaration of faith, «I believe in God»; and unite in a sole and same prayer, «Our Father, who art in heaven»?

Above all, at the present time, while problems of social transformation are engrossing and carrying away all minds, it is the duty of those representing the moral and religious ideal in this world to recall the fact that religion, whatever may be said to the contrary notwithstanding, has molded the soul of humanity in the past, has stamped its deep impression in the flesh and blood of all the generations whose heirs we are; and hence no dreams for reorganizing the world can afford to neglect the indestructible element of mystic aspirations.

The social benefit of these aspirations is incontestable. They alone are able to preserve a trace of idealism for us in the terrible struggle for life which, without them, would be merely material, brutal, and ferocious. «For the immense majority of men,» said Renan, «established religion constitutes the only share in their lives given to the worship of the ideal. To suppress or weaken this sole and great remembrance of nobility, in the classes deprived of other means of education, would be to debase human nature and take away the sign that distinguishes it essentially from animals.»

The inspiration most needed by humanity in our terrible times is surely that of charity, brotherly love, justice, and social solidarity. But whatever theories the sociologists may frame, those sentiments can have a solid foundation only in the supreme religion of the paternity of God and the fraternity of men.

The proclamation of this humanitarian religion, because it is best fitted for the social needs of the present time, would assuredly not imply the renunciation of more complete beliefs that go beyond it. There would be no recantations or vague compromises of doctrine. Every believer would keep his complete faith.

The very principle of a Parliament of Religions would be to proclaim the respect due to every sincerely pious conscience, and to every religion, in the individual form it takes in each conscience. Faith would be considered less on its *absolute*, and more on man's, side in relation to his heart and intelligence. Without failing to recognize the value and the rights of metaphysical truth, subjective or moral truth would be declared to be more important. It would be less a question about *truth* than about *sincerity*. Faith and sincere conviction would command every one's veneration.

If it were said that this is going too far, that this is in a manner recognizing the equal value of all religions, we can reply: «No; all religions are not equally valuable; but all honest and sincere consciences are, and they have the right to demand the respect due their free convictions.» It would be impossible to maintain the equal value of all religions, as regards their dogmatic assertions, in the *absolute*, but the equal dignity of religious consciences is an undeniable principle. The very nature of the Parliament forbids the discussion of the absolute truth of creeds. The gaps in one denomination's creed would not be considered any more than the superiority of another. Yet the mere spectacle of believers of such various faiths in session in one and the same assembly would proclaim that if a perfect faith is God's greatest gift, «good faith in incomplete truth, or even in error, is man's greatest merit, and is his sovereignly sacred and honorable right.»

The Parliament of Religions, in short, would accomplish what we should like to call the «moral union of religions.» But there would be a compact of silence on all dogmatic peculiarities dividing men's minds, as also a compact of common action on those points uniting their hearts, by the uplifting and consoling virtue dwelling in all faith. It would be the end of sectarianism. It would be a breaking away from that long tradition of wranglings which kept earnest men quarreling about subtle differences of doctrine, and would herald new times, when men would care less about splitting up into new sects and chapels, digging trenches and building barriers, than to spread the benefits, both moral and social, of religious sentiments by noble and cordial goodwill. The sublime example of tolerance and brotherly concord would tend powerfully to the formation and the progressive education of the general conscience of humanity—that is to say, the fundamental conscience of its moral and spiritual unity; and thereby religion would resume its true rôle, which is to reveal charity to men, and, amid the diversity of minds, prove the brotherhood of hearts.

Abbé Victor Charbonnel.

Is Common Sense un-American?

It is quite generally admitted that there are some serious defects in the working of popular government in this country. Few intelligent Americans deny that there is something left to be desired in our management of the business and finances of a great nation—its revenue, currency, and banking methods; in the treatment which our statesmen and legislators give to international questions; in the quality of our national and State legislators; in the way in which our nominating machinery works; in the assumption and exercise of the functions of government by party bosses, without regard to the rights and wishes of the people; and in the general results of universal suffrage as applied to the government of cities. Upon these and other points which might be mentioned there is virtually unanimous agreement among Americans who are not politicians and who are in the habit of giving thought to the subject. But with this general admission the agreement ends, and a division is made into two great classes, one of which contends that the only way by which the evils complained of can be remedied is by full and frank recognition of them in all their seriousness, without qualification or attempt at extenuation; while the other contends that full and frank recognition, especially in plain speech and terms, must be avoided as an unpatriotic reflection upon our institutions, as a pessimistic and degenerate proceeding unworthy a true American citizen, and that the only really patriotic and effective remedy is to refrain from plain or harsh characterization, and to claim that everything is sure to come out all right in the end, because we are the greatest and most glorious nation that the world has ever seen.

Let us see how plain common sense—what General Grant called «horse sense»—will operate when applied to these two methods of treating the evils which we have enumerated.

1. *National Revenue, Taxation, and Currency.*—Common sense would say: Follow, in the management of these questions, the teachings of experience throughout the world, which, summed up in a sentence, would be to take them out of politics and put them absolutely in the control of experts. Every business house in the world does this, not because it is the surest method of success, but because it is the only method, not merely of success, but of existence. No intelligent man can deny that if our national business were conducted in this way the results would be in every way an improvement upon our present condition: taxation would be more light, because more scientific and just; confidence would be universal and permanent, because of a sound currency and banking system; and periodic upheavals in trade and industry because of uncertainty about tariff rates would cease. Is there any other way by which such results can be achieved? Can things be bettered by questioning the patriotism of those who point out the defects of our present methods? Is it un-American to say that we should be intelligent enough to exercise common sense?

2. *International Questions.*—Common sense says: Conduct these in such a way as to preserve our own self-respect, to prevent a disturbance of our own trade and industry by causing unnecessary alarm, and to hold

us before the world as a civilized, Christian nation desiring to be just and honorable in all its dealings. This seems to be a very simple method of procedure, and one that is patriotic as well, unless it be true that there is a conflict between common sense and true Americanism.

3. *Quality of National and State Legislators.*—How many persons of intelligence are met in private life who maintain that the quality of our legislators is satisfactory? There is a virtually universal admission that the quality has been deteriorating steadily for many years, and is now little short of deplorable. This being the case, what does common sense say? Does it say the quality can be improved by concealing the facts? Does it say that we shall get better legislators by denouncing everybody who says we have poor ones, and holding him up to contempt and scorn as a degenerate American who is slandering the institutions and statesmen of his country? Is such a method of procedure as that calculated to drive unworthy men out of politics?

4. *Our Nominating Machinery.*—It is a notorious fact that in national politics this has passed out of the control of the people, and is now in the complete possession of bosses, who use it to put their servile agents into the public offices. What does common sense say about this? Does it say it can be remedied by concealing and denying it, and assailing as bad Americans all those who denounce it as an evil which must in time break down popular government if it be not rooted out? Does it say it can be remedied by everybody's going about and declaring that this is the greatest nation in the world, that nothing can harm us, and that all will come out right in the end? Does it not rather say that the danger must be recognized in all its force, and the best method possible devised to encounter and defeat it? And how can this be done without first arousing the people to the necessity for action by showing them what the danger is?

5. *The Misgovernment of Cities.*—What does common sense say about this universally admitted fact? Does it say, Shut your eyes to it, and wait for it to work out its own cure without your aid? Does it say you can reform it by denouncing as un-American all those who venture to call attention to it and to speak of it as a disgrace and a peril to free institutions? What is patriotism? Can there be a better definition of it than Lowell gave when, in asserting his own love of his country, he asked:

What better proof than that I loathed her shame?

Joseph B. Bishop.

«The Withdrawal of the French from Mexico.»

OLIVER P. MORTON'S
CONFIDENTIAL RELATION TO THE EVENT.

ON October 28, 1865, Oliver P. Morton, the «War Governor» of Indiana, after undergoing extraordinary labors in keeping his State in the column of those loyal to the Union, was stricken with paralysis, a disease which came upon him like a thief in the night, broke down a frame of great vigor and endurance, and entailed continued suffering for the remaining years of his life. His physicians prescribed absolute rest, but for Morton this was impossible, and he was soon at work preparing an elaborate message to the legislature. They then insisted that he should withdraw absolutely from the duties of office, and that a change of

scene and climate was necessary for his recovery. He had been told of the success of Dr. Brown-Sequard of Paris in the treatment of paralysis, so he made up his mind to go abroad and seek the aid of this celebrated physician. His message to the legislature was delivered on the 14th of November, and on the evening of the 17th he left Indianapolis for Washington, where he spent the week prior to his departure for Europe. While in that city he had several interviews with President Johnson, a man with whom he had held cordial and even intimate relations. In one of these interviews Mr. Johnson confided to him a secret mission, asking him to make a personal request of Napoleon III for the withdrawal of the French troops from Mexico. It had already been determined by the administration that the French must leave that country, even if it involved the necessity of war; but President Johnson hoped that the Emperor would consent to this voluntarily, if he could do so without too great a loss of prestige. The demand through the regular diplomatic channels for the withdrawal of these troops would be embarrassing to the French government, which as late as October 16 had insisted upon a recognition of the empire of Maximilian before the French army should be recalled.

It appears from an article in the *May*, 1897, number of THE CENTURY MAGAZINE that General Schofield had already been sent by the State Department to communicate to the Emperor unofficially the necessity for recalling the French troops; and President Johnson, learning that Morton intended to go to Paris, asked him also to intimate informally to the Emperor that it would be impossible for the administration to withstand the pressure of public opinion in America, which demanded the expulsion of these troops, if their withdrawal were longer postponed. He asked Morton to say that it would be easier for the French government to recall them voluntarily than to submit to the humiliation of acceding to official demands, and that by a voluntary withdrawal the good feeling between the two nations could be better preserved. Mr. Johnson impressed upon Morton the necessity of keeping this mission entirely secret, and he gave him the following autograph letter, which stated nothing of the object of his visit:

«EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, D. C.,

«December 11th, 1865.

«His Excellency Governor O. P. Morton of the State of Indiana has been entrusted by the Government of the United States of America with important business in Europe. As the executive of one of the States of the Union, and as a citizen possessing the confidence and respect of his country, he is cordially recommended to the kind consideration of all whom it may concern.

«ANDREW JOHNSON.»

A physician had been detailed by the Secretary of War to attend the governor until the departure of the latter in the *Scotia*. The voyage was long and uneventful. Morton arrived in Liverpool the day before Christmas. He proceeded to London, stopping only two days in that city, and then passed directly on to Paris, where he remained till the 1st of February. Here he had to undergo the ordeal of the moxa, or cautery, of the spine, which was performed by Dr. Brown-Sequard. Previous to this operation he had an interview with Baron Roth-

schild, who arranged for him a private audience with the Emperor. He delivered to Napoleon the message from President Johnson. The Emperor replied that it had never been his purpose to keep permanent possession of Mexico, but that his object had been to secure the rights of French creditors and residents, and to leave the people of the country free to make their choice of rulers. He spoke regretfully of a speech which had been made by General Logan in Congress, demanding the summary expulsion of Bazaine. It was shortly after this interview that the Emperor delivered his address to the Corps Législatif on January 22, to which General Schofield refers, in which he declared that the French occupation of Mexico was reaching its limit. After his private interview Morton also received a formal invitation to a reception at the Tuileries. He wished to go, but to do this he would be obliged to wear court dress and sword. At first he determined to do it. He went with his friend Berry Sulgrove, who had accompanied him to Paris, and selected a costume; but he had a great distaste for appearing in that way, and believed that standing for a long time at a great reception would be injurious to his health, so he remained away.

When Morton found that the operation of the moxa was not successful, and that his paralysis could not be cured, he became very impatient to return, and after a few days in Switzerland he started for England, and thence back to America.

Although Sulgrove knew that Morton had had a private interview with the Emperor, it is not believed that Morton ever spoke of the subject of this mission until during his final illness. The Hon. R. R. Hitt, who had been his private secretary in the Senate, visited him at Indianapolis shortly before his death, and read aloud to the sick man during a great part of the night. On this occasion Morton drew him down close to the side of his bed, and said: «I want to tell you about that mission to Paris. There is not a word about it on record, and when I die the secret will die with me. I was asked by Johnson to have an interview with the Emperor, and if possible to secure the removal of the French troops from Mexico. Mr. Bigelow was minister at the time, but he knew nothing of it.» Morton then related to Mr. Hitt the foregoing facts.

It is of course impossible to say positively to what agency the withdrawal of the French troops was mainly due. Possibly several things concurred to convince Napoleon that this step was necessary; but it is a fair inference that the distinguished statesman who talked face to face with the French Emperor in secret conference had much to do with it.

RICHMOND, INDIANA. *William Dudley Foulke.*

Kindergarten Progress in Indianapolis.

THE public schools of Indianapolis have received extended notice from the press throughout the country. No less admirable is the branch of training found in the free kindergartens, which are the result of ten years of persistent labor. The free kindergartens of this city are recognized in the National Association of Kindergartens as among the most progressive in the country. During the year just closed (June, 1897), 5297 children were reached by the kindergartens, of which there are eleven, all numbered but two, to which have been given

the names of Arabella C. Peele, who was for a number of years president of the Kindergarten and Children's Aid Society, and of Miss Mary Turner Cooper, who did so much for the colored children composing the school. The kindergarten work proper is much the same as that in all similar schools. For a number of years no fine hand-work has been done, as Mrs. Eliza A. Blaker, who has been superintendent of the schools ever since they were opened, believes that the close attention demanded of the pupil for this work creates ailments in later years. A unique feature is the domestic training, which is not like the kitchen-garden, but is real training in practical housekeeping. One phase is to teach that cheerful faces, kind words, gentle tones, and clean rooms are as valuable as well-cooked, nicely served food and a clean dress. Thirty-one guests were served in the Domestic Training-school during the winter, with the entire menu of potato-soup, toast-sticks, breaded veal, green peas with white sauce, potato-balls, biscuits, celery and nut-salad, snow-pudding, and coffee, prepared by the pupils. The sewing-classes learn how to make dolls' clothes, and as the children grow larger they make dresses and underclothes, make and trim hats, mend, darn, and crochet. Under the supervision of Mrs. Blaker, there are kindergartens at many of the public institutions. Each school keeps a record-book containing the name, age, health, temperament, physical defects, etc., of each child. This is taken when the child enters, and the children are tested from time to time, and the result is added to the record-book, in order to keep a study of the child and meet the individuality of each. There is teaching in patriotism, the flag salute and national airs being an oft-repeated part of the exercises. Last Fröbel Day (April 21), in addition to the usual program, each child was presented with a packet of seeds, both flower and vegetable. The effect was almost miraculous, for in two weeks' time the greatest improvement in the yards of the families represented by the children was noticed. They were in order, patches had been fenced off, and one father made a little fence and gate for his child. A summer school is being maintained this year, with excellent results and large attendance. From the modest beginning special features have been added, until now the work reaches out in every direction, and not only the children but the parents are brought under its influence. Mothers' meetings, for an hour of rest, change, pleasure, conversation, instruction, and social intercourse, with some light refreshment and a story or song, make a bright spot for them, with an annual mass-meeting of mothers for an event of special importance. Friendly visiting to each family secures the coöperation of the family; evening socials for the fathers enlist their sympathies; and the Mothers' Band is helpful in raising money, visiting the sick, attending the entertainments, and assisting in the work. The literary societies in all of the schools are well attended, and are aided by the school library, which loans books to the families of the children who attend the kindergarten. The boys in the wood-whittling classes do all of the cabinet-work of the schools, and make articles for sale. Through the many influences of the schools which the different departments afford, a wonderful work of reformation is almost silently going on. On the social side, there are evening parties once a

month, where lessons of politeness and many courtesies are shown by example, and the children take turns in playing host and guest, or in serving. At the end of the school term the children know more of entertaining properly than many persons of the same age who have been brought up in homes of refinement. In addition to the kindergarten, there is the Normal Training-school, which offers professional training for teachers, making

a specialty of primary and kindergarten work. Teachers have been sent from this school to all parts of the country. Wonderful work has been done by the introduction of kindergarten work in insane-hospitals and schools for the feeble-minded. Mrs. Blaker and her assistant, Mrs. Nash, are at the head of the schools in this city, which are supported by voluntary contributions and subscriptions.

Anna McKenzie.

IN LIGHTER VEIN

The Latest Fad.

NANNETTE is just the dearest girl;
To her I vow my love and duty;
From slipper-tip to shining curl
She 's my ideal of dainty beauty.
She 's all a fiancée should be;
No words are fond enough to praise her;
But life has lost its charm for me
Since Nan became a crystal-gazer.

The passing fad of each new day
Has caught and held her fickle fancy;
It nearly took my breath away
When she went in for chiromancy.
She studied psychical research,
And hypnotism did n't faze her;
She even joined the Buddhist church;
But now she is a crystal-gazer.

Some of her fads I rather liked—
Her cult of Ibsen or of Browning,
Her swagger costume when she biked,
Her dress-reform and Delsarte gowning;
I liked it when she tried to cook
Crabs à la Newburg in her blazer;
But life takes on a different look
Since Nan became a crystal-gazer.

Her fervid gaze she concentrates—
That crystal ball her constant focus;
She ardently invokes the Fates
And all their mystic hocus-pocus,
With muscles tense, and head erect,
Until the gleaming crystal sways her
(I've known it to have that effect,
Though I am not a crystal-gazer).

Of course I know it 's but a freak,
The very latest London notion;
She may forget it in a week,
And find some other new devotion.
But with my heart too long she 's played,—
I wonder if it would amaze her
If I should woo another maid
While Nan remains a crystal-gazer.

Carolyn Wells.

Spontaneous History.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

A DUKE of Normandy, Robert the Devil,
Casting about him in search of evil,
Espied a tanner's daughter, Arletta—
The less that 's said about *her* the better.

Forty years rolled away into line.
Duke Robert's son, aged thirty-nine,
Raised some forces and managed to land them
In England, met the Saxons, and tanned them.

None of recorded historical bastings
Is more complete than the battle of Hastings;
And William the Conqueror promptly determined
To have himself crowned and sceptered and ermined.

This purpose was shortly a realized hope.
By the aid of a sword and a bull of the Pope
Which was brought by a bishop, his own half-brother
(Quite unrelated to William's half-mother),
Who dropped vague hints about milk and honey,
Which, in the case of a bishop, means money.

William, with density almost alarming,
Bluffly confessed he knew nothing of farming;
Honey, he thought, should be easy to find,
But in following bees keep a trifle behind;
Then, too, if the bishop's milk-can was not full,
Why, doubtless, the bishop could milk the bull!
However, the bishop still harbored a doubt,
So was sent to a prison to think it all out.

The monarch now passed quite a number of acts on
The every-day manner of life of the Saxon;
He mapped out the land in a Doomsday Book,
In which all the Saxons were privileged to look
For the boundary-lines of their farms, great or small,
And to find that they did n't own any at all.

If their despair to unpleasantness led,
The king yanked the curfew and sent them to bed,
And turned to the Doomsday Book to enlist 'em
As villeins or serfs of his new feudal system.
Thus, in time, fair England was Normandized;
William, with dignity, rested and gormandized.

The Normans, meanwhile, their energies bent
To founding old families of Norman descent;
And modern statistics have rendered it plain,
By the number of people who come of this strain,