

doubting them and trying to do without them. The grand result of such a policy is that every good citizen may consider himself a part of the practical workings of the machinery of the State; he may be at his bench, his plow,

or his desk, ready to stop and turn his hand to the service of the State, if only for a day. I regard this as one of the great strongholds of self-government, a source of incalculable strength to Americans.

William T. Coleman.

[In an early number of THE CENTURY will appear a series of letters by General W. T. Sherman, written from San Francisco in 1856, and setting forth his relations to the committee of that year and his reasons for opposing its work.—EDITOR.]



SEAL OF THE VIGILANCE COMMITTEE.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

Lowell's Legacy to his Country.

It is Man who is sacred, it is his duties and opportunities, not his rights, that nowadays need reinforcement. It is honor, justice, culture, that make liberty invaluable, else worse than worthless, if it mean only freedom to be base and brutal.

THESE golden words, taken from the letter of Lowell now first printed in another column of THE CENTURY, are as level to the needs and the duty of this very hour as they were to those of the moment when they left the poet's pen. This whole letter was written in pain and indignation—the pain of the true patriot, the indignation of the just and far-seeing citizen. It is written with the same fire that inspired the "Biglow Papers" on the one hand and the "Commemoration Ode" on the other. Looking back through all the praise that fills the air above the grave of the poet, it seems amazing that he could have been once so misunderstood and maligned for actions consistent with his entire career,—actions which only proved anew the wise and unfailing patriotism of the man,—a patriotism which is one of the principal causes of his fame, as it is the chief reason for the love in which he is held by his countrymen.

Lowell's legacy as a poet is great, but not greater than his legacy as a patriot. The true patriot does not love his country, labor and suffer for it, simply because he happened to be born in it,—that would be the infatuation of the egotist; but because, *being* born in it, his duty and pleasure are to help on all human progress by helping on first the progress of the land to which he belongs. This is Lowell's legacy as a patriot,—not the sentiment "My country, right or wrong," but "My country—it shall never be wrong if I can help it!" The true patriot is not the one who says it is *my* country, and *its* institutions, that are sacred; but who says, with Lowell, "It is Man who is sacred." The citizen who holds to this sacredness of humanity will be the most useful in securing institutions and a country whose services to humanity will make *them* also sacred in his own heart, and in the hearts of all good men.

Michigan's "Wild-cat" Banks.

THE history of Michigan's "wild-cat" banking experience, while not so applicable to present financial discussion as other cheap-money experiments which we have cited in previous numbers of THE CENTURY, is nevertheless instructive for two reasons: first, because it was an attempt to make "hard times" easier by unlimited issues of irredeemable paper money, and second, because the money so issued was based largely on land as security. For these reasons it has seemed to us worth while to recall it at the present time.

Michigan became a State in January, 1837. Almost the first act of her State legislature was the passage of a general banking law under which any ten or more freeholders of any county might organize themselves into a corporation for the transaction of banking business. Of the nominal capital of a bank only ten per cent. in specie was required to be paid when subscriptions to the stock were made, and twenty per cent. additional in specie when the bank began business. For the further security of the notes which were to be issued as currency, the stockholders were to give first mortgages upon real estate, to be estimated at its cash value by at least three county officers, the mortgages to be filed with the auditor-general of the State. A bank commissioner was appointed to superintend the organization of the banks, and to attest the legality of their proceedings to the auditor-general, who, upon receiving such attestation, was to deliver to the banks circulating notes amounting to two and a half times the capital certified to as having been paid in.

This law was passed in obedience to a popular cry that the banking business had become an "odious monopoly" that ought to be broken up. Its design was to "introduce free competition into what was considered a profitable branch of business heretofore monopolized by a few favored corporations." Anybody was to be given fair opportunities for entering the business on equal terms with everybody else. The act

was passed in March, 1837, and the legislature adjourned till November 9 following. Before the latter date arrived, in fact before any banks had been organized under the law, a financial panic seized the whole country. An era of wild speculation reached a climax, the banks in all the principal cities of the country suspended specie payments, and State legislatures were called together to devise remedies to meet the situation. That of Michigan was convened in special session in June, and its remedy for the case of Michigan was to leave the general banking law in force and to add to it full authority for banks organized under it to begin the business of issuing bills in a state of suspension,—that is, to flood the State with an irredeemable currency, based upon thirty per cent. of specie and seventy per cent. of land mortgage bonds. The law was so modified that any number of persons, upon signing an agreement to that effect, might become a banking corporation, and almost any one might become a director.

Everybody in the State who was in debt, and everybody who saw in the law an opportunity for rascality, went into the banking business. Within a few months wherever two roads crossed a bank was established. One was found in a saw-mill, and one of the official records of the period says: "Every village plot with a house, or even without a house, if it had a hollow stump to serve as a vault, was the site of a bank." Many of them had no offices, no books, and no capital. Judge T. M. Cooley, in an interesting account of the experience in his history of Michigan, published in the "American Commonwealths" series, says (p. 267): "Wild lands that had been recently bought of the government at one dollar and twenty-five cents an acre were now valued at ten or twenty times that amount, and lots in villages that still existed only on paper had a worth for banking purposes only limited by the conscience of the officer who was to take the securities."

As for the requirements for ten per cent. payment in specie at the time of subscription, and twenty per cent. before beginning banking business, these were soon got around in ways more unscrupulous than ingenious. As the payments were to be made to the banks themselves, the same specie could be used many times over. Sometimes a small sum in specie was paid in and taken out, and the process repeated over and over, till the amount required was made to appear as having been received. Sometimes specie certificates, stating that the maker held a sum of specie for the bank, were counted as specie. These were almost invariably false, and they were made to do service for many banks in succession. If specie was actually used, as soon as the bank examiner had seen it it was hurried into a wagon and taken with fleet horses to another bank where it again did duty as capital. "Gold and silver," say the official chroniclers, "flew about the country like magic; its sound was heard in the depths of the forest, yet, like the wind, one knew not whence it came or whither it was going." Sometimes what seemed to the eye of the examiner to be kegs of specie were really kegs of nails or window-glass with a thin layer of coin on top. The loan of specie to be used in the establishing of banks became a regular and lucrative branch of banking business.

Within one year forty-nine banks were organized, and forty went into operation with a professed capital

of \$1,745,000, of which thirty per cent. was claimed to have been paid in in specie. Over \$2,000,000 of irredeemable paper was distributed throughout the State, of which probably not a dollar was based upon *bona fide* capital paid in for legitimate banking purposes. As was inevitable, there was no public confidence in money of this character. Whoever received it got rid of it as soon as possible. It was always at a great discount with the money of eastern banks, and some of it was rated much higher than the rest. Much of it was never circulated near the places of issue, which were selected often in spots as inaccessible as possible, in order that the bills might not soon return to plague their sponsors. Adventurers from New York and other distant places went into the wilds of the State, located banks, took the entire issue of money, and put it in circulation anywhere but near the place of issue.

The commissioners used all possible vigilance to close up bogus banks, but as fast as they closed them others were started. When a "wild-cat" bank either failed or was put in the hands of a receiver the farmers and laboring people suffered the most severely, as is always the case in such disasters. The plague ran its course in about a year and a half. At the end of 1839 there were no fewer than forty-two "wild-cat" banks in the hands of receivers, and only four still doing business. Nearly all the currency of the State was worthless, business was prostrate, values of all kinds had been nearly or quite destroyed. There was no buying or selling of land, and only the bare necessities of life were able to command a market. The banking law was taken before the courts and declared unconstitutional, and the system was abolished, leaving behind it no assets, but boundless ruin.

In summing up the results, Judge Cooley, in language which many modern advocates of cheap money may peruse with profit, says: "Such were the fruits of the experiment of giving equal and practically unlimited rights in banking to everybody who wanted a shorter road to wealth than that trodden by labor and honest industry. The new State, under the bold but inexperienced guidance of its youthful governor, disdaining the lessons of history, had determined to try for itself the experiment of manufacturing money by the printing-press. The condition after the experiment might be compared to a forest after a cyclone; everything was prostrate, and everything was in confusion! . . . Thereafter wild-cat banking was a byword in the State; but the lessons it taught needed to be learned at some time, and were not likely to be learned except with experience as a teacher. One of its lessons was that neither real estate nor anything else not immediately convertible into money can support the credit of bank currency." This lesson is as applicable to the whole country as it was to Michigan, for even the United States Government is not powerful enough to support the credit of bank currency in real estate or anything else not immediately convertible into money. This is, moreover, the lesson of all human experience.

Corrupt Practices Legislation in 1891.

ATTEMPTS were made in several States during the present year to have laws passed limiting campaign and election expenditures, and requiring sworn publication of the same by candidates and committees, but

Michigan alone succeeded in having such a law enacted. In New York a bill amending the present law, extending its requirements to campaign committees and their officers, passed the Senate and failed in the Assembly. In Massachusetts an excellent bill passed the lower house and failed in the Senate. This is the third successive year in which a measure of the kind has met precisely that fate. In Minnesota a different but equally excellent bill passed the Senate and failed in the house. A bill forbidding both the contribution and use of money for illegitimate purposes in elections passed one house of the Rhode Island Legislature.

The Michigan law, which is simply a part of the State's new and excellent Ballot Reform Law, forbids all candidates to "treat," or in any way furnish entertainment to voters, or to spend money to procure the attendance of voters at the polls, or to contribute money for any except legitimate expenses of the campaign, and requires sworn publication after election, by candidates and committees, of all moneys expended. The law is similar to the New York law, but goes a most important step farther than that has gone, by requiring sworn publication of expenditures by committees as well as by candidates. The failure of the New York law to include publication by committees has proved in practice to be a serious bar to its efficacy, as we predicted it would last year. (*THE CENTURY* for July, p. 475.) Candidates are able to evade it by merely stating in their sworn returns the lump sums which they hand to the committees for expenditure. As no accounting for the use made of this money can be obtained from the committees, it can all be used for corrupt purposes with slight chance of detection and punishment. The persistent refusal of the politicians—the amendment has been defeated in two successive legislatures—to allow committees to be included is the strongest possible testimony to the efficacy of the desired extension.

The law proposed for Massachusetts this year, by the able and indefatigable group of reformers who have done so much to give that State its preëminence in all questions of electoral reform, was a distinct departure from the two measures which preceded it to defeat in 1889 and 1890, and was in many respects an original measure among laws upon this subject. Its provisions are worthy of study by all students of the question. They required that committees and organizations of any kind assisting in the nomination, election, or defeat of any candidate for political office should have treasurers, and should cause to be kept detailed accounts of all moneys, securities, and equivalents of money received or promised to them, and of the manner in which the same had been expended, and of all payments, liabilities, or promises of payment made by them. Within four weeks after election all treasurers were required to file sworn statements of all transactions in which they had been engaged during the campaign, giving itemized accounts of all receipts, and of all disbursements. Every member of a committee or organization who received or disbursed money or its equivalent in any form was required to make a detailed statement to the treasurer, who must include it in his sworn return. Every candidate before any caucus or convention, or at any election, was also required to file a sworn statement in detail of all receipts and disbursements of which he had personal knowledge. Every payment of a sum exceeding five dollars to any one person for expense in election

must be vouched for by a bill stating particulars and by a receipt.

The bill did not imitate the English Corrupt Practices Act by fixing maximum limits to expenditures. It did, however, provide specifically for blank forms which must be filled out in the sworn returns, and which required the setting down of the exact amounts used for printing, hall and headquarters rentals, stationery, clerk hire, canvassers, and other familiar campaign expenditures. The entirely original feature of the bill was its bestowal upon the Supreme Judicial Court and the Superior Court of full equity powers to compel any person who should fail to file a sworn statement which did not conform strictly to the law to file one which did so conform. These equity proceedings might be begun on petition of any candidate voted for in the election, or on the petition of the qualified voters in the election. The courts were empowered to advance such cases upon their dockets in order that they might be decided with the least possible delay. No person testifying in such case was to be liable to criminal prosecution for anything concerning which he might testify, except for perjury.

The Minnesota bill was constructed on entirely different lines, and was notable as being the first American measure which was designed to prevent the undue use of money in elections by means similar to those embodied in the entirely successful English Corrupt Practices Act. It limited the expenditure of all candidates for the United States Senate, Congress, and State offices to \$1000 each; that of all candidates for county offices to \$500 each; that of all candidates for offices in cities of more than 15,000 inhabitants to \$500 each; and that of all candidates in all other places to \$250 each. It forbade the use of any of the money allowed by law for any save the legitimate expenses of election, and defined with great minuteness both lawful and unlawful uses, following in this respect the minuteness of the English statute. It forbade the use or the contribution of money by candidates, or anybody else, to influence the vote of any person; forbade betting of all kinds on the election, and bulldozing, intimidation, and violence, either by individuals or corporations, to influence the vote of any person; and required sworn statements in detail by candidates and committees, within ten days after election, of all sums received and expended. The violation of any provision of the act was made a misdemeanor, punishable with imprisonment for not less than three months nor more than a year, in addition to forfeiture of the office in case of election.

Both these measures are so stringent in their provisions that were they to become laws they could not fail to have a most salutary effect in driving out of our elections much of the corruption which has crept into them during the past quarter of a century. It is to be said of the Minnesota measure that it is not an experiment, for it is based upon the practical success of the English statute. When that was under consideration there was general skepticism in England about both its wisdom and its practicability, but it demonstrated both completely on its first trial. It was thought that the maximum limits of expenditure had been placed too low, but it has been found in practice that they were fully a third too high. At no election under the law has the total of actual expenditure exceeded two thirds of the amount permitted by the law. Sworn

publicity has been the chief agent in abolishing the corrupt and extravagant use of money, but another cause for the diminution of expenditure has been that the law permits only an equal outlay by all candidates, rich and poor alike. When one candidate could bribe and buy votes, his opponent had to bribe and buy to a greater extent to carry the day against him. Now, it being impossible to overmatch corruption with greater corruption, the elections are not only honest, but comparatively inexpensive.

What has been accomplished in England can be and will be accomplished here. The adoption of the secret official ballot is certain to help forward this reform, for it is a step in the same direction. That ballot has taken away the chief excuse for the contribution of large sums of money in elections, and has taken away also the possibility of keeping watch upon its use at the polls to see if the bribers keep their bad bargain. The next step will be to force the sworn publication of all expenditures, and we are confident that public opinion will bring this about within a very few years. The professional politicians, who get their living out of politics, will fight it desperately, for it is the death-blow to their trade. The secret ballot has taken away their chief occupation; this reform will take away their chief source of income, for a large part of the money which is contributed for campaign and election work goes into their pockets.

An American Achievement in Art.

It must be considered a fortunate omen for the future of American art that within the fifteen years which have passed since the Philadelphia Exposition we have confessedly taken the first rank among contemporary nations in two important branches of artistic work,—namely, in stained glass and in wood-engraving,—to what extent it is to be hoped the World's Columbian Exposition will adequately show. This is of course by no means the whole, or even a large part, of the development of art among us; in painting, in sculpture, in the decorative arts, and particularly in architecture, the progress has been both remarkable and, in the main, upon lines which indicate a widespread and genuine growth in taste and artistic education among our people. But it is quite within bounds to say that no department of artistic activity has yet produced a result of rarer and more permanent value than is shown in the series of wood-engravings which Mr. Cole has been making of the Italian Old Masters, and which from month to month we have been presenting in the pages of *THE CENTURY*. This is an achievement of which Americans may properly be proud—to have contributed to the work of multiplying in black-and-white the most famous masterpieces of Italy an engraver of such delicate sympathy and such exquisite skill as Mr. Cole.

With the present and the following numbers of *THE CENTURY* this series will reach the apex of pictorial art

and popular interest in the work of Michelangelo, Raphael, Del Sarto, Titian, and their contemporaries. At the beginning of this last year of Mr. Cole's memorable enterprise we may commend the series anew to all lovers and students of art, in the words of Mr. Charles Eliot Norton, Professor of Art in Harvard University, who, in 1889, wrote in "The Nation" concerning the earlier examples:

Nothing that has yet been done by the American engravers on wood who, during the last few years, have carried their art to the highest excellence in reproducing the characteristic qualities of the work which they have had to copy, has surpassed in exactness of delineation, in refinement and vigor of execution, and in sympathetic rendering of the subtlest features of the original, these remarkable productions of Mr. Cole. The variety of the technical methods of which he shows himself master has enabled him to reproduce with equal success work as widely different in motive and style as the mosaics of Ravenna and the panel paintings of the Florentine artists of the fourteenth century.

No engravings hitherto existing of the works of early Italian art give so much of the essential spirit as well as of the manner of painting of these works as this series of Mr. Cole's. It is therefore invaluable to the student or the lover of the art of a period when the poetic genius of Italy was inspired with the first flush of conscious power, and was endeavoring to express itself in forms of beauty which it was not yet able completely to realize, but which, in their very simplicity and imperfection, often possess a charm beyond that of the more complete performances of a later and more sophisticated age.

Mr. Cole's skill is so masterly, and his artistic sympathies are so broad, that there is no doubt that he will reproduce the work of the painters of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries not less admirably than he is doing that of their forerunners.

It will be a surprise to our readers to learn that work which can elicit such authoritative commendation, and which belongs to a class of art that has made America famous abroad, is nevertheless officially and deliberately excluded by the United States Government from the category of art. To the Treasury Department Mr. Cole's blocks are merely "manufactures of wood," and as such are heavily taxable at the Custom House, while the merest daub of the youngest tyro of an art student may come in free of duty as the "work of an American artist done abroad." It is to be hoped that with the abolition of the tariff on art—a tariff levied to protect artists who cry out against being protected, and maintained on the ridiculous assumption that art is a luxury—some way will be found to bring the decision of the Treasury officials as to the status of wood-engraving into harmony with the intelligent judgment of the entire art world, which, whether tested by the conferment of honors at the Paris Exposition or the French Salon, or by the recognition of wood-engravers as associates of the British Royal Academy, or by the exhibition of wood-engraving in the art sections of every museum of note, or, in brief, by the opinion of artists, critics, and connoisseurs, is unanimous in recognizing wood-engraving as an artistic medium, and its products as among the artistic glories of our day.



OPEN LETTERS.

Notes on Michelangelo.

I REMEMBER a picture by Gérôme that represents Raphael in his first visit to the Sistine Chapel—that stolen visit recorded by Vasari, and in which Raphael is shown to be shrinking to the ground as he steals along with his head raised to the stupendous creations above him. Something of this feeling of shrinking always comes over me when I go into the Sistine Chapel. I have been much impressed, while engraving the "Cumæan Sibyl," with the incessant movement of Michelangelo. It is endless, but most subtle. All is form with him—grandeur of form. Yet he has grand repose—the repose of the ocean, never at rest. If he should give way to the terrible within him! *But he is always contained*, and they are, to my thinking, mistaken in him who say he always "lets himself out." Where is there any such excess about him? It would be the height of all absurdity and weakness, found no doubt among his followers, with whom let those compare him who think he is "all blow," and they may then perhaps see or feel the profound depth and grandeur and forbearance he is possessed of, and the terrible inward power he suggests. Note the marvelous finish of his things, even to the minutest portions. His flesh is so highly finished that you feel its softness, and when he sets his hand to finish, he slights nothing, and it is amazing what delicacy he can give. He paints the twisted thread in his "Three Fates" with the utmost fidelity; you note its twisted character throughout, and the light upon it, relieving it from the drapery here and there, and then the bunch of flax in its sheaf, most remarkable for lightness and delicacy of touch. I could not reproduce, should I engrave never so fine, the amazing quantity of work he puts in, and the finish and delicacy he gives to everything.

Michelangelo's coloring is not what is generally known as rich, but it is perfection in the harmony and softness of tints. The frescos of the Vatican have darkened from dampness and the smoke of incense, but it is easy to see that they must have been light in coloring—painted in a very high key. The highest lights even now approach pure white, while the darkest portions are gray and soft. The scheme of coloring in the whole is very refined; nothing is pronounced or positive. The tints are laid in broadly, and float tenderly into one another. The backgrounds to the figures and the skies are gray, the lightest portions nearly pure white, while the coloring of the robes is sometimes blue of a fresh, pure, delicate tint, red of a fine, soft grayish tone, yellow inclining to old gold, and green of a most delicate soft gray tone; and then there are mixtures of these tones of fine subtle hues impossible to describe, but darkish and gray in tone. His flesh tints are finely worked, of a darkish warm gray tone. It is a grandeur and depth of coloring quite befitting the nobleness of the theme and execution.

I did not engrave the cracks in the "Cumæa," as I did in the "Delphica." You don't see them, or are not attracted by them, as you look up at the frescos.

T. Cole.

California's Interest in Yosemite Reform.

THAT the errors which have brought the management of the Yosemite Valley into disrepute should be excused, or even applauded, by an odd person or newspaper here and there in California, is in line with what was to be expected by those who have sought to effect an alteration of the policy which has had such regrettable results in almost every department of the control of the Valley. There is no cause so bad or so ridiculous that it may not procure encouragement from people of excellent conduct in their every-day affairs, but who are by nature or by lack of training incapable of discrimination in special concerns, or who, in dealing with public interests, allow personal sympathies or narrow local prejudices to hustle their better judgment unceremoniously out of doors. Were the good citizens of San Francisco to awake some morning to discover that their beautiful Golden Gate Park had been villainously desecrated during the night—that, for example, some of its fairest parts had been parceled off into potato patches or cattle corrals; that other extensive tracts had been withdrawn from public enjoyment and were occupied as hay-fields or pastures for hack-horses; that fine trees and shrubbery, so laboriously and expensively established, had been ignorantly hacked or burned; that, in short, the whole place had been turned over to the mercies of a management devoid of proper perception of what is attractive and lovely in landscape effects—then assuredly would be heard a great tumult of indignation. At the same time there would doubtless be audible some small percentage of voices wondering why there should be so much ado about nothing, or professing hearty admiration for the practical common sense under whose guidance the transformation had been evolved.

It would be a dim discernment that could make question as to which of these opposing sentiments would finally prevail. So also, despite the childish pamphletting and the unnecessarily vehement protests of the Yosemite Commissioners and their limited circle of apologists, no occasion has arisen, or is likely to arise, to doubt that the endeavor which is in progress to secure a reformation in the management of the Valley is regarded otherwise than with approval by all Californians not directly, or indirectly, under the sway of the influences which have been mainly responsible for the injurious courses that are the objects of complaint. To credit the people of California with any other opinion would indeed be to impeach their intelligent loyalty to their State. It is obvious that the honor and the interest of California, so far as they are at all affected thereby, are to be served much more efficiently by working out an improvement in the handling of so conspicuous a subject as the Yosemite Valley than by refusing to see, or denying the existence of, destructive tendencies which are most palpably in evidence. The press of the State has not been slow to recognize so reasonable a proposition. It has, in fact, contained many utterances certainly no less condemnatory of the Yosemite management than those which have found expression elsewhere.

Other indications of the sentiment of California were

observable during last winter's session of the legislature. A committee of that body, having to report on the advisability of abolishing the Yosemite Commission, explained in effect that they were not prepared to accept the responsibility of recommending such abolition, simply because the act of Congress which intrusted the Yosemite to California had prescribed the form of governments composed at present. To abolish the Commission before preparing to replace it by some other system of management would be to leave the premises without any ruling authority. Such a report was, of course, equivalent to an announcement that but for the obstacle presented by the act of Congress the committee would have recommended the abolition of the Commission as useless or something worse. It was noticeable, too, that while the Yosemite Commissioners had asked for the sum of \$50,000 to cover their expenses during the present year and the next, the legislature appropriated no more than \$15,000. That in this large reduction of the estimate there was no suggestion of close-handedness is proved by the appropriation later in the session of a sum of \$50,000 (afterward vetoed by the Governor) to pay for building a public highway to the Valley, and so to relieve travelers from the onerous demands of the system of private toll-roads by which the great resort is now reached. It is well understood in California that the controlling element of the Commission has been opposed to the establishment of a free public road, as such an institution would be contrary to the interests of the transportation companies doing business in connection with the Valley. The rejection of the Commission's estimate of expenditure, the appropriation of \$50,000 for a purpose not supported by that body, and the unavoidable interpretation to be given to the legislative committee's report concerning the abolition of the Board of Commissioners, are all instructive indices to the disfavor with which the management is regarded by the mass of Californians themselves.

The time would appear to be ripe for the formulation of a distinct scheme for an improved method of direction of the Valley. The longer a reformation is delayed the greater will become the hindrances to its operation and the more irreparable will be the consequences of inappreciative and unskilful management. It must be borne in mind that the present Commission has publicly announced its intention to cut down all the trees which have sprouted in the Valley within thirty years—a policy which Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted, the expert professional landscape architect, states would prove in execution "a calamity to the civilized world." An immense amount of damage may be wrought even with the reduced appropriation which the legislature felt compelled to concede in order to provide for the maintenance of existing roads, trails, and other necessary conveniences. The unwise expenditure of a few hundred dollars may destroy attractions that could be replaced, if at all, by no outlay of money, but only by the indefinitely prolonged lapse of time. Already—and while the Commissioners have been denying that the floor of the Valley has been injured by the official management—an insignificant sum in dollars has proved adequate to degrade the wild natural charm of Mirror Lake into the condition of a mere artificial irrigation reservoir, and the cheap and debasing "improvements" on exhibition at that once romantic tarn have their coun-

terparts in a long panorama of allied barbarities. To the end that such encroachments on the perfection of Yosemite may not become ineradicable, and on a continually spreading scale, procrastination in transferring the management to hands of the highest expertness will be one of those blunders that fall little short of constituting a crime.

Perhaps the readiest and most effective method of securing a reform would be found through the absorption of the district covered by the grant to California in the great National Park—a reservation as large as the State of Rhode Island—recently established by act of Congress, and which entirely surrounds the Valley, extending away for many miles on every side. Such an absorption would go far to hasten the arrangement of a thorough system of park control not yet advanced beyond the stage of a preliminary makeshift. The proposed absorption has been widely commended throughout California, the generality of whose people are endowed with sufficient acumen of mind not to be deceived by appeals to the contrary—appeals based on perverted notions of State pride, and instigated by purely selfish motives of personal vanity or pecuniary advantage. Californians are justly proud of their State, and are not likely to be satisfied with less than the best expert care of their wonderful scenic treasures. One can find an upland farm anywhere. The glory of Yosemite consists largely in its wildness, and this characteristic can be preserved only by intelligence and skill of the highest order.

George G. Mackenzie.

The Paris Opera.

THE French National Academy of Music was founded in the year 1669, during the reign of Louis XIV. Before being transferred to the splendid edifice erected by M. Charles Garnier, the opera was located in various parts of Paris—in the Rue de Valois at one time, on the Place Royale at another, and again in the Rue Le Peletier. Between its foundation and the year 1672 the opera only performed unimportant works, such as ballets. The first lyric work it presented was an opera-ballet by Lulli, entitled "The Fêtes of Cupid and Bacchus." For a century after 1672 a considerable number of operatic works by French and Italian composers of every kind and without any distinct characteristic were performed at the opera, and it was only when Gluck's "Iphigénie en Aulide" was produced in 1774 that dramatic music acquired a special form in France.

M. Arthur Pougin, a French writer well known as an authority on music, has written an admirable monograph on Gluck, who may be styled the founder of French music. His "Orphée" was produced at Paris in 1774, "Alceste" in 1776, "Armide" in 1777, and "Iphigénie en Tauride" in 1779. M. Pougin has justly said that the rôle played by Gluck in the revolution of French dramatic music was so preponderant that he originated a school of music which abandoned and destroyed the former repertoire of the opera. Gluck's genius was so powerful and so innovative that he overturned all musical theories which had preceded him. The only opposition he encountered was from the partizans of an Italian composer named Piccinni, whose "Roland" was performed at the opera in 1778

and originated a famous divergence of opinions among composers known to the musical world as the war of the Gluckists and Piccinnists. The two most important composers of the Gluck school are Cherubini, born at Florence in 1760, and Spontini, whose "Vestale" and "Fernand Cortez" enjoyed great success at the opera. Among modern composers whose works have been performed at the French National Academy of Music the most popular are, Hérold, Auber, Halévy, Rossini, Meyerbeer, Donizetti, Verdi, Ambroise Thomas, the present director of the Conservatoire, Gounod, Saint-Saëns, and Massenet.

The Opera House is the property of the State, which appoints the manager for a renewable term of seven years, and pays him, after a vote in the Chamber of Deputies, an annual subvention of eight hundred thousand francs (one hundred and sixty thousand dollars). The director or manager is bound to give a fixed number of performances, to keep the opera open during the whole year, and to produce a certain number of new works, which are mentioned in his contract. The manager is amenable to the Minister of Fine Arts and Public Instruction in case of non-fulfilment of his contract. It is only reasonable that the Minister of Fine Arts, who has charge of the national museums and art galleries, the subventioned theaters, and other public buildings, should possess unlimited control over the financial management and the working of the department for which he is responsible to the nation, but in order to regulate the details of art he needs to be at one and the same time an artist, a sculptor, a musician, an author, and a tragedian, as well as a politician, which is practically impossible.

In the contract signed by the manager of the opera the Minister decides not only the number of performances and of new works, but also the number of sopranos, tenors, baritones, basses, choristers, musicians, ballet-dancers, etc. who shall be employed at the opera. In fact he regulates the entire management of the opera in every detail. But there are many artistic questions which arise in the working of a lyric stage that can only be solved by an enlightened and intelligent musical director, and not by a mere stage-manager, however competent he may be in his department.

Since the foundation of the opera there have been forty-eight managers and twenty-six leaders of the orchestra. Some of the latter have resigned the position at the end of a year; M. Lamoureux resigned it at the end of two years; I myself have occupied it for four years.

The musical rehearsals at the opera are conducted on a system unknown to any other theaters in the world, be they Italian, German, English, Russian, American, or Spanish. The chorus-singers are trained by a leader of the chorus, the singers are trained by accompanists known as singing-masters, who give their instructions to the leader of the orchestra. When the preparatory rehearsals are finished, the time-beater, who supports the whole responsibility in the eyes of the public, has only acted as a metronome, if he has the good fortune to score a success. It is evident that some reform is necessary in this division of authority for the good of musical art, and I heartily hope it may soon be accomplished.

The orchestra consists of ninety-four musicians, all of whom are performers of great merit and some of

great celebrity, such as M. Taffanel, the flutist, who is often engaged to perform at Prague, Dresden, St. Petersburg, and Moscow by the Philharmonic societies of those cities; M. Turban, the clarinetist; Messrs. Berthelier, Loeb, and Laforge, the well-known violoncellists. All the musicians of the opera are members of the orchestras of the Conservatoire, Lamoureux, and Colonne concerts. Their salaries at the opera vary from \$140 to \$600 per annum. For this amount they have to play at 192 performances, and at all the rehearsals which may be necessary, and which are unlimited.

While speaking of the orchestra of the opera I am glad to have an opportunity of replying to certain attacks which have been made upon it by M. Robert de Bonnières in the Paris "Figaro" of April 19, 1891, and by a New York journal which accuses the orchestra of decay. The following letter, addressed to me by Franz Liszt, proves that, far from decaying, the orchestra is more powerful than ever.

DEAR M. VIANESI: I wish to renew my thanks and praises to you personally. On the matter of your intelligent and firm conducting of my "Legend of St. Elizabeth" at the Trocadéro, the composers who were present agreed with the public that the results achieved by you and your executants were splendid, spite of the difficulties which the work presents from the frequent changes of rhythm and tone.

FRANZ LISZT.

After the performance of "Ascanio" Camille Saint-Saëns wrote me as follows:

The musicians of the orchestra have added to the instrumentation of "Ascanio" what a great singer adds to a melody—*i. e.*, color and life. If musicians play better anywhere else it can only be in the other world. As for yourself, whose burden in my absence was most heavy, you rose to the height of the situation. You possess the precious quality of not conducting like a metronome, and give to my music the suppleness which is essential to an artistic orchestra.

CAMILLE SAINT-SAËNS.

The real defect in the orchestra has been pointed out by M. Robert de Bonnières, who says:

The leader of the orchestra, whose word should be law, like that of Hans Richter at Vienna, that of Hermann Levi at Munich, and that of Mottl at Carlsruhe, is ignored at Paris. It matters little therefore who conducts, whether it be M. Vianesi, M. Altès, or M. Lamoureux. Whoever he be, the conductor leads without being permitted to direct those he leads, and is completely powerless. I need not dwell on the fact that he has to be the humble slave of the scene-setters, of the singing-masters, of the chief scene-shifter, of the singers, and even of the dancers: the difficulty of his position will be clearly seen when it is understood that he is required to hold his tongue at the risk of causing a scandal.

Therein lies the real evil, and if the present pernicious system be not speedily and radically reformed the organization of the opera will merit the title given it by a witty Parisian composer, who calls it "Louis XIV.'s musical box."

A. Vianesi,

Musical Director of the French National Academy of Music.

George H. Boughton.

GEORGE H. BOUGHTON was born in England in 1834, but was only three years old when his parents removed to Albany, New York. Here his earliest edu-

cation in art was gained, and though he went to London for a brief period in 1853, he returned here to live for six years, first in Albany and then in New York City. In 1859 he went to Paris, and in 1861 he established himself in London, which has remained his permanent home. Since the year 1858 he has frequently exhibited at the Academy of Design, and he was elected an Academician in 1871. But Mr. Boughton has also been honored by the British Royal Academy with the title of Associate, and despite the fact that he has often painted American themes, as in the very popular "Return of the *Mayflower*," his long residence abroad, his general choice of subject-matter, and especially the character of his painting, rank him rather as an English than as an American artist. Many of his pictures are, however, owned in this country, and while Mr. Boughton was for a time in New York during the autumn of 1890 some twenty-five of them were exhibited at the Union League Club. They included a few landscapes with small figures, some scenes from early life in New England and New Amsterdam, and a larger number of those thoroughly English pictures of pretty maids and children in old-time dress and with outdoor surroundings upon which, even more than upon his Puritan pictures, Mr. Boughton's popularity is based. It is a little difficult now to realize how greatly the English public was charmed by these last-named works when they first began to appear. They have been widely imitated since, in their semi-modern, semi-idyllic character, in their rather pale schemes of color and their flattish effect, imitated on other canvases, on Christmas cards, and in children's books, until Mr. Boughton may well have been reminded of Tennyson's rare flower which so scattered its seed abroad that it came to be called a weed.

Quite different from these in spirit, and, I think, much more vital and interesting, are Mr. Boughton's pictures of the class which is represented by the "Izaak Walton and the Milkmaids" engraved on another page of this magazine. Here we find more naturalness and vigor in the conception of the figures, and an attractive expression of that delicate sense of humor which, to me, seems Mr. Boughton's most enviable gift. Nor in any other of his works has he given us a more charming bit of English landscape than in the background of the "Izaak Walton." It is one of his comparatively recent works, was included in the Union League Club collection, and is owned by Mr. Charles Stewart Smith of New York.

M. G. Van Rensselaer.

A Roman Catholic's View of "Sister Dolorosa."

A REPLY TO MR. JAMES LANE ALLEN'S LETTER IN THE CENTURY FOR MAY.

"SISTER DOLOROSA" is a good example of what may result from superficial writing on the part of an author. Mr. Allen seems to be under a misapprehension in regard to the "religious life" and in ignorance of the rules and regulations which prevail in convents, but in his story there is no evidence anywhere of a want of respect for nuns, or of a wilful intention to misrepresent them, and for that reason he is entitled to courtesy from Catholics even while they criticize relentlessly.

The plot of Mr. Allen's story is built on an impossible foundation. In no recognized religious order is a nun

allowed to go out alone. This is one of the strictest of conventual rules, and is never broken under any circumstances; therefore in the charitable visitations to the cottage "Sister Dolorosa" would most certainly have been accompanied by another nun, and in consequence her trysts with Gordon would have been rendered impossible. She is described as going to the church at night and meeting her admirer by accident on the steps. Nuns usually sleep in dormitories divided off into cells by means of thin muslin curtains only, and it is hardly probable, although of course possible, that one of the number could steal out without attracting the attention of some of her companions, or that she herself would take the risk of going to the church and getting back to bed again, knowing that detection of her act, as an infringement of the vow of obedience, would subject her to a severe reprimand. It is said that weeks passed by and she did not confess. All nuns are required to go to confession once a week, so her failure to confess her trouble is also improbable. In a convent all letters pass through the hands of the Mother Superior. As "Sister Dolorosa looked at the envelope with indifference" she could not have recognized her lover's chirography, and would therefore have had no motive in breaking the rules of her order by reading her letter without first submitting it to the superior, or obtaining permission to read it.

Again, Mr. Allen may not know that in America, with the exception of one or two orders, nuns are not allowed to make perpetual vows, and if "Sister Dolorosa" found her affections irrevocably given to an earthly love, her way was clear to preserve her conscience and her heart too by an appeal to Rome for a dispensation, or by calmly waiting until the term of her vows expired and left her free. Also, in every convent there takes place at certain intervals what is called "the manifestation of conscience," during which any sister who desires to do so may tell the bishop under the veil of secrecy, and without even making known her name, of the anxieties either spiritual or temporal she may have, or if there be anything objectionable about the convent or its management; and if "Sister Dolorosa" had "manifested her conscience" her troubles would probably have been speedily untangled.

The whole plot would have to be reconstructed in order to make it probable or even possible. Fiction, when it transcends the sensational variety, is expected to be true to life, and judged according to that standard "Sister Dolorosa" is a failure. A nun who falls in love after she enters the convent is an anomaly. One may concede without any disrespect to the "religious" in general that in some cases it may be for the want of an opportunity, for it belongs to fallible human nature to make mistakes, and a woman whose vocation it was to live in the world and to get married may have entered the convent in a moment of misapplied zeal; but a fire, even the immaterial fire of love, cannot burn very brightly or very long without some kind of fuel. Mr. Howells in his criticism of "The Senator" says, apropos of Mrs. Armstrong, that "the pursuit of wives by villains is so very uncommon in our society as to be scarcely representative or typical." And with greater truth it may be said in regard to nuns that affairs of the heart are so uncommon as not to be typical.

Catholics must regret that Mr. Allen went to Balzac, Daudet, and Valera for his types of the nun in fiction,

and they must decidedly object to his assertion that those famous gentlemen are "devoted Catholics." They are hereditary Catholics, but their devotion is entirely of a negative description. Had he gone to Madame Craven, whose works are deservedly popular among the most cultivated readers in France, his ideas might have been different and more correct. There are a number of writers in Spain whose types of the religious character have been most beautifully and faithfully portrayed. Mr. Allen has also been unfortunate in his models of Catholic types in general. An examination of the stringent rules and severe discipline of any theological seminary would convince him that "Pepita Ximenez" is an impossible character. "Father Gaucher" is another, as a peep into a child's catechism would inform him, for a Catholic is taught that he is bound to flee the occasion of sin, and the prior of the monastery would have incurred the ban of mortal sin had he even permitted the weak father to continue his wine-making after learning his temptation, let alone compelling him to do so.

Foreign novelists who are not practical Catholics are hardly satisfactory authorities in regard to Catholic teaching and Catholic life. All religious denominations are conceded the privilege of themselves saying what they believe, and this privilege Catholics also claim. The Methodists, Quakers, and Shakers, whom Mr. Allen brings forward as having been freely used in fiction without making any outcry, were not portrayed in types antagonistic to their teachings and history. Had a Methodist deacon in good standing been represented as dancing the York at a public ball, a minister playing poker, a Baptist on a spree, a Presbyterian cheating at cards, a Quaker running a gambling-den, and their acts upheld

or covered up by their church authorities, there would probably have been objections — from the church-members on the score of inaccuracy, and from the critics on that of "bad art."

And now to answer Mr. Allen's questions. Certainly the American writer may avail himself of the conventual and monastic life as material for his art, but it does not follow by any manner of means that the tales located need give offense; on the contrary, if the portrayal be true to the type of monk and nun best known both to Protestants and Catholics, a great deal of pleasure may be afforded. He is also at perfect liberty to make use of unworthy monks and nuns, of unhappy ones, provided always that they are drawn true to life, and that the teachings of the Church and her discipline are not misrepresented. Most assuredly it is his privilege to "attack the Catholic idea," if he really knows what is the "Catholic idea," and that he is not attacking the creation of his own fancy set up as the Catholic idea. To concede yet more, he is at liberty to make use of any event in the history of the Church, any of her doctrines, practices, ceremonials, and institutions, either in praise or blame, if he make his delineations correct. Catholics insist only that the Church be not held responsible for the acts of individual members, nor for teachings imputed to her which her own creed does not confirm. Surely any Protestant denomination would put the same limitations.

As Mr. Allen's article on Gethsemane was both interesting and truthful, and as he gives no hint of malice in his story, Catholics are hopeful that his next venture in fiction will be free from the offenses and inaccuracies of his latest.

L. H.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

Kitty, my Colleen.

KITTY, my colleen, 't is you that look winsome
Spinnin' the wool, with your beautiful smile.
L'ave off and let your ould grandmother spin some,
I 've somethin' to whisper you out at the stile.
Troth! with your locks, love, so daintily curlin',
Your lips, that keep hummin' a fortunate tune,
And your weeshy white hands, that are twistin' and
twirlin',
You 're windin' my heart on the spindle, aroon!
Arrah thin, Kitty,
It 's you that look pretty,
S'tated so sweet at your ould spinnin'-wheel;
Winsome and winnin',
The while you keep spinnin'
My fate with your nate little ankle and heel!

You need n't mind tossin' your tresses so flaxen,—
Begorra, they 're fair as a fortune o' gold,—
And your hand, Kitty dear, is so weeshy and waxen,
The soggarth should give it to some one to hold.
And lips must be kissed if they 're redder than cherries,
And an arm sure was made to encircle a waist;
Faix! your lips are so like a bunch o' ripe berries,
I 'm thinkin', alanna, of thryin' a tashte.
Arrah thin, Kitty,
It 's you that look pretty,
S'tated so sweet at your ould spinnin'-wheel;
Winsome and winnin',

The while you keep spinnin'
My fate with your nate little ankle and heel.

Tundher and turf! it 's a shame beyond sinnin'
To sit so provokingly silent, ashore;
It 's high time for colleens to l'ave off their spinnin'
Whin the moon and their bouchals peep in at the
door;
So come to your Barney, my darlin' so winsome,—
Ah! Kitty, you 're breakin' my heart with your
smile,—
Whisht! aisy, aroon, let your grandmother spin some,
I 've somethin' to whisper you out at the stile.
Arrah thin, Kitty,
It 's you that look pretty,
S'tated so sweet at your ould spinnin'-wheel;
Winsome and winnin',
The while you keep spinnin'
My fate with your nate little ankle and heel.

Patrick J. Coleman.

The Prophets.

TIME was we stoned the prophets. Age on age,
When men were strong to save, the world hath slain
them.
People are wiser now—they waste no rage—
The prophets entertain them!

Charlotte Perkins Stetson.

EXTRACT FROM A LETTER OF AUGUST 19.

It is pretty generally acceded to that Terry's friends in the committee had to log-roll and stuff the box in order to save him. I know that some of the most conservative of that committee hurried Terry aboard the *John Adams* at two o'clock at night to save him from

the vengeance of the more rabid faction. The committee yesterday had a grand jubilee, and for the time being are retired from the public gaze, but nobody can doubt that in any case of danger to themselves they will again come on the tapis.

Your affectionate brother,
W. T. SHERMAN.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

The Christmas Century.

FOR the first time in many years THE CENTURY greets its readers with a regular old-fashioned Christmas number — with a difference. The difference may be felt in the absence of some of the approved conventionalities; but the Christmas quality, we think, will also be felt here and there throughout the number both in illustrations and text — sometimes ostensibly and objectively, sometimes subtly enough.

As one grows older in this world of realities, one begins to stiffen the back against the sentimental. True sentiment is upheld with force and arms against sentimentalism. As one grows older, still, in this world of realities, the back does not always so quickly stiffen even against the sentimental — even against the sentimental Christmas, even against the sentimental Christmas number. The present can hardly be said to be the "sentimental Christmas number"; but if the Christmas reader finds in it, and is pleased to find, a godly share of the true Christmas sentiment, how well content will be those who shall have — then successfully — gathered together the art and literature of the CHRISTMAS CENTURY!

Charitable Reform of High Public Value.

THE State Charities Aid Association, which has done so much during the last nineteen years to improve the condition of the inmates of poorhouses, almshouses, and other charitable institutions in the State of New York, is engaged in several new movements, all of which are most commendable, and two of which are of such vital importance that we wish to call special attention to them. Surely no time more fit could be chosen in which to speak of the humane work of this Association than the Christmas season.

Let us say at the outset that it is to the organization mentioned that the State owes the passage of the humane and most desirable law transferring the pauper insane from the county poorhouses to the State institutions provided for such patients. This was merely the culminating reform in a long series, beginning in 1872, when the Association was formed, and including such notable achievements as the initiation of tenement-house reform, the establishment of the first working-girls' clubs, and the establishment of municipal lodging-houses, all in New York City, and the establishment of temporary homes in Ulster, Westchester, and Queens counties. It should be borne in mind that the Associ-

ation is a voluntary body, and is supported entirely in its work by voluntary contributions. In other words, it is a body of humane men and women who have voluntarily given their time and energies to the task of making more comfortable the lives of the most helpless of their fellow beings, relying entirely upon the sympathetic aid of other humane men and women to defray the pecuniary expense of their labors.

It is to an association of this high and unselfish character that we call the attention of THE CENTURY'S readers, in the hope that needed assistance may thereby be encouraged from many quarters. The first of the two objects of the Association upon which we wish to dwell especially is the establishment of a State institution for epileptics and their removal from the poorhouses and almshouses. There are at present about five hundred such patients in the county and city institutions, in which there is for them no special medical treatment, little employment, and no training or education. Under such conditions of neglect and idleness the result is almost inevitably to make the victims of the disease permanent paupers. Under skilled medical treatment it cannot be questioned that some of them might be restored to health, and others might be so far benefited that they could be restored to their homes or friends. Many of them, either because of their infirmity or lack of training, have no occupation, and are unfitted to compete with able-bodied laborers in case they are discharged from the almshouses. If they were taught some useful calling while in them, their prospects for making their own way in the world, and leading happy and useful lives, after leaving the institutions would be greatly brightened.

The epileptics are almost the only defective class for whom society has made no especial provision. In an earnest plea for separate asylums for them which Dr. Frederic Peterson, a high authority on nervous and mental diseases, made a few years ago, he said:

The sufferer from epilepsy has been left to shift for himself, often an outcast from his family, usually expelled from the schools, denied industrial employment, shunned to a great extent by his fellows, left to grow up in ignorance and idleness, companionless and friendless, a prey to one of the most dreadful and hopeless of maladies, refused admission to general hospitals, and only at last given refuge in either an almshouse or insane asylum.

He is driven to find shelter in an asylum, not, as a rule, because he is deprived of reason, but because there is no other place for him to go. There are thousands of epileptics in insane asylums to-day who do not belong there, for many will be found among them who are not

insane, and it is an injustice to them, as well as a detriment to the insane, to associate the two classes.

When we take into consideration the fact that a large majority of these unfortunates are gifted with as much intelligence as ordinary human beings, that they are as capable of education, as well adapted for every-day pursuits, quite as able to be self-supporting as most people, the unutterable woes of this class become more apparent. But the conditions under which they may secure their proper mental development and their need of occupation must be such as combine medical supervision with wise industrial teaching and training.

Foreign countries have been far ahead of America in extending kindly and sympathetic aid to these unfortunate fellow creatures. Twenty-five years ago a colony for epileptics was established at Bielefeld, near Hanover, in Germany, by Von Bodelschwingh. "It seemed to its benevolent founder," says Dr. Peterson, "that it was feasible to create a refuge where such sufferers might be cured if curable; where their disease might be ameliorated, their intellectual decay prevented; where they might find a comfortable home if recovery were impossible; where they might develop their mental faculties to the utmost; might acquire trades or engage in any occupation they saw fit to choose; finally, to grow into a community of educated, useful, industrious, prosperous, and contented citizens." These ideas have been completely realized. The colony has expanded until it has over one thousand inhabitants, covers more than three hundred and twenty acres of beautiful woodland and meadow, has over sixty houses and cottages, surrounded by pretty gardens, excellent schools, shops of all kinds for selling and manufacturing the necessaries of life—in fact, is a village in all respects like to those of the more fortunate of God's people. Taking this colony as a model, nine others for epileptics have been established in Germany, one in Holland, one in Switzerland, and one in France, all of which are successful. The first of the kind in this country has recently been established in Ohio by the State. Surely New York and other States ought to follow in the good work at the earliest possible day.

The second of the objects to which the Association is bending its energies, and to which we most earnestly beg the attention of our readers, is the enactment of a law which will authorize a better system of commitments to the New York City Workhouse. A bill for this purpose was presented to the legislature last winter, but it did not become a law, though it had the support of all the charitable organizations in the city. The present system could scarcely be worse had it been designed especially to encourage and spread vice and crime. It sends chronic offenders over and over again on short sentences, which are often still further shortened by the committing magistrate in compliance with an order from a single Commissioner of Charities and Corrections. A former matron of the workhouse says of the influence of this system: "The workhouse has been since the first day of opening, and is now, but a place of recruit and a vantage-ground for a perfectly dissolute life. The daily changing element, the ten-day women, keep the links of information open between it and the haunts of vice in the city." The same thing is true of the men. As the Association said in a circular issued on this subject last spring: "It is an outrage against the unfortunate and young in vice that they should be forced into association with the criminal and vicious; it is an outrage against the community that

these old offenders should be allowed to spend their lives vibrating between the workhouse and these places of vice. Instead of being a moral quarantine, the workhouse is a place where contagion is nurtured and from which it is spread."

This is inevitable from the nature of the system. The constant entry and departure of chronic offenders brings about a perpetual changing in the population of the workhouse, which not only prevents all exercise of reformatory influences, but makes moral contamination easy and certain. Classification of a number of men or women who are in for only a few days is impossible. Over one half of all commitments are for ten days or less. A former warden says, with obvious truth, that "for many of the inmates a trip to the Island loses all terrors, and comes to be regarded as a rather pleasant diversion, giving them an opportunity to get thoroughly clean, a needed rest after a prolonged spree, and excellent medical attention." Statistics show that about 4000 persons were arrested, tried, and committed 10,000 times to the workhouse in 1887. As to commitments, the statistics show that about seventy per cent. of the women and forty per cent. of the men each year have been previously committed to the workhouse; 5895 women sentenced to the workhouse during the last six months of 1888 had aggregated since the beginning of the previous year (that is, twenty-four months) 23,126 sentences, an average of four apiece. One woman served twenty-eight sentences in twenty-five months, twenty out of the number being for ten days or less.

This is an outrageous condition of affairs to be found in a civilized community, and when we consider that the system described is in full operation, not in a small community, but in the largest city in the land, the imperative need of the reform becomes manifest. Last year's reform measure proposed a regulation sentence of six months for every case of intoxication, disorderly conduct, or vagrancy, and gave the Commissioners of Charities and Correction power to shorten the term in accordance with the record of the offender. A similar measure will be introduced again this winter, and it ought to be passed without opposition. It ought to be obvious to every intelligent mind that a vice-breeding and vice-spreading institution of this kind in the largest city in the country, a city to which the worst criminals drift as offering the most favorable field for their operations, is not only a disgrace to our Christian civilization but a peril to the well-being of the entire land.

We have selected these two from the list of the reforms proposed by the State Charities Aid Association, not because they were more deserving than the others, but because they seemed best calculated to attract public attention to the invaluable work in the cause of humanity which this excellent organization is doing. It is a work for the helpless and for the victims of criminal associations, and as such it commands very little popular sympathy, most people declining to take any interest in the work of improving the condition of portions of the population who are disagreeable for them to contemplate. For this reason, if for no other, the unselfish efforts of the members of the Association are worthy of the highest praise. There are, we are glad to believe, not lacking in this country, as in others, people who appreciate both the high importance of the work and the noble self-sacrifice of those who are

pushing it forward. We hope that many of our readers, as they contemplate this work, will take to heart the following impressive words, uttered by Bishop Potter at the public meeting of the Association which was held in Chickering Hall last May:

The post of mere observation in connection with charitable reform, if it goes no further, is a very dangerous position. As Bishop Butler, in substance, says, "Passive impressions, constantly repeated, unless they pass over into action, cease at last to touch the conscience or the will." It is a profound truth which no man or woman, in the midst of a Christian civilization like ours, threatened in so many ways, can afford to forget. You and I, my friends, must take the quickened feeling with which we have heard of this heroic work to-night, must be touched and moved by the fine examples of these men and women who, disdaining misapprehension and misrepresentation, without fee or reward, working always and everywhere without that stimulus of the large sympathy, of the more active and emotional sentiment of the community, have held on through all these years with such a fine courage, never losing their faith in the worth of their work, and making that work all the time larger and nobler and more real to every honest man or woman who looked at it.

All persons interested in the objects and work of the association can obtain its documents and other information by addressing Mr. Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, 21 University Place, New York City.

The "Per Capita" Delusion.

THE *per capita* argument has always been a favorite method for sustaining a demand for cheap money. Such demands invariably arise when times are hard, that is, when money is scarce. The cheap-money advocates, acting on the knowledge that a great many people are wishing that they had more money in their pockets, come forward with the explanation that the real cause of the trouble is the smallness of the monetary circulation, the volume of currency not being adequate for the demands of the business of the country. They point to other countries, like England, Germany, and France, saying that they have a much larger per capita circulation than the United States, and claim that everybody in this country would have more money in his pocket if a great addition of some form of cheap money—either irredeemable paper, or depreciated silver, or sub-treasury notes—were made to the currency.

The fundamental defect in the argument is that it confounds small circulation with small distribution. The trouble is not that the circulation is small, but that so many people fail to get much of it. If the circulation were to be doubled, or trebled, or quadrupled, what reason is there for believing that the people who have least at present would have any more? *How would they go to work to get some of the increase into their pockets?* This, as we said many months ago in one of our earlier articles in this cheap-money series, is the crucial question in all schemes for making money cheap and plentiful. How can a man who wants some of it obtain it except he give labor or goods in return for it? If he have labor or goods to sell, does it make any difference to him whether the volume of currency be large or small? Is it not always large enough to furnish payment for what he has to sell? And if he has anything to sell, would not he rather receive his payment in dear money than in cheap money? Was

there ever a man yet who did not desire to be paid for his wares in the soundest and best money obtainable? Who are the men who hope, in some mysterious manner, to get money into their pockets through a great issue of cheap money by the Government? Are they not, almost invariably, men who have nothing to sell in exchange for it?

It is difficult to see why the per capita argument should influence any one who thinks about it carefully. When we say that the wealth of the country, if divided equally among all its inhabitants, would be so many dollars per capita, nobody is seriously disturbed by the fact. Nobody says that there is not wealth enough in the country. The most usual observation is that it is a pity it cannot be more evenly distributed. But when the statement is made that the circulation is only \$23 per capita, many people are inclined to think that this is not enough, and that if we had more everybody would be in more comfortable circumstances. But would everybody get some of the increase in his pocket? If not, what would be the advantage? If the wealth of the country were to be doubled, where would the increase go? The greater part of it would go to the millionaires and other rich people who have most at present, while the people who have least would get little or none of it. So it would be with an increase of circulating medium. If the per capita were to be doubled, the ratio of the present division would be maintained. The people who had the most before would get the most of the increase, while those who had none before would get none now. The great want of the people who have none is not an increase in the volume of currency, but the discovery of a new method by which they can get some of the currency already in circulation into their pockets.

Statistics published lately by the Treasury Department demonstrate conclusively the fallacy of the per capita argument. These give the per capita circulation for each year from 1860 down to the present time, and show that there has been a steady rise from \$17.50 in 1870 to \$23.45 in 1891. If prosperity is determined by per capita, this country ought to be vastly better off in 1890-91 than it was in 1870, but, as a matter of fact, 1870 was one of the most prosperous years the country has ever known, while 1890 and 1891 will be known in history as years of almost unequaled financial and industrial depression. All through the years since 1878 we have been swelling the volume of currency by coining silver and gold to the amount of \$945,000,000, and have been issuing many millions more of silver notes and gold notes, till we have now a circulation of over \$1,500,000,000 against only a little more than \$655,000,000 in 1870.

Those persons who were complaining a few months ago, when money was scarce, that even this immense volume of currency was insufficient for the business needs of the country, and that if we had a larger circulation per capita there would be no such scarcity, were laboring under a misapprehension. They were confounding contraction of the currency with contraction of credit. Ninety-two per cent. of all the business of the country is done on credit, and only eight per cent. with actual currency. When, therefore, credit is unsettled, as it was by the impending peril of free-silver coinage, which would have lowered the standard of value as well as destroyed its stability, instantly a

serious monetary contraction was felt throughout all the avenues of trade. Instead of the trouble being one which an issue of cheap money would have remedied, it was one which owed its existence entirely to the mere threat of such issue. As soon as the threatened danger was averted, the stringency disappeared, and there has been no complaint heard since about a scarcity of money, either for "moving the crops" or for anything else.

Suppose now that free coinage of silver were to be authorized, what would be the effect upon the circulation? It is estimated that \$12,000,000 would be the extreme amount that it could add to the circulation. If the increase of nearly a billion since 1870 has not helped us, would twelve millions do it? And if we were to have free coinage, into whose pockets would the increase go? Not into those of the people, but into those of the men who sold the silver to the Government at a price greater than it would be worth as money after being coined. Those men would not put it into the pockets of the people, but would add it to their own wealth, and the only benefit the people would derive would be the opportunity to pay off their debts in a cheaper money than that in which they were incurred, provided they were able to get some of it in return for labor or goods.

Per capita arguments from foreign countries are all misleading. Nobody can tell what the per capita circulation of Germany, France, and England is, because those countries have a metallic circulation of large and unknown volume, with no small bank-notes like ours. The systems in all these countries are so different from ours that intelligible comparison is out of the question.

If size of per capita circulation determines prosperity, how does it happen that the Argentine Republic, with a per capita of over one hundred dollars, is in such financial, commercial, and industrial collapse? How did it happen that repeated additions to its volume of currency did not check its downward march to ruin?

The delusion behind the per capita argument is the same one that is behind all cheap-money panaceas. It is a belief, not always clearly defined, that a large issue of money by the Government will carry with it in some mysterious way an instrumentality for getting some of that money into the pockets of the people without the people giving anything in return for it. It is based on the idea that the Government can *create* money, and is a perfectly logical deduction from that idea, for if the Government can create money, there is no reason why it should not distribute it freely among the people. In fact, if the Government can create money, and by its own edict maintain it in circulation as good as any other money, *why should the Government levy taxes?* This question has been asked before, but we have never seen or heard an answer to it. If the Government can take 75 cents' worth of silver, and by declaring it to be a dollar make it worth 100 cents, why should it not do the same with 50 cents' worth, or 10 cents' worth, or with a piece of paper? And having done this, having by its fiat made a piece of paper worth a dollar, why, we ask again, should it not abolish taxation and support itself with the money of its own creation? If it were to do that it would give us a per capita circulation greater than any the world has yet seen.

The World's Columbian Exhibition.

THE World's Fair at Chicago in 1893, in commemoration of the discovery of America by Columbus, has long since passed the experimental and critical stage of its development. Ample assurance is now given that it will be not only one of the most comprehensive and complete international exhibitions ever organized, but will surpass all predecessors in the architectural beauty and extent of its buildings and the natural charm of its location. It will be an exhibition worthy of the United States and of the closing years of the nineteenth century.

It is not our purpose in this article to enter into a detailed description of the proposed buildings and their surroundings, but to give in as concise a manner as possible a statement of what has been accomplished in the work of organization up to the present time. Our desire is to show the readers of THE CENTURY that the country is going to have an exhibition which, instead of being local, or Western, or national, will be international in the largest sense of the term, and will be a demonstration of the country's first century of development that will be viewed with just pride by every American. Not only will the nations of the Old World take part in it, but eighteen sister republics and various colonies of the New World which Columbus discovered will be represented. Nearly or quite all of these have officially accepted invitations to send exhibits. A large number of them will have buildings of their own, many having already given notification to that effect.

The amount of money which is likely to be expended will be far in excess of what has hitherto been used in any similar display, and will help, perhaps better than detailed description, to convey an idea of the magnitude of the exhibition. Chicago is to provide \$10,000,000. It is believed by the managers that the other parts of the country will contribute for their State and Territorial displays at least \$5,000,000. The nations of the Old World, it is believed, will expend a grand total of at least \$10,000,000. Japan alone has appropriated \$500,000, and Germany \$250,000. The Central and South American republics and colonies, with Canada, will expend several millions more, and the grand total which will go into the exhibition from all the participants is placed by the managers at nearly or quite \$40,000,000. The Local Directory and the National Commission estimate the amount to be expended upon buildings and surroundings, under their immediate control, at \$18,000,000. This is more than double the amount expended for the same purposes at Philadelphia in 1876, and more than three times that at Paris in 1889.

No exhibition that has ever been held has had a site of such great natural attractiveness as that which has been selected in Chicago, and when it shall have been occupied by its buildings and its natural advantages developed to meet the demands of the occasion, we think it can safely be said that it will be the most superb setting ever given to such a purpose. The space is far larger than that of other exhibitions, comprising about 1000 acres, with a frontage of two miles on Lake Michigan. The Philadelphia exhibition grounds comprised 236 acres, and those of Paris 173. The buildings will be grouped upon the lake front, and flowing between them will be a system of canals and lagoons, from 100 to 300 feet in width, which will add greatly

to the picturesque appearance of the exhibition. This system will connect the small lakes already in Jackson Park, which forms the site, with Lake Michigan, and over this waterway, which will be a circuit of three miles in length, many bridges will be thrown. It will flow around a wooded island twenty or thirty acres in size, and down to its edges will slope broad grassy terraces leading from the principal buildings. The canals will connect with Lake Michigan at two points. At the southern point of the site, where the great main building is to stand, upon a jutting strip of land which runs 1200 feet into the lake, piers will be constructed, at which passengers can be landed from the steamers. Within the lines of these piers will be formed a wide harbor in which pleasure-boats of all descriptions and nationalities, used for carrying passengers about in the canals from one building to another, can lie.

There will be no fewer than twelve great buildings, all designed by American architects of high rank, and exceeding in beauty as well as in extent anything of the kind ever seen in this country. The estimated cost of these, with their names, is given in the following table :

| | |
|--------------------------|-----------|
| Administration | \$450,000 |
| Manufactures | 1,000,000 |
| Agriculture | 540,000 |
| Machinery Hall | 1,200,000 |
| Electricity | 375,000 |
| Mines and Mining | 260,000 |
| Transportation | 280,000 |
| Horticulture | 300,000 |
| Fish and Fisheries | 200,000 |
| Woman's Building | 120,000 |
| Casino and Pier | 150,000 |
| Art Palace | 500,000 |

Work on these buildings is already well under way, and by the time the new year arrives several of them will be under roof. The prevailing style of architecture is Italian Renaissance. In addition to wood, iron, and glass, there will be used in the construction of some of the buildings a kind of cement, or concrete, which will give an appearance of solidity, as well as a beauty of outline and color, quite unprecedented in structures of this kind.

Every effort will be made to secure in all departments of the exhibition the best expert service and the most complete displays possible. Especially it is believed that the electrical, art, and woman's departments will surpass all previous manifestations. All these will have magnificent buildings, and their displays will be in charge of people who have the highest qualifications for their work.

The time has more than come when all parts of the country should join hands to help the managers of the Fair, who have shown such energy and intelligence in its organization, to carry the enterprise to the full success which it merits. Those States, including New York, which have been backward in making their appropriations for exhibits, should not delay a moment after their legislatures meet in January to take action in the matter.

Chicago has shown that she possesses the public spirit necessary to give the Fair the widest international character and dignity, and we are confident that other parts of the country will not be found lacking in the same patriotic quality.

OPEN LETTERS.

John Boyle O'Reilly as a Poet of Humanity.

WHILE it is an excellent thing to apply our most exacting standards even to those writers, painters, architects, or sculptors of our time who are accomplishing what we believe to be the best work of their period or place, we ought to be quite as careful to perceive their special merit clearly and to give it cordial praise. On the same principle, when we find a strong, uncommon mind expressing itself perhaps with many imperfections, yet with singular force and sincerity, and with bursts of something akin to inspiration, it is wise to hold severe technical judgment in abeyance for a moment, in order to extract by sympathetic appreciation the largest measure of sterling value. In the first case, admitting a genius of commanding power and skill which easily makes malleable gold of its material, we may perhaps demand that he should have wrought it into still better form. In the second case we are examining the rough quartz, and our main business then is to appraise at its full worth the precious metal, only traces of which glitter in sight. John Boyle O'Reilly, regarded as a poet, must perhaps come under the quartz category, for much of his verse was written in haste and with a partial crudity due to the conditions. But there were occasions when, by the assay of strong emotion,

combined with his fine intellectual energy and the glow of a shaping imagination, he was able to separate the more valuable substance from its rock-bed in abundant purity.

As an artist in verse he too often fell short; yet the very marked increase of dexterity and delicacy in some of his later pieces demonstrated how well fitted he was by nature to rise to the higher plane of expression. His influence as a writer and as a man was very wide, not only among classes usually little affected by artistic literature, but also among many cultivated, refined, and sensitive minds. Yet his following was largely personal; and there is some danger that his influence, on this account, may pass quickly, or never be felt by those who did not know what he was. It is not of the artist in him, nor of his personality, that I wish here to speak particularly. It is rather the great, human, altruistic principle and sentiment for which he stood,—his impassioned conviction of human brotherhood, his desire to spread generous, unselfish maxims and ideals of manly, magnanimous thought and conduct,—which ought to be emphasized. For although there was not the slightest obscurity in what he wrote, literary people and the general public seem to be somewhat impervious to the fine, warm, noble spirit to which he so eloquently gave voice, often in such ringing music.

Quite early, in his first volume, he admitted that :

From soul to soul the shortest line
At best will bended be :
The ship that holds the straightest course
Still sails the convex sea.

But he persisted in enforcing the principle that if, at best, men find it hard in the nature of things to deal directly, and to understand each other fully, all the more reason is there for maintaining the highest standards, fostering the most humane, the tenderest, and most patient sympathies.

Steer straight as the wind will allow ; but be ready
To veer just a point to let travelers pass :
Each sees his own star — a stiff course is too steady
When this one to meeting goes, that one to mass.

In writing of the clash of two Irish brigades — one Federal, the other Confederate — " At Fredericksburg," he announced, praising both equally :

Who loveth the flag is a man and a brother,
No matter what birth or what race or what creed.

And, in " Resurgite," he said :

Earth for the people — their laws their own —
An equal race for all :
Though shattered and few, who to this are true
Shall flourish, the more they fall.

One of the most striking of his earlier pieces was " The Trial of the Gods," based on the episode of the Roman Senate voting to dethrone Jupiter in favor of Christ ; and after describing that episode, he applied the moral to present times, when, although we still give victims to Mars, and sacrifice to Venus, and honor Mercury, and Bacchus is not dead, still

We know the Truth ; but falsehood
With our lives is so inwove —
Our Senates vote down Jesus
As old Rome degraded Jove !

Such plain speaking as this is by no means always welcome. But if the reproaches, the appeals, and the warnings constantly uttered from our pulpits to counteract the evils of existing civilization be justified ; if the efforts of thinkers, scholars, humanitarians to evolve higher and more unselfish forms of social action be warranted — then O'Reilly's earnest sarcasms and trenchant condemnations may be not merely pardoned, but also heeded. To him Christ was real, and should be realized to-day by the complete embodiment in society and law of those great and tender principles which, nominally accepted, have not been truly carried out. Later, he returned to this theme in " Prometheus — Christ," exclaiming :

O dumb Darkness, why
Have always men, with loving hearts themselves,
Made devils of their gods ?

And then he says :

Christ walks with us to hourly crucifixion.

Justice ? The selfish only can succeed :
Success means power — did Christ mean it so ?

Mercy ? Behold it in the reeking slums
That grow like cancers from the palace wall.

But he finds hope in the truth that between us and the Darkness stand two forms, each " crowned eternally." One, wearing flowers and tender leaves, is Nature, smiling benignly :

and the other One,
With sadly pitying eyes, is crowned with thorns.
O Nature, and O Christ, for men to love
And seek and live by — Thine the dual reign,
The health and hope and happiness of men !

Him we must follow to the great Commune,
Reading his book of nature, growing wise
As planet-men, who own the earth, and pass.
Him we must follow till foul cant and caste
Die like disease, and Mankind, freed at last,
Tramples the complex life and laws and limits
That stand between all living things and Freedom !

There is a touch here of Shelley's enthusiasm for actual universal freedom ; but it is a Shelley devout, religious, well balanced. Doubtless it was very shocking to some readers that O'Reilly should cry out, in his powerful poem, " The City Streets," —

Take heed of your Progress ! Its feet have trod on the souls it
slew with its own pollutions ;
Submission is good ; but the order of God may flame the torch of
the revolutions !
Take heed, for your Juggernaut pushes hard : God holds the doom
that its day completes :
It will dawn like a fire, when the track is barred by a barricade in
the city streets.

And it could be no less painful to them to hear his arraignment of existing social wrongs and errors in " From the Earth, a Cry," where he wound up with,

God purifies slowly by peace, but urgently by fire.

But it should be remembered that when O'Reilly speaks of the " order of God " flaming revolution, he means the underlying harmony, the abiding and far-reaching law, which adjust things often by sudden and violent force.

I know well, from my talks with him, that no man deprecated more than he did riotous disturbance and upheaval for the correcting of wrongs. Others know as well that in a certain Irish convention at Philadelphia he more than any other was the active factor in fettering and crushing the " dynamite " party. And in " The Word and the Deed," he expressed his philosophy thus :

The Word is great, and no Deed is greater,
When both are of God, to follow or lead ;
But, alas, for the truth when the Word comes later,
With questioned steps, to sustain the Deed.
Not the noblest acts can be true solutions ;
The soul must be sated before the eye,
Else the passionate glory of revolutions
Shall pass like the flames that flash and die.
But forever the gain when the heart's convictions,
Rooted in nature, the masses lead :
The cries of rebellion are benedictions
When the Word has flowered in a perfect Deed.

Elsewhere he wrote :

Sorrow, next joy, is what we ought to pray for,
And, next to peace, we profit most from pain.

So, too, in " The Statues in the Block " (a remarkable piece of strong and polished blank verse, handled with fine skill, yet alive with deep reflection and exquisite feeling), he presented in another way the theory of unselfishness :

True love shall trust, and selfish love must die,
For trust is peace, and self is full of pain.
Arise, and heal thy brother's grief ; his tears
Shall wash thy love, and it will live again.

The moral which he instilled into the individual he prescribed also for the whole race. His teaching was that every one must be gentle, just, generous.

Hunger goes sleeplessly
Thinking of food ;
Evil lies painfully
Yearning for good.
Life is a confluence :
Nature must move,
Like the heart of a poet,
Toward beauty and love.

But now and again the revolt against things which are not as they ought to be and the fierce spirit of appalled prophecy would take hold upon him and move him strongly, and at such times he launched terrible words of admonition or spoke more mildly as a dispassionate seer of

The People's strength, the deep alluring dream
Of truths that seethe below the truths that seem.

At other moments he took the sagacious, practical view, reminding us tersely that

Like a sawyer's work is life:
The present makes the flaw,
And the only field for strife
Is the inch before the saw.

In epigram, indeed, he excelled, and I wish it were possible to quote here some of his diamond-pointed sayings. But throughout all his moods, whether those of the lyrist pure and simple, caroling joyously; the prophet and philosopher; the wit; or the enthusiast for real human advancement, he upheld unflinchingly the ensign of idealism, as in "The Cry of The Dreamer."

I am tired of planning and toiling
In the crowded hives of men;
Heart-weary of building and spoiling,
And spoiling and building again.
And I long for the dear old river
Where I dreamed my youth away;
*For a dreamer lives forever,
And a toiler dies in a day.*

Yet in his poem on the "Pilgrim Fathers," delivered at the dedication of the monument to the founders of New England at Plymouth, he spoke of them as

Dreamers who work — adventurers who pray!

He believed in having the dreamer work, after all. But he likewise believed that labor must be futile unless inspired by great and lofty idealism. His own life had been full of adventure, but he had learned that adventure was useless without prayer and a purpose. The breadth of Boyle O'Reilly's thought and the sincerity of his aim are evidenced in this poem. It was not one of his best, speaking technically, but it contained lines which will probably live after us. For example:

They had no model; but they left us one.

And, again, these:

No deathless pile has grown from intellect.
Immortal things have God for architect,
And men are but the granite he lays down.

O'Reilly's brighter side, his wit and fancy, his rude and stirring or picturesque presentation of Australian themes, cannot be touched upon here. But it has seemed worth while to point out the vital element of splendid humanity in many of his poems — the sterling democracy and fervor of liberty, tempered by farsighted wisdom and true gentleness, that inspired him. It is seldom that we get in our poetry, nowadays, anything so genuine, so outspoken, and, above all, so true to the supremacy of idealism.

George Parsons Lathrop.

The New England Kitchen.

IN one of the most thickly populated parts of Boston there is a corner store over the door of which one reads, "New England Kitchen." On entering the place a novel sight is found. Two long, narrow, high

tables, placed at right angles, answer for a counter over which food is sold. Within the inclosure made by these tables are placed a desk and a chair for the accommodation of the lady who has charge of the work done here. Along the walls there are shelves on which are placed glass jars and cooking-utensils. Farther down the room the lower shelves give place to tables, sink, boiler, etc. On the opposite side of the room some large windows and a door take about half the wall space. By the blank space are set two large steam-kettles for making soup, and a steamer for cooking vegetables. In the middle of the room there is a large gas-table on which boiling can be done. On one end of this table is a large flat vessel, partly filled with hot water, in which stew-pans filled with soup and chowder are placed to be kept hot. Large tables stand near the steam-kettles and the sink. At the upper end of the store, near the windows and doors, are two large Aladdin ovens. In other parts of the room are placed small cooking-apparatus, the fuel for which is either gas or oil; but these are not often used now. The whole room is flooded with light from the three windows and the two doors.

On descending a short flight of stairs there is found a basement of the same size as the upper room. Here there are three large Aladdin ovens in which beef stock is cooked, the two in the upper room being used for pressed and spiced meats, puddings, etc. All the meats are cut up in this room. The steam-boiler is placed here.

It was about eleven o'clock in the morning when I visited the kitchen. Said the young lady in charge: "The next two hours are the most interesting in the day. Will you sit here and watch the people come and go, or do you wish to ask me questions?"

As I wished to do both, we chatted while the work went on. Four persons were busily engaged in filling cans and pails with chowder and soup, wrapping them in some non-conducting material, and placing them in boxes or in fiber pails. These soups were to be delivered. The question of the economical delivery of the soups has not yet been settled, but that will come in time.

"We have to plan all sorts of ways to get the food hot to its destination," said the attendant. "You see those muff-boxes? They are for the teachers in the high and normal schools. Small cans are wrapped in non-conducting fiber and placed in these boxes. Of course the boxes wear out quickly, and have to be replaced, making their use expensive. Those large cans go to manufacturing establishments where women are employed, to some of the dry-goods stores, clubs, etc."

"Do you keep a man to deliver the food?" I asked.

"Our man does the greater part of it, but he could not do it all. There is a junkman across the way who delivers the school orders. Ah! here are my errand-girls. These two little girls take small orders from twelve to two o'clock. Some people are willing to pay five cents extra to have their lunches delivered, so the little girls take these small orders. Sometimes they have only one order, and sometimes four or five apiece. They each earn about eighty cents a week, which means a great deal to such poor children. It is wonderful how they improve in dress and general appearance when they have been doing the work for a few

months. They are honest and prompt in bringing back the money for the articles delivered."

Between eleven and one o'clock men, women, and children of all sorts and conditions come and go. A well-dressed gentleman takes a quart jar from his hand-bag, and has it filled. Is it for himself, or is he a doctor who is taking this nutritious and savory beef-broth to a patient? A feeble old man brings in his pail to be filled. Dainty-looking young women, who perhaps are workers in shops, or teachers, or possibly students who provide their own meals, take away in their shopping-bags soups, stews, chowders, pressed beef, and health bread. Little children, black and white, come with their pails, plates, bowls, and pitchers. Old and middle-aged women appear, some apparently prosperous, and others with the stamp of poverty and hard work fixed upon them. All the people are a most interesting study. The perfect cleanliness, the gracious manner in which customers are served, the quiet, order, neatness, and despatch with which the vast amount of work is done, are marvelous.

The reader may ask, What are the origin and aim of this New England kitchen? Is this a charity or a money-making enterprise? It is not exactly either; its object is to cultivate a taste for good, nutritious food, scientifically prepared from the cheaper food-materials. It started in the following manner. In 1888 Mr. Henry Lomb of Rochester, New York, offered two prizes, \$500 and \$200, for the best essays on practical sanitary and economic cooking. Seventy essays were submitted, but only one met all the conditions. This was entitled "The Five Food Principles, Illustrated by Practical Receipts."

Mrs. Ellen H. Richards of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, a member of the committee, had been interested for many years in the scientific selection and preparation of food. It seemed to her that if such a wide-spread publication of the conditions and rewards for essays on the selection and preparation of simple foods brought such poor returns, there was great need of some work to develop the knowledge and practice of scientific cookery. This undertaking was not a light one, and many things were necessary for the success of such an experiment—costly apparatus for laboratory and kitchen experiments; a woman with a taste for, and a practical knowledge of, cooking; a scientific training; the money to defray the expense of the project.

At this point Mrs. Richards thought of the author of the prize essay, Mrs. Mary Hinman Abel. Mrs. Abel is a college graduate who had spent five years in Germany with her husband, Doctor, now Professor, Abel of Michigan University. She had absorbed enough of the scientific spirit to flavor the work. Mrs. Richards met her in New York, and found that she would give six months to the work. At the end of that time she must join her husband.

As soon as Mrs. Abel's services were secured friends of the cause pledged the financial aid. The next thing was to find the proper place in which to start the work. The store at the corner of Pleasant and Winchester streets, Boston, was leased, and for six months Mrs. Abel and Miss Bertha Estey, her valued assistant, devoted themselves to the work of developing dishes and getting the kitchen into working order. This work was so admirably done that there has been no change

in the methods, although the work has been much enlarged and is still growing.

During the first six months there were perfected six standard dishes which stood the test of daily sale. They were nutritious, palatable, easily made and served, and suited to the popular taste. Others were soon added. Besides the many experiments made at the kitchen, analyses of some of the dishes were made daily or weekly at the Institute of Technology. These prices were fixed upon for the various articles: beef broth, 18 cents a quart; beef stew, vegetable, potato, and tomato soups, 12 cents; pea soup, 10 cents; fish, clam, and corn chowders, 16 cents; evaporated milk, 7 cents a half pint; pressed beef and spiced meat, 16 cents a pound; cracked wheat, oatmeal mush, corn mush, boiled white hominy, and boiled yellow hominy, 5 cents; hash, 8 cents; rice pudding, 12 cents a quart; Indian pudding, 15 cents; health bread, small loaves, 5 cents each; white bread, 5 cents a loaf.

Mrs. Abel's report covered the first six months of the work, a period which was largely experimental. When she joined her husband, her place was taken by Miss Wentworth, a cultivated young woman, graduated from Vassar College in 1879, and later a student at the Institute of Technology. The work grew to such an extent that the steam-kettles and gas-table became a necessity. The beef-broth is still cooked in the Aladdin oven, but the soups that require to be brought to the boiling temperature are made in the steam-kettles. The methods and standard of the work are kept as Mrs. Abel left them. From ninety to one hundred quarts of soup are sent out every day, and from seventy to one hundred and fifteen quarts are sold over the counter.

A particularly interesting fact came to light in the course of the conversation the day I visited the kitchen. Miss Wentworth said that on holidays and Saturdays the sale is very light, showing that the children of the greater part of the poor people are in the habit of doing much of the housework when out of school, and therefore at such times there is no need of going to the kitchen. On Mondays, too, the sales are light, a part of the Sunday dinner serving for the midday meal on Monday.

To the hard-working woman and her family the New England Kitchen is an inestimable blessing. Here on her busiest days she can get nutritious and savory food nearly as cheap as she could prepare it herself, even if she knew how. A branch of the kitchen has been established in another tenement-house region at the North End of the city. It is hoped that many such branches may be planted in various places.

But Boston is not the only city that is to be benefited by this work. Mr. Havemeyer has pledged six thousand dollars to Professor Eggleston for the establishment of a kitchen in New York. A superintendent has been engaged, and it is thought that the work will begin before the end of this year. A kitchen has just been opened in Providence, Rhode Island, and there is talk of establishing one in Buffalo, New York, as well as in several other places in various parts of the country.

I believe that the scope of the kitchens should be much larger; that, beside soups, it should be possible to prepare and sell the cheaper cuts of meat in the form of braises, and some combinations of meats and

vegetables which require long cooking, and therefore are out of the reach of the woman who must work outside of her home many days in the week. The managers of the New England Kitchen do not feel that they have reached a point where the work can go on without any addition or improvement; on the contrary, they are still experimenting slowly and carefully, and no doubt before many years pass they will have solved one of the greatest problems of the age—how the masses may be economically and well fed. When the people who to-day depend for two thirds or more of their food upon bakers' bread, pies, cake, and doughnuts, with tea or beer as a drink, are educated up to the point where they choose soups, well-cooked cereals, and good milk instead, there will be a great gain in their physical and moral condition. It is not that this country lacks the raw materials with which all the people could be well fed, but the material is ruined in the cooking. One has only to spend a little time in a few of our large institutions to see that immense quantities of food are spoiled in the unscientific methods of cooking. I think the New England Kitchen will do for good cooking what the Fleischmanns have done in the last fifteen years in this country for good bread. When they started the Vienna Bakery at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia they set the right example of bread-making. People acquired a taste for good bread, and demanded it, and they have been getting a better article every year. This will be the case with the people as they acquire a taste for savory, nutritious foods scientifically cooked.

Maria Parloa.

Parks and Playgrounds for Children.

THE New York Society for Parks and Playgrounds for Children was incorporated on November 18, 1890. Mr. Abram S. Hewitt is the President. Its purpose is to provide healthful recreation for the 500,000 boys and girls in this metropolis, and thereby help to counteract in New York the physical and moral degeneration which follows the crowding together of people in great cities. The movement began in an effort to open Rutgers Slip for the children of the Seventh Ward. In this division of the city are 75,000 people, most of them living in tenements, and there is not in the ward a foot of ground where children may play without interference by the police. Rutgers Slip is an open plot of ground 320 by 174 feet. For twenty years it has been covered with rubbish, and until a young man, walking summer before last through the overcrowded East Side in search of sites for possible parks, happened upon it, nobody seems to have thought of the place except as a potter's field for broken-down wagons and decrepit tinware. Through the efforts of the new society Rutgers Slip has been set aside for playground purposes by the city authorities, and the Park Board is now devising plans for improvement.

Meanwhile several ladies secured from the Astor estate permission to fit up as a playground a plot 50 by 100 feet in West Fiftieth street, near the North River. This is the first public playground in New York. At the time it was laid out Boston had 19 playgrounds, exclusive of the Common, and London had 365. New York has 5157 acres of parks for grown-up persons and

children on dress-parade. It had then no spot belonging to the children.

In 1887 the legislature of the State of New York, at the request of Mayor Abram S. Hewitt, passed the "Small Parks" Act, permitting New York city to expend a million dollars yearly in acquiring land and laying out small parks in the crowded districts. The provisions of this law are not being carried out as rapidly as the promoters of the project desire, and one object of the society is to induce city officials to purchase land for new parks to the extent permitted by the statute.

In August of last year a meeting was held to advocate turning the "Old Ball Ground" and "The Green" in the southwest corner of Central Park into a public playground. This meeting started a general movement which found expression in public meetings in halls and the open air, and in parades of workmen. At a meeting of the Park Commissioners held September 24, 1890, the matter was referred to Superintendent of Parks Samuel Parsons, and to the landscape-gardener, Mr. C. Vaux. These gentlemen, with Chief Engineer Kellogg, reported that the scheme was entirely feasible. They recommended the erection, at a cost of \$50,000, of a combined playhouse and bridge over the driveway which separates the two meadows, and the expenditure of \$25,000 in providing means for outdoor sports. The issue is still undecided.

On January 8 was opened the first public playground of the new society. William R. Stewart secured from the Rhinelander estate the indefinite free lease of a plot of ground 200 feet square and extending from 91st to 92d street in Second Avenue. This plot has been graded at a cost of \$1000 and inclosed by a high board fence. Two young enthusiasts have been placed in charge, and the playground has been fitted up with swings, wheelbarrows, shovels, toy wagons, and saw boards for small children. For the older boys games like foot-ball and "pull-away" are organized, and races and other athletic exercises encouraged. The most popular diversion is a parade with drums, banners, and American flags. The first parade ended in a riot, in which one of the well-meaning but unappreciated organizers was pelted with stones; but the boys have now learned the practical value of discipline, and the parades are successful.

Individual life in New York is so active that friendships between old and young, which are common and helpful in the country, are almost unknown. Parental influence is also very slight, and this condition obtains not only among the working masses but among the pleasure-seeking classes. Children are isolated in New York. Those of the poor are constantly subject to the contaminating influences of the street without the tonic of a healthy home life. The tendency of modern living is not toward the home, but toward the street, the saloon, the school, the lecture-hall, the restaurant, the reading-room, the night classes, the vices of the dark—toward everything and every place that means aggregation. The children live in a state of imperialism while in the school-room, and lapse at once into a state of anarchy when they leave. To them law and discipline are tyranny and disobedience is freedom. The Society for Parks and Playgrounds believes that the easiest way to teach children ethics is by object-lessons, and it purposes adding a course in democracy to the

lessons in autocracy and anarchy which children imbibed in the schools and streets. The society intends to furnish not only playgrounds but organizers of games. It purposes to find instructors who will join with the children in their sports, teach them the economy of organization, and demonstrate that the happiness of the individual depends upon the harmony of his relations with his associates. All this must be taught by example and not by lecture, and tact, patience, and enthusiasm are necessary in the teacher. The society believes, however, that the result in bodily health and mental discipline will repay the effort.

Briefly stated, then, the objects of the New York Society for Parks and Playgrounds are these:

To furnish eventually, for all boys and girls, at pub-

lic expense, the playgrounds which not even wealthy parents now provide for their children.

To invoke immediately private liberality in furnishing temporary playgrounds which shall be models for municipal imitation.

To secure, in public parks, plots specially devoted to children's recreation.

To obtain the coöperation of labor-unions and political organizations.

Similar societies should be formed in all large cities. The smaller towns and villages should set apart large open spaces for the children now while land is cheap. The physical welfare of the children means the happiness of future humanity; and this deserves one thought even in the rush and whirl of modern business.

Walter Vrooman.



IN LIGHTER VEIN.

• Understood.

I LOVED a maiden once as well
As she was passing fair,
And that is more, the truth to tell,
Than now to love I 'd care;
And she would let me kiss her hand
When I 'd been very good—
That is, if I would "understand."
At length I understood.

I asked her for her photograph
To light my lonely room;
She laughed a merry little laugh,
But left me to my gloom;
For that was such a "strange" demand
She did not think she could—
Because I might not "understand."
And then I understood.

I wooed her in the morning, noon,
And afternoon, and night,
I would have fetched the very moon
And stars for her delight;
She said my love was truly grand,
And that some day she would—
And hoped that I would "understand."
How well I understood!

At last I took by force of arms
The kisses she denied;
Her dimples were her chiefest charms,
And so she never cried,
But faltered as with nimble hand
She rearranged her snood,
"I knew you would n't understand!"
But I *had* understood.

William Bard McVickar.

Smithy Song.

WHEN I am half a-dreaming,
And only half asleep;
When daylight's grayest gleaming
'Gins through the blinds to peep,
Oh, then I hear the dinging
Of the smithy hammers ringing,
Ching ching, ching ching,
Ching ching, ching ching.

At eve when I 'm returning
From labors of the day,
Their forges yet are burning,
And still their hammers play;
And oft the smiths are singing
To that measured, merry ringing,
Ching ching, ching ching,
Ching ching, ching ching.

Often with rhythmic bending
Of bodies to and fro,
They toil in couples, sending
The sparks out, blow on blow;
One hammer always swinging
The while the other 's ringing,
Ching ching, ching ching,
Ching ching, ching ching.

O merry anvils sounding
All day till set of sun!
It is by steady pounding
That noblest tasks are done.
By sturdy blows and swinging
That keep the world a-ringing,
Ching ching, ching ching,
Ching ching, ching ching.

George Horton.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

The Progressive Discovery of America.

THIS number of THE CENTURY goes to its readers on the first day of the "Columbus year." It is a year which THE CENTURY will commemorate in many ways, one way being a series of articles describing and illustrating the remarkable architectural beauties of the Columbian Exposition at Chicago next year. It is the object of that exposition to celebrate, in a manner worthy of our position and power as a nation, the discovery of this country by Columbus four hundred years ago. Delay in reaching a decision as to a site made necessary a postponement till 1893, but a celebration in that year will be scarcely less appropriate than it would have been in 1892. In fact, it would be appropriate in any year between 1892 and 1898, for discoveries were made almost continuously by Columbus and other navigators between 1492 and 1498, and it was not till the latter year that he set foot upon the soil of the continent of America.

In his first voyage, which began on August 3, 1492, and ended on October 12, Columbus discovered only the Bahama Islands, landing first upon one of them which its Indian inhabitants called Guanahani. For a long time the weight of authority was in favor of San Salvador as being the one which most nearly meets the confusing descriptions which Columbus himself wrote of his landing-place, but the "weight of modern testimony," says Justin Winsor in his latest work, "Christopher Columbus," "seems to favor Watling's Island." Columbus visited several other islands, including Cuba, during this first voyage, discovering among other things that the Indians of Fernandina lived in houses shaped like tents, "with nets extended between the posts, which they called *hamacs*,—a name soon adopted by sailors for swinging beds." The rude cut which Winsor gives of these *hamacs* shows them to be in construction and shape the exact counterpart of the netted hammocks of to-day.

The second voyage of Columbus began on September 25, 1493, and the first land sighted was one of the Caribbee Islands, which he reached on November 3. He landed and named it Dominica. He passed on, discovering other islands in this group, reaching the islands discovered on his first voyage on November 22. He spent a great deal of time in searching for gold, especially for one marvelously rich mine which the Indians always told him was somewhere not far in advance of where he was. He became so eager in the search for this mine that the Indians soon learned to hold up a nugget of gold and exclaim: "Behold the Christians' God!" It was while in the Bahamas on this second voyage that Columbus wrote to his sovereigns in Spain proposing a slave trade in the savages of the New World. He remained in the Bahamas till March 10, 1496, exploring the greater part of the time and discovering additional islands, including Jamaica.

Columbus began his third voyage on May 30, 1498,

and on July 31 he discovered and named Trinidad, landing upon that island and giving it its name because of its triple-peaked mountain which reminded him of the Trinity. He looked across the channel which separates Trinidad from the low country of the South American continent about the mouths of the Orinoco, and supposed the coast which he saw stretching away for twenty leagues to be that of another island. On his two former voyages he had insisted that Cuba was a continent, and not an island. And now when he was for the first time in sight of a continent he supposed it to be an island. He tasted the water which washed the shores of Trinidad, and, though greatly surprised to find it fresh, he did not dream that it was made so by the waters of a mighty river which drained a continent. The precise date on which Columbus first set foot on the continent is not known, but it is believed to have been August 5, 1498. The precise spot is also uncertain, but it is known to have been on the shores of the Gulf of Paria, near some of the many mouths of the Orinoco. After sailing along the coast for several days, he returned to the colony he had founded at Hispaniola, now Hayti, in the Bahamas, remaining there till October, 1500, when he was sent back to Spain a prisoner in irons.

On his fourth voyage, which began May 9 or 11, 1502, Columbus discovered the island of Martinique, and sailed across the Caribbean Sea to the coast of Honduras, landing near the cape of Honduras on August 17. He then sailed along the coast of Costa Rica and the Isthmus of Panama, till December 2, when he turned backward and set sail for Hispaniola. On November 7, 1504, he returned for the last time to Spain, and his discoveries were at an end.

He had discovered the continents of Central and South America, but had not set foot or eye on the continent of North America. He died in ignorance of the fact that he had discovered a new world, adhering to the last to his theory that the lands and countries he had found belonged to that part of Eastern Asia which the ancients called India.

A year before Columbus discovered the South American continent John Cabot discovered the island of Newfoundland, and sailing through the strait of Belle Isle coasted along the shores of the North American continent. It was held for many years that he sailed as far south as Florida, but this is now considered to be very doubtful. At all events, it is conceded that in June, 1497, he saw some portion of the North American continent, but he, like Columbus, had no idea that he had found a new world, merely supposing the land he saw to be an extended peninsula of Europe, infolding the North Atlantic.

Americus Vesputius is claimed to have discovered the continent of South America in 1497, while Columbus was making ready for his third voyage, and this claim has long vexed historians, who are still divided in opinion about it, though the weight of opinion is

against it. But while Columbus was bending all his mental energies to making his discoveries harmonize with his theory that the lands he had found belonged to India or Eastern Asia, Vespuccius published a clear and graphic description of the new lands he or Columbus had found, giving to them for the first time the name of *Mundus Novus*, New World. This name suited so well the glowing descriptions which Vespuccius wrote, that it took a powerful hold upon the popular imagination, with the result of investing Vespuccius with all the honors of discovery and giving his name to the New World he had pictured in such graphic colors.

Alabama's Thousand-Dollar-a-Day Blunder.

ALABAMA'S experience with banking "in the interests of the people" was in some respects similar to that of Michigan with "Wild-cat" banks, described in the November CENTURY. Like that of many other States at about the same period, it resulted in complete collapse, with great financial loss to the people whom it was designed to benefit, a serious impairment of the State's credit, a flood of public scandal, and a heavy burden of debt. The history of Alabama's blunder is so full of instruction for those who believe in State or national agency for making everybody prosperous by means of liberal banking and cheap money, that we shall set it forth in some detail.

Alabama went into the banking business as a State in 1823, when its legislature passed an act for the establishment of the Bank of the State of Alabama, the capital, which was not limited to any amount, to be furnished entirely by the State. The management of the bank was intrusted to a president and twelve directors, who were to be chosen annually by joint vote of the legislature. The only limit put to the volume of notes which the bank should issue was that they should be in such sums as the president and directors might deem "most expedient and safe." Certain public funds were set aside to constitute part of the capital of the bank, and in addition the State was authorized to issue State stock to the amount of \$100,000, redeemable within ten years, and bearing interest not exceeding 6 per cent. The bank began business in 1825. Three years later it was authorized to issue \$100,000 more of State stock, redeemable in twenty years, at a rate of interest not exceeding 6 per cent. In the same year other public funds, aggregating \$1,300,000, were added to the capital. Five years later about \$500,000 of State University funds were transferred to the bank as capital. Between 1832 and 1835 four branches of the State Bank were established in as many cities, and State bonds to the amount of \$6,300,000 were issued to supply them with capital.

The design of the founders of the system was to distribute the bank money as evenly as possible among the people of the State, and with this end in view the original act stipulated that the money loaned by the bank should be apportioned among the several counties of the State according to their representation in the legislature. At first no limit appears to have been placed to the amounts of a bank's money which its president and directors could themselves borrow. The result was that they borrowed as much as they wished and loaned it to their friends on such security as seemed satisfactory to themselves.

The choice of president and directors by the legislature, designed to give the people control of the bank's management, led to gross corruption and abuse, being aided greatly in these directions by the requirement for equal distribution of loans throughout the State and by the lack of any limit upon the sums which the president and directors could borrow. When the several branches had been established, each with its president and directors, there were annually to be chosen by the legislature between sixty and seventy directors. In their campaigns for election to the legislature, candidates would point to the requirement for the equal distribution of loans among the people, and promise each one of their supporters a loan in case of election. Before members who had been elected after such pledges, the candidates for bank directors had to go for election. Mr. J. H. Fitts, of Tuscaloosa,—to whose valuable paper upon the history of the State bank and its branches, read by him before the Alabama Bankers' Association in June, 1891, we are indebted for most of the information in this article,—says the number of candidates for directors was usually two or three times as great as the number of places to be filled, adding: "For, it must be remembered, the office of bank director, without salary or any emolument whatever, was regarded by many as the most lucrative office in the State. The legislature was annually beset by a horde of greedy adventurers, who were candidates for bank directors, and who resorted to all kinds of electioneering tricks and promises to secure their election. Unfortunately for the banks, the votes of too many members of the legislature were controlled by the liberality of candidates in promising bank discounts to them and their friends." Mr. J. W. Garrett, in his "Reminiscences of Public Men in Alabama," gives an amusing incident illustrating this abuse. A member of one branch of the legislature died while a campaign for the election of bank directors was in progress, and all his fellow members wore the usual badge of crape on the arm for thirty days. A shrewd countryman from a remote county, who was on a visit to the State capitol, noticing that all the men with crape were the recipients of "treats" of all kinds, including cigars and suppers galore, put a similar badge upon his own arm and had a royal good time for several days before the imposture was discovered.

Mr. Fitts relates that one of the hotel-keepers of Tuscaloosa succeeded in getting himself elected a bank director in 1832. "The increased patronage of his hotel was wonderful; many members of the legislature and a great majority of the persons who visited Tuscaloosa to borrow money stopped at his hotel with the view of securing the influence of the proprietor with the Board of Directors, which passed upon all applications for money." Four other hotel-keepers in the same city, realizing that there was no other way in which to compete with such attractions, became candidates, and in 1834 they were all elected. On one occasion, when the five hotel-keepers constituted a majority of the Board of Directors, and had discounted a great many notes and bills, each note or bill receiving the ardent advocacy of one of the hotel-keepers and the votes of all five, a note was passed around which received nobody's support, and was about to be rejected, when the president, who was not in sympathy with the majority, remarked quietly of the signer of the note: "This man must have camped out last night."

Of course, members of the legislature had great influence on the directors. "No director," says Mr. Fitts, "could expect the vote of a member whose bill he refused to discount. This made it an easy matter for members of the legislature to borrow money for themselves and their friends. The directors were even afraid to refuse to discount paper which was recommended by a member of the legislature."

There could be only one outcome of such a state of affairs. The State bank had, in 1826, a capital of \$253,646 and a circulation of \$273,507. In 1837 the capital of the State bank and its branches had reached \$7,889,886, and the circulation \$4,576,752. The notes discounted and bills purchased in 1826 amounted to \$448,859; in 1837 they amounted to \$17,693,983. A commission which had been appointed, because of alleged bank frauds, to investigate the character of these notes and discounts estimated that over six millions of the \$17,693,983 were worthless. This made the liabilities of the banks nearly seven millions greater than their assets, and made it plain that something heroic must be done to prevent immediate collapse. Only a year before, the people believed themselves to be enjoying boundless prosperity. They had such faith in the money of their banks that the legislature, on January 9, 1836, passed an act "abolishing direct taxation in the State," and setting aside \$100,000 of the bank money to defray the expenses of the State government. That was a practical application of the contention that if a State can create money then there is no need of taxation. The people of Alabama in this respect carried the cheap-money idea to its logical conclusion. They made the test when they were in the midst of what are known as the "flush times of Alabama." Everybody had little difficulty in getting some money into his pocket. Yet scarcely had the test begun when a panic swept over the State, and it was discovered suddenly that something was the matter with the financial and business situation. The legislature was summoned in special session to devise means of relief. The demand from all quarters was for more money for the people, and it was decided by the legislature to heed it, by authorizing the State to loan the people \$5,000,000 more through the banks. This was in June. In December following, a further loan of \$2,500,000 was made. These extreme measures only postponed the inevitable collapse, while adding greatly to its disastrous consequences. In 1842 the charters of the branch banks were repealed, and in 1845 that of the State bank expired by limitation.

When the results came to be summed up, it was discovered that the University and other funds, aggregating several millions of dollars, had been lost, and that the State had sunk with them many millions more. Mr. Fitts placed the total loss to the State, principal and interest, up to June, 1891, at over \$31,000,000, and estimated the amount of interest which the taxpayers are called upon annually to pay on account of the lost funds and outstanding bonds at over \$271,000 a year. In a recent speech which Governor Jones, of Alabama, made in Camden County, he placed the total amount of taxation for these objects at \$362,000 a year, or nearly \$1000 a day. This gives us a concrete example of the cost of cheap-money experiments which is of great value. Governor Jones used it very forcibly as a warning to his people against the insidious teachings of the advocates of the subtra-

sure scheme, for the latter plan in many respects resembles it. As Mr. Fitts well says, the Alabama experience "demonstrates the folly of a government attempting to carry on a banking business with public funds managed or controlled by its politicians."

Mississippi's Crop-Moving Currency.

MISSISSIPPI'S experience with cheap money, during the period of inflation and speculation which followed the removal by President Jackson of the public deposits from the United States Bank, and the refusal to recharter that bank, was more reckless than that of Alabama, and consequently more disastrous. It began in 1833 and ended in 1840. For five or six years the people of Mississippi believed themselves to be the richest and most prosperous on the face of the globe. Everybody had all the money he wanted, and if he needed more the banks would pour it out for him. Yet when the end came everybody discovered that he was so poor that the State arose as one man, and repudiated its most solemn obligations, thus adding breach of faith to its other follies. In this respect its conduct was in most unfavorable contrast with that of Alabama, though the disasters both suffered had been brought on by similar causes.

"Nowhere," says Professor William G. Sumner in his "History of American Currency," in commenting upon the developments of this period, "had the paper-money mania raged worse than in Mississippi, where the banks operated as cotton factors, manufacturing money to carry cotton as they needed it." The experiment began in 1833 when the State came to the aid of the Planters' Bank of Mississippi, which had been chartered three years before, by issuing \$2,000,000 worth of bonds, at six per cent. interest, to be used as the bank's capital. The avowed object was to enable the bank to "aid in developing the resources of the State." The bonds sold at a premium, and the bank had a remarkable prosperity during the following year. This was so encouraging that nine new banks were chartered in 1834, and many others in following years. In 1838 the State, desiring to get a larger share in the general prosperity brought on by such liberal banking, chartered a bank of its own, called the "Union Bank of Mississippi," and issued \$5,000,000 worth of bonds at five per cent., most of which were sold in Holland at their par value, bringing into the State the largest sum of money its people had ever dreamed of possessing. The whole State went wild with a fever of speculation. The smaller banks did their best to rival the Union Bank, and all vied with one another in pouring out currency, making loans and discounts, and publishing fabulous accounts of their great prosperity.

At the close of 1839 the twenty-six banks in the State professed to have a paid-up capital of over \$30,000,000, loans and discounts exceeding \$48,000,000, a note circulation exceeding \$15,000,000, and deposits aggregating nearly \$9,000,000. As the free white population of the State at that time was only 170,000, the alleged paid-up capital per head equaled \$180, loans and discounts \$285, and the circulation, including deposits, \$140. Here, surely, was the largest *per capita* circulation ever known, larger by \$40 than what our wildest cheap-money advocates demand now, yet what was the result?

At the moment of greatest apparent prosperity, when everybody believed himself rich and hourly growing richer, the entire system collapsed. It was then discovered that all of the boasted \$30,000,000 of paid-up capital, with the exception of the money that had been borrowed on the bonds of the State, consisted of "stock notes" which had been paid in for capital, the banks discounting them and the proceeds going to pay for stock subscriptions. This was simply an exchange of one form of credit for another. Absolutely no money had gone into the banks except that obtained by the sale of State bonds, and when that was exhausted nothing remained but entries upon the bank records for indebtedness from which nothing was ever to be realized.

In summing up the result, Mr. Henry V. Poor, from whose "Money, its Laws and History" we have obtained much of our information, says:

The \$48,000,000 of loans were never paid; the \$23,000,000 of notes and deposits never redeemed. The whole system fell a huge and shapeless wreck, leaving the people of the State very much as they came into the world. Their condition at the time beggars description. Society was broken up from its very foundations. Everybody was in debt without any possible means of payment. Lands became worthless for the reason that no one had any money to pay for them. The only personal property left was slaves, to save which such numbers of people fled with them from the State that the common return upon legal processes was in the very abbreviated form of "G. T. T., gone to Texas, a State which in this way received a mighty accession to her population.

The State paid the interest on the bonds issued for the banks for less than a year, when the governor informed the bondholders that the State, "in her sovereign capacity, had refused payment of her bonds." This position the legislature sustained in 1842 by adopting a report of a committee declaring payment of the bonds to be "incompatible with the honor and dignity of the State." The State's conduct was defended on the floor of Congress by Jacob Thompson, afterward President Buchanan's Secretary of the Interior. The bondholders had the question of the constitutionality of the bonds brought before the highest court in the State, and obtained a decision in their favor, the court affirming their constitutionality and declaring them to be binding obligations upon the State; but as no execution could issue against the State, the bondholders could obtain none of their lost money. As late as 1853 some of the bondholders, by persistent efforts, obtained from the legislature an act referring the question of payment to the people. The people voted that the bonds should not be paid, thus adding the final and overwhelming touch to the State's disgrace.

Surely there cannot be found in the long and almost inexhaustible calendar of cheap-money experiments a more striking moral lesson than this Mississippi history affords, for a system which destroys not only the material prosperity of a people, but its moral sense as well, is one that should be shunned like a pestilence.

Attacks upon Public Parks.

THE fight to prevent the injury and impairment of public parks, large and small, appears to be a perpetual one. There is always springing up some new person or persons possessed with a craving, as absorbing as it is mysterious, to get into a park of some kind and do harm to it in one way or another. If the park be a

small one in a great city, the hostile attack takes the form of a request to run a railway across or over a corner of it, or to be granted a section for a railway station or some other semi-public use. Plausible reasons are always advanced in support of such propositions, the chief of which usually is that the public convenience will be greatly enhanced by the incursion. A few years ago it was proposed with much seriousness to run an elevated railway across the Central Park, and it was claimed that the structure might be of such architectural beauty as to constitute an additional charm for the park. Again it was proposed to construct along the entire length of one side of the same park a speeding-track for horses which should be devoted to fast driving by the owners of blooded horses. In Boston and other cities the proposition is made anew every year to allow the city parks to be used as training- and parade-grounds for the militia.

The attacks upon the great parks, those of the Adirondacks, the Yosemite, the Yellowstone, differ only in degree. Somebody wishes to run a railway into or through them, or to construct a highway across them, or to use portions of them for some kind of private enterprise of a profitable nature. The mere sight of so much property lying idle appears to be irritating to the utilitarian spirit of the age. Men wish to get at it and make it earn something for them. And the first excuse that they make is that their particular project will be a great public convenience. If it be a railway that they propose, they say it will not injure the park, but bring its beauties and delights within easy reach of thousands of people who otherwise would never be able to enjoy them. If they wish to cut down trees, they say they only desire to do so in order to improve the views, to "open vistas" from hotels and thus increase the enjoyment of visitors. "Opening vistas" has long been the favorite device of park desolators all the way from New York city to the Yosemite Valley, and is one of the most extreme and violent forms of park vandalism ever invented.

All these attacks are open to the same objection, which is unanswerable, that they remove, in part if not entirely, the very qualities which are essential in a park. The prime essential of a park in a great city is that the noise and turmoil of the streets cease at its gates, and that within is quiet, an opportunity to enjoy nature in its cultivated aspect, and a certain freedom of action within limits which are prescribed only for the greatest good of the greatest number. Every respectably behaving person has as much freedom there as if he were in his own grounds. All is as free to him as it is to every one else. A railway across or over such a park, or a use of any part of it for a semi-public purpose, destroys both its quiet and its democratic equality, and its main charm has been taken away.

In the case of a great park like the Adirondack, or the Yellowstone, or the Yosemite, the essential quality is that of a solitude, a wilderness, a place of undisturbed communion with nature in all her primitive beauty, simplicity, and grandeur. For such a solitude vast domain and practically complete separation from the developments of civilization are indispensable. Run a railway into such a place, and it ceases at once to be a wilderness. Nature flees, never to be brought back again. With her go the wild game which attracted the huntsmen and made camp life,

with all its restfulness and strength-giving qualities, possible.

A few years ago the Adirondacks were a wilderness throughout almost their entire extent. To gain access to some of their most charming solitudes, it was necessary to ride forty or fifty miles by stages, an entire day being necessary to "get into the woods" after the railway journey had ended. In those days fish and deer and other game were plenty, and a camper could pass weeks and months without encountering more than a few casual signs of civilization. Then came the railways; two of them were allowed to penetrate the wilderness so far that a journey by rail could be made to points within an hour or two of the parts hitherto most inaccessible. What had been a wilderness became instantly a "summer resort." Cheap hotels and boarding-houses sprang up everywhere, and the woods were literally filled with visitors from all quarters. The whistle of the locomotives drove the deer into the deepest recesses of the forests, and the hordes of visitors, who had neither a genuine love of sport nor a respect for game laws, soon cleared the streams of fish. Now it is proposed to run a railway across and through the Adirondack region, opening up a large portion of it to settlement. This attack has been defeated temporarily, but it has not been abandoned. If it shall succeed ultimately, the Adirondack wilderness will soon be a thing of the past.

For a long time the Yellowstone Park was threatened with a similar destruction, but the commendable action of the President, under authority of the last Congress, seems to have removed it for all time. Repeated attempts were made so to increase the size of the park as to have it include the watershed of all the streams which flow into the Yellowstone Lake, but legislation with this end in view was for a long time prevented by a railway lobby, in the interest of a road across one portion of the park, an invasion which would be made impossible by the proposed addition. On the last day of the session, however, Congress passed an act authorizing the President to declare that the additional territory desired had been "withdrawn from entry" and should remain the property of the nation. He has so declared, and the danger of destruction by means of railways is safely and permanently passed. Congress ought next to provide the park with a superintendent, at a salary which would make it possible to obtain the best expert talent for the purpose.

The condition of affairs in the Yosemite Valley during the past year has been such as to confirm the fears of lovers of that wonderland as to its future, and to show that the temperate warnings sounded in this magazine two years ago were not without solid basis of fact. To judge from the reports of credible and disinterested observers, the actual destruction of scenery has been, to a certain extent, curbed by the force of public criticism. Miles of fence,—the existence of which was denied,—have been taken down, and injurious schemes which were mooted in official quarters have apparently been abandoned. Yet there is nothing to show that the Commission has in any way changed its attitude toward the main criticism of its policy—the failure to intrust the supervision of improvements affecting the scenery to experts of proved capacity. On the contrary, moderate, respectful, and understated criticisms of the policy of these public servants have

been met officially by abusive personalities and by a sweeping denial of evident facts, while at the same time the Commission was engaged in a so-called "improvement" of Mirror Lake, which, it is said, has resulted in depriving it of much of its exquisite sylvan beauty. The issue is clearly joined—whether or not the Yosemite shall be intrusted to hands of adequate skill and taste. In the face of the Commission's announced intention to cut down all the underbrush and trees of thirty years' growth in the valley, it would be superfluous to discuss what has already been done in the way of destructiveness. Part of it was highly objectionable in itself; part of it as symptomatic of a bad state of affairs in the Board of Control. We are far from saying, and have never said, that no trees should be cut in the valley, but we do maintain that the present Commission has demonstrated its incompetence to decide upon these and other important details of this character.

Above and beyond the question of the landscape management of the valley lies another question—whether or not the Commission, which is the agent of the State as the trustee for the nation, has at any time lent its countenance to the building up in the Yosemite Valley of a financial monopoly, sustaining itself by obnoxious means. With the single desire that the valley shall be properly managed, we have reluctantly come to the conclusion that the surest, if not the only, way to preserve this reservation for the highest public uses is to bring about its recession to the General Government, and thus to merge it into the management of the greater National Park which now surrounds it.

Meantime, the thanks of all good citizens, and especially of all lovers of nature, are due to Secretary Noble for the wise, firm, and energetic manner in which he has conducted the affairs of the Yosemite National Park. While there may be honest differences of opinion as to the policy of military control, the protests against it of certain interests which have lived by preying upon the public domain are the strongest proof of the beneficent action of Congress in establishing this safeguard for the new reservation. To change somewhat the line of its boundaries by excluding some unparkable property which constitutes a fraction of it, would seem to be wise; but this is a detail which the friends of the National Park will be the first to wish properly adjusted. The first year of Secretary Noble's management of the park shows not only its value in the preservation of the sources of water-supply, which will be more evident from year to year, but the great use to the public domain of excluding predatory sheepmen and lumbermen, whose complaints are conclusive evidence of the need of this reservation. Californians owe it to themselves and to their State, as well as to the nation, in whose interest they have undertaken to administer this trust, to see that the sordid interests of a few private parties connected with the operation of the valley are no longer permitted to impair its attractiveness or to stand in the way of its adequate conduct by the best talent that can be secured. It is idle to disguise the fact that in order to do this the better sentiment of California must make itself more vigorously felt. Naturally all the influence which can be exerted by those who have "something to make" out of the valley will be put forth during the present Congress to oppose a better state of affairs and to obtain a modi-

fication of the public policy of preserving the forests for the larger uses of the people.

We misjudge the State of California if her citizens will sit idly by and see the sources, in part, of her greatness turned over to the tender mercies of private individuals. The preservation of her scenery, the conservation of her forests, and, most of all, the security of the water-supply of her valleys, ought to move the press and the people of the Golden State to prompt and vigorous protest against the flagrant and long-continued disregard of her interests.

"Progress of Ballot Reform,"¹ Colorado.

COLORADO should be included in the list of States which have passed new ballot laws. It enacted an excellent law in 1891, and, like Michigan, incorporated in it a corrupt-practices act which forbids the improper use of money in elections and requires sworn publication after election, by both candidates and campaign committees, of all money received and expenditures made.

¹ See "Topics of the Time," in this magazine for September, 1891.

OPEN LETTERS.

M. Gounod and his Ideals.

IN a private letter to a friend last summer the composer of "Faust" announced that the end of his creative career was come; susceptibility to heart-disease would prevent him hereafter undertaking any work of magnitude. M. Gounod is now an old man and much broken in health. He spent last summer in Versailles, but, I believe, returned to Paris in time to witness a performance of "Lohengrin" at the Grand Opera, and give expression to his admiration for the genius of Richard Wagner. Of late years his life has flowed along as peacefully as a meadow brook, and its conclusion bids fair to have the tender grace of a dying day of our Indian summer. It is a well-rounded life which in its decline is modulating into the key of its early years. In his old age M. Gounod recurs to the ideals of his youth and sets an example for the things that are lovely and of good repute in morals and art.

The critical historian of the future will look for the explanation of the "Faust" score in the German models which the composer chose early in his career. They were Mozart, Von Weber, and Wagner. For Mendelssohn, too, he had much love, and, indeed, the two men were not unlike in their gentleness of character and its lyrical expression. Sympathy for Mendelssohn's ideals turned his thoughts toward the oratorio nearly half a century ago, and found expression, mild but unmistakable, in his "Redemption," with its revival of the use of the *chorale*. The gospel of dramatic expression Gounod read in the scores of "Don Giovanni," "Der Freischütz," and "Lohengrin." Like Verdi, he knew the score of "Don Giovanni" by heart already as a conservatory pupil; but, unlike Verdi, he never became satiated with it. Young Verdi respected but did not love Mozart's masterpiece. Young Gounod's admiration for it was a passion which remained perennial and only a short time ago bore its loveliest fruit in a glowing eulogy and analysis of the work, printed for the benefit of the young composers of France. "The score of 'Don Juan,'" writes the composer of "Faust," "has influenced my whole life like a revelation; for me it always was and has remained the embodiment of dramatic impeccability." That such an admirer of Mozart should appreciate Von Weber at his true value and have an open heart for the newer evangel of Wagner is not at all surprising; that he did not follow Wagner to the logical outcome of his theories was due to the essentially lyrical trend of his genius. Gounod is an

eclectic musician, and therefore, in the nature of the case, he could not be a revolutionary force in French art; but his "Faust" worked a greater change in the manner of operatic composition in France than all the reformatory harangues of Berlioz.

In his youth Gounod's nature had a strong religious leaning. Even after he had won the Prix de Rome and was living as a *pensionnaire* of the Institute in the Villa Medici, his love for music had to struggle for supremacy with an ardent desire to enter the priesthood. The painter Ingres in Rome drew a portrait of the dreamy youth in monk's dress. His first compositions were ecclesiastical. A letter from Fanny Hensel, written in 1843, says that the young Frenchman, who was much liked in the Mendelssohn household, was then engaged on an oratorio entitled "Judith." What became of that work I do not know, but the old predilection for the oratorio form returned when M. Gounod came to complete the edifice of his works. "The Redemption" and "Mors et Vita" are its expression. The same tendency may be found in his choice of operatic subjects. "Polyeucte" tells a story of Christian martyrdom, and when Dr. Hanslick, of Vienna, visited M. Gounod twelve or fourteen years ago, he found him engrossed in the sketches for an opera to be called "Abelard and Heloise," which, the composer explained, was not to celebrate the passion of the famous lovers so much as it was to symbolize the struggle between enlightened conviction and petrified dogma. The work was put aside, but the fact of its conception remains to speak of the blending of fancifulness and earnestness, liberality and devoutness, in Gounod's religious nature.

H. E. Krehbiel.

The Camp Morton Controversy.

I.—COMMENTS ON DR. WYETH'S REJOINER.

I DO not care to make any extended reply to the rejoinder by J. A. Wyeth to my article in the September number of THE CENTURY, concerning the charges contained in an article entitled "Cold Cheer in Camp Morton" in the April number of THE CENTURY.

This controversy has reduced itself to a question of veracity between certain ex-Confederate prisoners of war and ex-Union officers of the highest standing and respectability who have enjoyed the confidence and respect of the communities in which they have lived for a long series of years, and they are sustained in

many cases by the records of the War Department and other official data. They also have the indorsement of a committee of seven of the most distinguished officers that served in the Union army from Indiana, viz., General Lew. Wallace, General M. D. Manson, General John Coburn, General James R. Carnahan, Major Charles L. Holstein, Major James L. Mitchell, and Captain E. H. Williams, who were appointed, in pursuance of a resolution at the last annual State encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic, held in this city in April last, to investigate the charges in Dr. Wyeth's article, as well as the indorsement of Colonel I. N. Walker, the department commander of said organization. Some of these officers enjoy a national reputation, and all are well and favorably known outside the State of Indiana.

There is scarcely a statement in the evidence produced by Mr. Wyeth that could not have been suggested by his first article, and, like that, the later article is singularly deficient in names and dates. Among his witnesses there are but two of whom I ever heard or have any knowledge, viz., P. M. Gapen of this city and Dr. W. P. Parr of Emporia, Kansas, both of whom were known as Southern sympathizers during the war, and whose testimony I propose to impeach.

He quotes P. M. Gapen of this city as saying that the firm of P. M. Gapen and Co., grocers, purchased during the early winter of 1864 a large quantity of coffee, sugar, rice, etc., through persons now deceased, which he afterward learned was from, or was intended for, prisoners at Camp Morton. Upon such testimony Mr. Wyeth attempts to prove that the rations intended for the prisoners were stolen and not issued. Neither the name of P. M. Gapen nor P. M. Gapen and Co., grocers, appears in the Indianapolis City Directory or Marion County tax duplicate for 1864. If he bought these goods at the prices named, did he not suspect that those from whom he bought them had wrongfully come by them? And when he was so informed, did he inform the Government, and if not, why not?

Dr. William P. Parr was a contract surgeon who served at Camp Morton from February 12, 1864, to February 5, 1865. W. W. H. McCurdy, a well-known and reputable citizen of this city, says:

I was in the employ of the United States Government at Indianapolis in 1864, during which time I became acquainted with Dr. Parr. In the spring of 1865 I opened a law office in this city. Dr. Parr was an almost daily visitor to the same, and the condition and treatment of Confederate prisoners was a subject of frequent conversation between us, and I distinctly remember that he always spoke of the abundance and excellence of the supplies, of the splendid physical condition and the kind treatment they received, all of which I, of my own personal knowledge, knew to be true. Had the doctor been cognizant of such a state of things as his statement in the September CENTURY would indicate, I am certain he would in some of our conversations have alluded to the matter.

George W. Smith of Lebanon, Indiana, was intimately acquainted with Dr. Parr, visited him in Camp Morton, and often talked with him as well as the prisoners, most of whom said they would rather be there than in the field, as they had better treatment than if they were in their own hospitals, had plenty to eat, and had roofs to sleep under. He says: "I have often heard Dr. Parr, during the time he was in the service, and since, while we were neighbors at Lebanon, Indiana, say that the rebel prisoners were better treated than the soldiers

who guarded them." I was very much surprised to see his statement in the September CENTURY, as it does not correspond with what he has always told me.

Captain James H. Rice of Hartford, Connecticut, who was provost-marshal at Camp Morton every sixth day during the time Dr. Parr was on duty there, says he was familiar with the barracks, as he inspected them, and that he knew Dr. Parr and never heard a complaint from him.

Elijah Hedges, undertaker, says:

I have read the testimony of Dr. Parr in the September CENTURY, in which he says a great many of the frozen dead bodies were carried from the bunks to the dead-house. I removed all of the dead bodies from Camp Morton, and I solemnly assert that there never was a frozen body taken from the dead-house, and I never heard of any one being frozen in the camp until I read Mr. Wyeth's article. If any one ever had been frozen in that camp, I am sure I should have heard of it.

General A. A. Stevens, commander of Camp Morton, while recently looking through some old letters from ex-prisoners of war who were confined at Camp Morton, found the following, which will speak for itself:

CHAMBERSBURG, PENNSYLVANIA, November 11, 1864. COLONEL A. A. STEVENS. DEAR SIR: I have felt very anxious about my nephew, John Wyeth, who was sick when I last heard from him. You have granted me so many favors respecting this dear misguided boy that I take the liberty of asking you if he is sick, to let me know of it, and anything he needs, if you will supply it, I will, with many thanks, repay you. . . . Respectfully yours, LOUISA W. DOUGLASS.

Mr. Wyeth and all of his witnesses speak in the highest terms of the management of the hospital at Camp Morton, and are highly complimentary in their references to the surgeon in charge of the same. In the next breath they charge that large numbers of persons were frozen to death in camp. This statement is disproved by the records and statements of the physicians in charge of the camp, which could not have happened unless the facts had been suppressed and records falsified by the very surgeons they compliment so highly. Such a policy, if adopted, would have been known, and would have been resented, not only by the community as a whole, but by the numerous rebel sympathizers that partially composed it. The men in charge of the prison were humane, and the intimation that the prisoners in their care were deliberately starved, beaten, and murdered is grotesque to the point of absurdity.

A grievance uncomplained of for six years, says a leading newspaper in commenting on Wyeth's article, is for the most part held to be no grievance at law. A grievance uncomplained of for nearly thirty years has no claim to attention in a court of conscience.

W. R. Holloway.

II. CONCLUSION BY DR. WYETH.

SINCE writing my article in the April CENTURY, I have been furnished with an article on Camp Morton written by the Rev. J. G. Wilson and printed in "Scott's Monthly Magazine" (Atlanta, Georgia) in 1868. Dr. Wilson was president of the Huntsville (Alabama) Female College, 1865-72; transferred to a Kentucky church and president of the Military Academy at Bowling Green, 1872-76; thence to St. Louis in charge of the St. John's Methodist Episcopal Church, where he died in 1884, honored and loved by all. This article by

this educated and Christian gentleman, written while the experiences of his prison life were fresh in his memory, coincides in nearly every essential particular with mine. He says the prisoners "suffered the pangs of hunger almost constantly" (p. 297). "Men who when captured were stalwart, fleshy men would dwindle away to skeletons." "Prisoners in the extremity of their hunger were often seen rooting like so many hogs in the piles of garbage from the hospital cook-room" (p. 299). The charges of cruelty and shooting of prisoners are also fully corroborated, but I cannot ask THE CENTURY to give space for a duplication of my statements that already have been strongly sustained.

John A. Wyeth.

Will H. Low.

IN Mr. Millet's excellent article in the November number of this magazine (undoubtedly correct in the main both in statement of fact and the deductions drawn therefrom) occurs the following, which I think admits of some qualification: "Few of those whose names have been prominent among the promising young artists abroad have kept up the high standard of excellence, much less have continued to make progress, after a short season at home." The work of Augustus St. Gaudens, Olin Warner, Carroll Beckwith, Kenyon Cox, Walter Shirlaw, George de Forest Brush, Alden Weir, Wyatt Eaton, William Chase, Abbot Thayer, T. W. Dewing, and Will H. Low and others seems to invalidate this assertion, for I am sure Mr. Millet will admit that they are better artists to-day than when they returned to America from their studies abroad, ten or more years ago. While it is true that the progress of these men may not have been so rapid as their more fortunate confrères whose means have permitted them to remain in the Parisian forcing-frame of art, is it not possible that there may have been upon the whole (as they have not been dominated by the Salon or the dealer) a greater tendency toward the development of the individual? Whether fortunately or unfortunately, the American artist of to-day, with rare exceptions, must turn his hand to many things. Happy the man who finds time to discover in which line of art his individuality lies. I think that Will H. Low, a reproduction of whose painting "Dolce far Niente" is published in this number, is a good example of this. He has done an extraordinary variety of work, little of which has been the unhampered expression of his individuality. His individuality would probably be in the line of decoration, wall-paintings, or large works to form part of the architectural design of important buildings. Certainly he has done nothing nobler or better than "The Welcome," and nothing which has more promise of a successful result than "The Parting," the picture he is now engaged on—both colossal works for the Plaza Hotel. But Mr. Low has had few opportunities for doing this class of work. He has, however, made some large easel pictures. Perhaps the best-remembered of these is "The Skipper Ireson," painted in 1881, certainly as good a picture as, if not a better than, "Le Jour des Morts," painted in France four years earlier and exhibited in the Salon. But although there are other well-known works of Mr. Low in this genre, the present condition and patronage of American art have not per-

mitted him to confine his attention to easel pictures, for such works need time and money. He has made designs for stained glass, many illustrations for magazines and books, and done much teaching. In all this variety of work he has found recognition both from artists and the public. Several of his pictures are in public collections; his illustrations to Keats's "Lamia"¹ and the sonnets of Keats are recognized as among the best work of their class; the window designed by him for Rock Creek Church, Washington, D. C., is an excellent example of an art in which the United States leads the world. In 1884 he was given charge of the antique class of the Cooper Institute; in 1888 was made an associate of the National Academy of Design. Soon after he was appointed director of the antique and life classes in the Academy schools, and in 1890, when thirty-seven years old (he having been born in Albany in 1853), he was elected an Academician.

W. Lewis Fraser.

Notes on "General Miles's Indian Campaigns."

I. THE RETURN HOME OF THE NEZ PERCÉS.

IN Major Baird's condensed and valuable historical article in your July number, on "General Miles's Indian Campaigns," he makes the following statement in reference to the restoration of the exiled Nez Percés: "Nearly seven years later, when General Miles had received promotion, and was commanding the department of Columbia, he at last succeeded in having Joseph and the remnant of his band returned to the vicinity of their old home." I am sure that a bit of history escaped the eye of Major Baird, and I feel confident that this unqualified statement escaped the eye of General Miles when he looked over the proofs of the article in question. General Miles is a gallant soldier, and has won the highest admiration of thousands of his countrymen, not only for his brilliant victories on the frontier, but for his Christian humanity in dealing with a conquered foe. From the beginning to the end he was the steadfast friend of the Nez Percés, but his early and vigorous efforts in their behalf, like those of Senator Dawes and Secretary Teller, were unavailing, and the Nez Percés would have perished in their exile but for the efforts of friends unknown to General Miles, who took up the lost cause, and at large expense for printing, traveling, and public meetings, and through four years of watchfulness and labor, secured the necessary congressional legislation for their removal. The documentary evidence of this is in my possession, and is sufficient to fill THE CENTURY from cover to cover.

The record of this labor includes ten thousand miles of travel, a publication of the condition of the Indians which reached not less than one million readers, mass meetings in our principal cities from New York to St. Paul, a presentation of the matter to the President, the Secretary of the Interior, and the Senate and House Committees on Indian Affairs, the work of missionaries among the Nez Percés, the strong memorials to Congress by the Presbytery of Emporia, the Synod of Kansas, and the Presbyterian General Assembly, and the personal care and attention given to the matter by Senator Dawes and Secretaries Teller and Lamar.

The details of the transportation, and location of the Nez Percés in the Northwest, were committed to Sec-

¹ See THE CENTURY for December, 1885.

retary Lamar, and to General Miles, who was then in command of the department of Columbia. In the face of border prejudices, and in opposition to local feeling, he came promptly to the front, exhibiting admirable moral courage and humane spirit in protecting and befriending the broken band of exiles whose military strategy and splendid courage along the Lolo Trail in 1877 challenged the admiration of the army and added new luster to the fame of the general in command, of Major Baird, his brave adjutant, and of all the officers and men who effected their defeat and capture.

Geo. L. Spining.

II. COMMENTS BY MAJOR BAIRD.

MY knowledge of the facts respecting the return of the Nez Percés from the Indian Territory to the northwest included General Miles's urgent opposition to the quite unnecessary transfer of those Indians to the south, just after their surrender to him; his working through and with others, for a long period afterward, to effect their return to their own section of country, and the part borne by him in their final release from the — to them — most unhealthy region in the Indian Territory. I trust that I shall not wholly forfeit the favorable opinion of Mr. Spining by admitting that my knowledge did not include the honorable and, as appears from his note, efficient part borne by him in securing the result.

G. W. Baird.

HELENA, MONTANA.

III. THE FIGHT IN THE WOLF MOUNTAINS.

ON page 357 of his article on "General Miles's Indian Campaigns," Major Baird says of the fight in the Wolf Mountains:

Putting spurs to "old Red Water," Baldwin forced him at the run up the glassy hillside, and then, hat in hand and with a ringing shout, he newly inspired the weary men and, with the momentum of his own brave onset, carried them to the coveted crests.

Lieut.-Colonel E. Butler (U. S. A., retired), who commanded Company C of the Fifth Infantry in that battle, has called the attention of the editor to the above statement by Major Baird, and has submitted an affidavit by Patton G. Whited, who was a private and non-commissioned officer of his company, and a non-commissioned officer of Company B, Fifth Infantry, when honorably discharged at the expiration of his last term of service. Mr. Whited was given the congressional medal for gallantry in the charge at Wolf Mountain. In part he says:

On the morning of January 8, 1877, two companies, D and C, Fifth Infantry, were guarding the rear of the camp on Tongue River, when the command was attacked. D Company, Captain MacDonald, was ordered up on the table-land where the artillery was. Shortly after, Company C, Captain Butler, was ordered up and deployed as skirmishers along the edge of the table-land, supporting the guns. General Miles, after some conversation with Captain Butler, and after a wagon-bow on the caisson of one

of the guns had been struck by a ball from the Indians, said to Captain Butler, "Take your Company and take that hill," pointing to the highest point on the extreme left. Captain Butler moved his Company off by the left toward the hill, the base of which was about three-quarters of a mile distant. The table-land was cut off from the base of the hill by a ravine. I was about ten skirmishers from the left. Before I reached the ravine I saw Lieutenant Baldwin coming after us from the place where the artillery was, hat in hand, hallooing "Forward." He came up as far as I was, passed in front of me, turned around and started back at full speed. He never went within a quarter of a mile of the crest, never crossed the ravine at the base of the hill. The heavy fire and the charge did not take place until after he had returned to the guns. After this I crossed the ravine, and after crossing I went in rear of Captain Butler's horse; he, with his hat in his hand, calling, "Forward, forward, men." Lieutenant Baldwin did not come up as far to the left as Captain Butler was, by one hundred yards. Captain Butler said, "There they are," pointing at them, and ordered us to fire. Sergeant Coonrad, Corporal Johnson, Private McGinty, Burke of "G," and others and myself gave them a volley, and we made a dash up the hillside. The Indian fire was now very heavy from the hill. As we got out of the ravine, rising up the hill, Captain Butler's horse was shot. He dismounted and said, "Those who are blown, take breath; the others follow me," and then we charged the hill, drove the Indians off, occupied the crest and held it.

IV. REPLY BY MAJOR BAIRD.

ESPECIAL care was taken by me in collecting data for that account. The written descriptions of several of the most prominent actors in, and best-informed spectators of, that battle, one of whom has been carefully over the field twice since the battle, also the diary of one of them, kept at the time, were the sources of my narrative. All of those officers, as also several officers and enlisted men who were not consulted before the sketch was published, affirm the essential accuracy of the record as printed in the July CENTURY.

The battle was a most critical one, as the narrative sought to explain, and the period of it in question was its most critical point. At such a time there were many heroic deeds done, and my narrative failed to express my desire if it did not give honorable prominence to Captain Butler. But one officer who wrote of the battle, after describing the affair substantially as it appears in THE CENTURY article, said, "Baldwin's action was the most conspicuous act of dashing gallantry I ever witnessed, and I saw the whole charge from beginning to successful end. It seemed to me Baldwin deserved more credit than any other officer under General Miles in the battle."

Another officer said of Baldwin, "He dashed over and not only carried the order, but, waving his hat in advance of the troops, inspired them with renewed spirit and courage." The greatly preponderating weight of testimony favors the record as printed. In that, as in the account of other engagements in the sketch, a record of sufficient length to permit more of detail would have included many acts and names of actors well worthy of especial mention which are omitted, but that would have been a history and have required a volume instead of being a sketch within the compass of a magazine article.

G. W. Baird.



TOPICS OF THE TIME.

Will an American State be Guilty of Suicide?

IN this number of THE CENTURY we present some of the results of a recent personal investigation made by one of the editors of the magazine into a subject of pressing national importance—namely, the Louisiana Lottery. We think that no fair-minded reader can go through this paper carefully without being amazed at the gradual revelation there made of unworthy and demoralizing habits and passions, fostered in the coldest blood by designing and greedy men, through all the various expedients of temptation, corruption, chicanery, and intimidation. Never was the livery of heavenly charity more flagrantly stolen “to serve the devil in” than by the beneficiaries of this far worse than mere gambling institution.

If the lottery should succeed, it is no mere figure of speech to say that the life of one of the fairest States of the Union would be crushed out of it for at least one generation, and those who mistakenly, weakly, or corruptly assist in the deed, and their children after them, will suffer dishonor and injury to an extent they now seem little to realize. But it is not merely a State question, or a national question having to do with one of the States of the Union: the Louisiana Lottery is a curse from one end of the country to the other. Its ramifications and evil designs are only half understood by the people at large. Unless it is crushed out it will ally itself with every sinister influence in the nation, and breed evil, and that continually, to the end of its pestilential days.

A “Cheap-Money” Hand-Book.

THE articles upon cheap-money experiments and delusions which have appeared in this department of THE CENTURY during the past year have been collected into a neat pamphlet of twelve chapters, which The Century Company has published at ten cents a copy, or five dollars a hundred. This publication has been fairly compelled by the wide-spread interest which the articles have aroused, and by the requests which have come to us for them in a convenient and cheap form, suitable for popular distribution.

As a sample of the interest awakened, evidences of which have reached us in almost innumerable letters and newspaper clippings, we cite the following voluntary and gratifying testimony from the editor of an important newspaper in Kansas:

We are finding THE CENTURY a most valuable aid in fighting the financial heresies that have taken possession of Kansas during the past year. Your articles on finance have furnished the backbone of thousands of campaign speeches and newspaper articles in our much-maligned State. Give us more of them and we will soon be restored to health and sense.

It was for the purpose of supplying material for such use as this Kansas editor says was made of the articles that we published the series. It seemed to us that the most effective way in which to meet and refute unsound financial theories of the present time was to show that they had been tried and found wanting in other times;

to show that, instead of being new, they were as old as economic science itself, and that, instead of being experimental, they had an unbroken record of human experience against their success in practice, extending over a period of nearly three hundred years. We began the demonstration with the history of the English Land Bank scheme of 1696, and ended it with the story of the Argentine Republic's experience with similar theories in our own day. In the twelve chapters of the pamphlet will be found the history of the more important of the cheap-money experiments of past and present times, including those of several of our State banks in the early part of the present century.

The material thus brought together is to be found in no other single publication. It has been obtained from many sources, some of them very difficult of access, and all of them entirely trustworthy and impartially accurate. The pamphlet is, therefore, a compact hand-book of exact information upon a branch of financial and economic history which is especially interesting and instructive for the American people. It will show them that all the schemes that are advanced in these later days for making money more plentiful and increasing everybody's prosperity have been tried in times past, and have, without exception, failed in practice, leaving behind them nothing but disaster and disgrace.

We are rejoiced to be able to say that since we began the publication of this series, a year ago, the danger that the United States might be misled into repeating as a nation some form or other of these financial blunders has been greatly lessened. The Farmers' Alliance, with its mischievous subtreasury scheme, the details of which are set forth in chapter VII of the pamphlet, was at that time in the height of its power. It had carried the State of Kansas in the preceding November election, and was making serious inroads upon the strength of the two great political parties in various Southern and Western States. The “silver craze” was also at its height, and had such powerful support in Congress that the country seemed destined at an early day to make a descent to the silver standard of value. To-day the outlook is much less ominous. The Farmers' Alliance was defeated as signally in the recent November election in Kansas as it had been successful in the election of a year earlier. In the Southern States, notably in Mississippi, the fallacies of the subtreasury scheme were taken up for public discussion by leading Democrats, and were argued with such fearlessness and ability as literally to be driven from the minds of the people. Even among the Alliance members themselves discussion of the subtreasury scheme has brought it so much into disfavor that a majority is to-day against it, and it is passing rapidly into the oblivion set apart for financial heresies. The silver craze has so far spent its force that there is now little danger of free-silver-coinage legislation by the present Congress, and if that should adjourn without action there is every reason to believe that the danger will have passed, never to return.

If THE CENTURY has contributed, as our Kansas

correspondent says it has in his State, to produce this healthier tone in public sentiment throughout the country, this sounder, because more intelligent, view of financial principles and economic laws, it has accomplished the purpose it had in view in publishing the series. The result is gratifying in many ways, but chiefly so in confirming the belief, profound and abiding, which we have always maintained in the intelligence and honesty of the American people. The history of all the financial delusions which have possessed this country from time to time shows that the duration of each of them has been short—that it has in fact kept its hold upon popular opinion only so long as was necessary for the people to inform themselves as to its real character. The duration of this hold would have been much shorter in every instance if the professed leaders of the people, the men whose duty it was to guide them aright in all such matters, had been worthy always of the positions they occupied. If, when a "craze" breaks out, such leaders, instead of yielding to it, for fear opposition might cost them votes and place, were to explain to the people its real nature and its powerlessness to bring to them any of its promised blessings, it would make very little headway. The leaders have opportunities which the masses of the people do not have for informing themselves upon these questions, and if they were true leaders instead of false, they would impart their information when it was most needed. No one who has studied the history of popular "crazes" can fail to be struck with the fact that all of them have received their death-blow from a few courageous men or journals that have had sufficient faith in the American people to tell them the truth without fear or favor.

The Metropolitan Museum.

NOTHING could bring to mind more forcibly the rapid growth of artistic expression, and of the interests of art generally, in this city within a short time, than to turn, as we did the other day, to what we said on the subject in these columns not quite eight years ago (April, 1884), and contrast our remarks with the present condition of affairs. We have not reached the millennium yet,—nor, to be sure, is there any immediate danger of its approach,—but how much there is in that article which we could not say to-day, even were we so inclined!

We said, while urging the importance of an architectural department in the museum, that in this city "more bad architecture has been perpetrated in the last thirty years than perhaps ever was accomplished elsewhere"; but hardly were the words out of our mouth when matters began to improve. The down-town buildings began to express the dignity and solidity of our wealth, where before they had illustrated only its less attractive characteristics; corporations straightway took unto themselves souls, and demanded that their structures should be more artistic, as well as bigger, than those of their neighbors; the Washington Arch, undreamed of then, is a well-nigh accomplished fact; and now the joyous beauty of the Madison Square Garden has come to teach that even the every-day places of amusement are not unworthy of the highest efforts of the architect.

We believe we mentioned "blue china, and Capodi-Monte and Limoges enamel" as the only kinds

of acquisitions to be expected from American millionaires, fearing that great masterpieces were hardly to be looked for from their generosity. Since that time one of these same millionaires has given the Metropolitan Museum a collection of old masters which any museum in Europe would be glad to possess, a gift of which a prince justly might be proud. Others have followed his example in giving of lending splendid pictures for the benefit of the public,—though the number of such benefactors is by no means as large as it might be,—and while it is still true, as we then said, that there is not in this country, to our knowledge, any really great Italian painting, the northern masters are worthily represented in quality, if not in numbers, in both public and private collections. The Sunday-afternoon opening, which, like many another good and Christian work, was accomplished only with toil and sorrow, has proved to hard-working people of all classes the greatest blessing which the trustees had it in their power to confer.

It was the Metropolitan Museum, its methods and its management, which formed the burden of our lament in the article we have in mind. More than once we have had occasion to say a serious word upon this topic, a duty which we felt the more imperative because of our interest in the institution itself, and our ambition to see it occupy the position it should in a community like that of the New York of to-day. For the same reason we hail with pleasure so much the keener every movement in the right direction, every endeavor to make its usefulness broader and more substantial; and our pleasure is no less genuine because the advances and reforms at the museum have been most conspicuous in the line of the program suggested in the editorial first referred to. In the light of recent events, we look back with peculiar satisfaction to what we said upon the subject of casts. It will be remembered that at the time we wrote the museum possessed no casts or plastic reproductions of whatever kind. The only conception of Greek sculpture which the visitor could acquire was that offered by the Cyprian statues; and even their most enthusiastic friends must admit that these suggest little of the glories of Pheidias and Praxiteles. They are hardly the examples which our sculptors would select for inspiration, and it amounted to a libel upon Greek art that these should be its chief representatives in a museum intended to be educational. It was with this fact in mind that we said: "It would seem natural that the first attention of a great American museum should be directed to such things as these; that one of the first acquisitions should be a collection of casts of all the great Greek sculptures. Sculpture has the immense advantage that it can be more adequately represented than any other art," and so on. We will not quote our own wisdom, but notice what has happened since those words were written. In a most overwhelming manner have those been discredited who once despised the plaster cast as unworthy a place in an institution of the first rank. First, the president of the museum, with characteristic liberality, realizing the necessity of including reproductions in the museum collections, gave \$10,000 with which to form a nucleus. Then we began to reap the benefit of Mr. Willard's magnificent bequest of \$75,000 for the purchase of architectural casts and models—a sum probably much larger than has ever been devoted to this purpose by any museum in Europe, with the ex-

ception of what the French government has done for the Trocadéro. Last, and best of all, comes this new committee of gentlemen, interested both in the subject and in the museum, who have already raised some \$100,000, a large part of which they have contributed themselves, for the purpose of presenting to the museum, on the part of the public, a collection which, supplementing those already mentioned, and devoted mainly to sculpture, will produce a museum of reproductions without a peer in the world. Is there not cause for rejoicing?

The composition of the committee shows that the desire for such a collection is not confined to any one class or profession; and the manner in which the project has been started is the best guarantee that it will be carried out satisfactorily. First of all, amateur knowledge has been discarded. From the beginning the committee have placed themselves under the guidance of experts. They began by inviting experts in this country to prepare for them lists of objects which it would be desirable to have in a collection intended to be illustrative of plastic art in all epochs. These lists, which were drawn up by Mr. Edward Robinson of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and Professors Allan Marquand and A. L. Frothingham of Princeton, were published in a sumptuous style as "Tentative Lists," for the purpose of inviting further suggestions. Copies were sent to the principal European authorities on the history of art, as well as to those of this country. As a result of the replies received, and of Mr. Robinson's visit to Europe in the interests of the committee, the final lists of the collection have been prepared, the or-

ders have been sent out, and we presume that there is hardly an important foundry of plaster casts in Europe which is not occupied with work of which our city is to enjoy the benefit. The prospect of so much that is good and valuable makes us impatient for the time when the ultimate hopes of the committee shall be realized, and all the casts of the Metropolitan collections be brought together in a separate building erected especially for them—a building in which all questions of effective arrangement and proper lighting can be settled without restrictions of space or regard to the needs of other departments. The present structure, even with the addition now being completed, will of course be far too small for all that is to be comprised in these collections, and if the intentions of the committee are fully carried out, we shall be able to boast of a museum which is absolutely unique—a place where students may find all the necessary materials for inspiration and instruction, where painters, sculptors, and architects may enjoy, not indeed a substitute for study in Europe, but a most delightful and useful reminder of treasures seen there, and where everybody may feel the quickening influence of great thoughts expressed in beauty of form and line.

There are other reforms and improvements still possible at the museum, which would bring the institution into still higher esteem throughout the world of art; but as this is a subject on which our views are well known, and as we desire to say only complimentary things at the present moment, we will not be specific on these points. Just now we heartily wish success to the liberal plans of the committee on casts.

OPEN LETTERS.

The Regular Army and the National Defense.

HOW to prepare the republic for war is a topic that has been quite frequently discussed of late in the public journals. The articles upon this subject have been unanimous only in one respect—they have all maintained that preparation is necessary. Each writer has his own theory as to how the preparation should be accomplished, and any one of them would be feasible with a central government that could enforce the measure. None, however, seem practicable under a republican government such as the United States, because our institutions are incompatible with the requirements of military service. We must have a military system adapted to our form of government, and any attempt to assimilate it to the methods of the European powers must fail for the want of an arbitrary power to enforce it. Our statutes have borne upon their pages for nearly a century some military laws that are fundamentally the same as those of the German empire to-day, but for half a century they have been a dead letter. They constitute every able-bodied man between the ages of eighteen and forty-five a soldier, and require of him certain services. These services are never rendered, and the laws are complied with in but few trifling particulars, and in their tendency to the national defense they amount to nothing.

The regular army of the United States is content

with trying in a feeble manner to imitate European methods in such details as the authorities are able to enforce. These imitations are limited mainly to matters of dress, drill, and exercises, and are usually patterned after that military power that was considered to be in the ascendant. So long as the French were victorious we wore the French uniform and taught French tactics, and when the Germans conquered the French we donned the helmet, and now gather our ideas of progress from the German ranks, regardless of the difference of environment. The conditions of our service are so very different that we are not justified in this humiliating imitation and importation of foreign military methods. We should have a purely American and republican army, adapted to our surroundings and our form of government. There are no conditions on this continent that call for anything approximating to the standing armies of Europe. Such preparation here would be a waste of energy and time.

On the continent of Europe the situation requires that the armies should be ever ready for immediate action, and no first- or second-class power can afford to neglect this precaution. No such condition exists on this side of the water. When we consider these facts, it is difficult to understand why we should imitate and adopt so many of the details of their vast preparation. Much of the duty these large armies are engaged in has been instituted to furnish occupation for the troops dur-

ing times of peace; otherwise they would much more frequently become an element of danger to their own government. Take the matter of drill. Very much the largest part of drill tactics has no practical application in actual warfare. There was a time when it did. When battles were won by the shock of compact bodies of men from three to six ranks deep, drill was an important factor in maintaining compact formations. Now, to conduct a compact formation, even at the regulation route-step, within range of the improved long-range arms would be fatal. Compact formations are justifiable only beyond range for the comfort of the men and to economize space. Then why should we on this side waste so much time on the minutiae of complicated drill tactics, repeating, from one year to another, what a soldier is able to acquire in a few weeks as well as he ever can, when, as will be shown hereafter, he might be so much better employed? All we need or use of drill in actual war is to pass from column into line and from line into column by the simplest possible methods.

The use of drill tactics constituted an insignificant factor in the war of the Rebellion. That a large proportion of the exercise of it can be dispensed with even in the European armies is evident from the fact that the German volunteer, when his means will enable him to do it at his own expense, can get through with the military duty the Government requires of him in one year, while the impecunious conscript must take three years, when it is possible that the latter may be endowed with natural abilities to do the same duty better and in half the time. Different conditions justify different tactics. The Indian has no use for Upton, and all the information we could acquire from that manual would be of little service in qualifying us to meet the wily savage in the use of his own tactics. Our great difficulty in fighting the Indian is to adapt our service to his tactics. Every nation endeavors to put its military establishment on a footing that will make it superior to the dangers which threaten it.

While we need not be wasting our strength and resources in preparation for immediate war, we cannot afford to ignore the necessity that exists that we should be organized and properly instructed for war, as the surest method of preventing it. It is in war above all other maladies that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. We should have a sufficient military system to enable us to keep pace with other countries in the knowledge of the art of war, and to be able to utilize our resources in the event of the misfortune of war coming upon us. This is the general character of the preparation to which the intelligence of the nation must be directed.

The first requirement for national defense is an army properly officered; that is, fully supplied with officers thoroughly informed in their duties and capable of instructing the rank and file in their duties. Our present army can be utilized to that end by making every military post a military school, for which the graduates of the academy would be the proper instructors, and could educate the enlisted man to that degree which would qualify him to serve as an officer in the event of a war. To this end, the age for enlistment should not be over twenty-one years, and reënlistments should be exceptional. The matter of reënlistment has grown into a serious detriment to the service. The rank and file

should be young men always, and for the subalterns youth is the first qualification also. War is the young man's opportunity to realize his dreams of greatness and the admiration of mankind. He has less to lose and more to gain than the man of maturer years, who has entered upon the career he has chosen, and assumed responsibilities that he cannot lightly forgo.

If, in addition to the condition of youth, the recruits be selected *pro rata* from all portions of the Union, we provide for the dissemination of military knowledge throughout the country where it will be needed when the nation calls upon its sons to defend it in the hour of danger.

By constituting the regular army an educational institution for the purpose of furnishing instructors for the available militia of the land in time of need, there would be little if any addition necessary to the annual appropriation to carry the measure into effect. The low social status of the enlisted man would be at once raised to a plane of the highest respectability. The character of the duties would be such as to exclude from the ranks that element which furnishes the deserters, the gamblers, and the drunkards of the service, who have thrown so much discredit upon the army in times of peace as to deter the respectable youth of the country from entering its ranks.

By making the army respectable and introducing as the fundamental principle of the service the education of the young soldier, and his preparation for a higher station in life, at the public expense, there would be no difficulty in keeping the army filled with the best and most energetic of the youth of the land. We have had ample proof in the history of the country, and the existence of the military organizations in every State and Territory, and the devotion with which the people worship their military heroes, to make it certain that there would be no difficulty in keeping our little army full of the right kind of material for the defense of the nation in case of danger. But the army must be made distinctively republican, and adapted to our form of government.

Our army is limited to 25,000 men. If the recruits were selected from the different sections of the Union *pro rata*, fifteen from each congressional district annually would keep the army full, and at the end of five years they would return in the same proportion to the districts which sent them, and after the system was fully established, it would supply, every five years, seventy-five young men graduates from the army, instructed in all the duties necessary, from which the officers could be selected to supply the quota that would be called into service from the district in the event of a war. This number would be ample, the supply would be continuous to replace casualties, and the knowledge which they would bring would be up to date as regards progress in military methods.

With such a source from which to draw instructors, the raw levies called for could be in a condition for defense in the shortest possible time, and if the war clouds were as slow in gathering as they would be in the event that our enemy came across the ocean, they might be sufficiently prepared to act on the offensive by the time the storm burst upon the country. It is self-evident that there is no method provided by which the forces of the Union can be utilized and made effective to meet an emergency; the nation would be subjected to

humiliation and disaster before her strength could be organized for defense, and it would be impossible to estimate the loss that must be endured before the military strength of the country could be in a condition to act on the offensive.

To carry these views into effect, nothing more is required than a resolution of Congress to the effect that the army in time of peace shall be conducted as an educational establishment, for the purpose of preparing officers and instructors in military duties, and to disseminate a military knowledge throughout the entire Union, so that every section may have means of defense in any emergency. The enlistment laws should be amended so that the recruits would be obtained from the various sections in proportion to the population, and only young men under twenty-one years of age should be enlisted. Re-enlistment should be authorized only in special cases where men had shown themselves exceptionally qualified as instructors, and should be an honorary privilege attended with increased pay and distinction, to serve as a stimulant to all.

Should this system be adopted, it would take five years with the present period of enlistment before the supply of material for officers would begin, but at the end of ten years every section of the Union would be supplied with a sufficient number of army graduates to officer and prepare for the field any number of volunteers that would be likely to be called for or required in any emergency.

Should war fail to come,—and the fact that we had such a means of preparing for it would be a very effective method of warding it off,—the young men from the army would still be a valuable element of the communities to which they would return. Besides being good patriotic citizens, they would be valuable as instructors for the National Guard organizations, and would keep alive in the country the military spirit so essential to our existence as a nation.

The measures herein suggested are so simple and easy of execution, and so important in their object, with little if any additional cost to the Government, that their adoption should follow in view of the fact that there is so little preparation for the national defense. The plan is both democratic and republican, for it would make our army a representative institution, drawn from the people, for the people, and would be as beneficial during peace as in war, and would give a strength to the republic it has never had. The social and political status of the army would rise to be the pride of the nation, and as long as our enemies are as remote as at present, no other means for marshaling the troops would be required for the national defense.

August V. Kautz,
Brevet Maj.-Gen., U. S. Army.

A National Militia.

“Solon said to Cæsus, ‘If another come whose iron is better than yours, he will take away all this gold.’”

THE United States is to-day the Cæsus of nations, but there are in Europe at least six great powers whose iron of war is better than our gold. Any one of these, by merely arranging a convention to secure the neutrality of the others, could extract indemnities from us, limited only by its cupidity and our wealth.

For some years there has been more or less friction in our relations with the German empire. Our relations with Canada and hence with England have been for some time decidedly strained. The same causes which brought about the Mexican war, in 1846, exist to-day, but in vastly increased ratio, viz.: the presence of a numerous colony of our people on Mexican territory and the investment of many millions of our capital in Mexican enterprises. China has repeatedly entertained against us a *casus belli* more strong and just than any which has led to the numerous wars of this century. Should the Panama canal ever be completed, we can look forward to it as a fruitful source of diplomatic discussion, if not of serious international contention. Some of our leading statesmen have asserted on the floor of the Senate that the mere existence of that canal as a European property, under foreign control, would constitute an infraction of the Monroe doctrine, which is at present our sole foreign policy, and which we cannot now abandon without losing national prestige and incurring national disgrace.

All history shows that the suggestions of a nation are respected and heeded only in proportion to the amount of organized, equipped force with which she is ready to emphasize them. If we expect our just and reasonable demands to be respected and heeded by the powers, we must have a navy and we must organize and train a national militia. We are to-day building ships, but we are without soldiers, and these cannot be made of the standard pattern in a day, or a week, or a month. But war may come upon us with giant strides. With the vast accumulations of wealth in our defenseless lake and sea-bound cities, we offer to any well-armed, first-class power the safest, richest picking which the earth has furnished since Pizarro sacked Peru.

The Constitution fully recognizes the vital importance of the subject, and invests Congress with ample powers to enact the necessary laws. In 1792 Congress passed a Militia Act which is to-day the militia law of the United States. Under its provisions must be drilled and trained, if they are to be trained according to law, the seven millions of able-bodied citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five who are to form the reserve to our little regular army.

Through the neglect of Congress, the whole nation is left without a practicable militia law. Hence the individual States are left to their own devices in providing a reinforcement to their various municipal police forces. This police reserve is a measure of necessity merely as an additional insurance on life and property where a dense population exists in proximity to vast accumulations of wealth.

For all the purposes for which it was intended, it would be difficult, without a vast increase of expenditure, to devise a more reliable or perfect organization than the New York State Guard. But when we come to look at these organizations from a national standpoint, they present a very different appearance. In fact, they do not exist at all so far as the United States is concerned. Let us suppose, by way of illustration, that Congress, acting within its constitutional powers, declares war and calls out the militia, and that the President then makes requisition on the governor, say of New York, for a certain number of militiamen. Of course the only militia which he has a right to call

for are the national militia, those existing by reason of and in accordance with the Constitution and the Act of 1792. The governor might truthfully reply that there was not a single national militiaman in his State, that the men at his disposal were the State Guard, organized and maintained by acts of its legislature, and that, as they were not the product of any national legislation, he did not recognize the right of the President of the United States to make requisition for them. This would be a very temperate and civil response for a governor to make compared with some recorded in our history. The President's only recourse then would be to issue calls for volunteers. He might get them and he might not, depending on whether or not his war was popular in that State. Thus it is evident that even the small number of militia in our country who are drilled and disciplined are entirely beyond the control of the President in time of war. Of course the individuals composing the State armies are at liberty to assist the President in his war, provided the governors do not interfere to prevent them. But there have been several instances where governors have so interfered. In short, the citizens accept or decline the invitation to attend the war, as best pleases them. When everything in the nation is staked on the chances of battle, the President of sixty millions of people should not be an issuer of invitations, but of orders.

Of late years there has been a growing and manifest desire on the part of the Government to disseminate military instruction among the people. This important question resolves itself into two parts: first, how shall the requisite number of men be disciplined and drilled; second, how shall the Government be guaranteed that in time of need it can command the services of the identical men upon whom it has spent its time and money. The Government would not be justified in arming and drilling men and yet leaving the matter in such shape that, when it called for soldiers, the State governors could give it either raw recruits or none at all, at their pleasure, which would be the state of affairs should it spend money on the so-called National Guards as they now stand. In short, the Government, in proposing to arm and train A. and B. to be soldiers, should have the power of insuring itself that when it asks for soldiers in an emergency, it shall get A. and B., whom it has trained, and not C. and D., who are ignorant of a soldier's business.

To attain this end, there is no more simple and practical method than to pursue our great national precedent of a subsidy; but always having it clearly understood and fully admitted by all concerned that the Government reserves the right to command, at any time, the services of the identical men whom it has trained. Next, let us establish a standard militiaman, and fix the price to be paid for him. On looking the world over, we will find that there is no commodity in its markets whose price varies so much as that of the soldier. A soldier costs Germany, per year, \$202; France, \$208; England, \$405; the United States, \$990. These figures represent the cost of regular soldiers, whose entire time is devoted to armies. In our own country, New York, which has the largest and perhaps the best State Guard, pays annually, per man, about \$35.00. All things considered, the United States Government could well afford to pay annually, per man, \$50.00 for standard United States militiamen. In this way Congress could

fix the number of men for whose military instruction it saw fit to provide by inserting a corresponding sum in the yearly appropriation bill. It could train twenty thousand men for one million dollars, forty thousand for two millions, and so on, according to the varying needs of the country.

The dual allegiance which every citizen owes the general and State governments should be recognized. The militia would be entirely under the control of the State for local purposes, except at such times as Congress might call them forth for the national defense. The States would furnish the men and the nation would pay the cost. The general Government, being the major power, should claim the right of precedence in commanding their services. A more just and equal copartnership cannot be devised. It is constitutional, rational, and practicable, and were it adopted by the States generally, it would have the effect of rendering the State National Guards constitutional and legal, which at present they are not.

Robt. Kennon Evans,
Lieut., U. S. A.

FORT LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS.

George De Forest Brush.

THE "Moose Hunt," by George De Forest Brush, engraved in this number of *THE CENTURY*, is probably his strongest picture; and one can hardly regard it without high admiration for the mental and technical equipment of the painter. It is like opening a window and looking out into another age, upon another race, almost into another world. To achieve this result a high resolve and an unflinching steadfastness of purpose are needful, and these qualities, combined with great technical skill, have been observable in Mr. Brush's work since 1880, when, at the exhibition of the Society of American Artists, he made his first appearance before the American public with a picture inspired by Bret Harte's "Miggles." Up to that time Mr. Brush had pursued the uneventful career of an art student, first at the Academy of Design in this city, from 1871 to 1873, and after that, from 1874 to 1880, in the studio of Gérôme in Paris. Returning to this country in the latter year, Mr. Brush, with the courage of his conviction that as an American he must paint subjects suggested by American life, has passed much time in the West and in Canada gathering the material for a large number of pictures of Indian subjects which have greatly increased his reputation.¹ In 1890, at the age of thirty-five (having been born in Shelbyville, Tennessee, in 1855), Mr. Brush returned to Paris, where he still remains. Rumors of a change in his opinions, a realization that art, to be American, need not necessarily be local, have reached his friends here, and may be true or not, though the classical subject which he is reported to be painting would bear out such a supposition. But whether his views remain fixed or change with the seasons, Mr. Brush will always be an important factor in our art, where we have too few men who think, and, thinking, execute with sureness born of knowledge.

¹ For Mr. Brush's individual views on his art, see *THE CENTURY* for May, 1885. Mr. Brush was elected member of the Society of American Artists in 1882. In 1888 he received the first Hallgarten prize at the National Academy Exhibition, and was elected an associate of that body the same year. He has also had charge of classes at the Art Students' League and the Women's Art School, Cooper Union.

great variety of things, and each object recalled some pleasant incident in his own career or in that of the giver. He grew eloquent and animated. He showed me a large screen which had been gotten up for a church fair in England, to be put up at lottery for some charitable purpose. It was embroidered (in colored silks, if my memory does not deceive me) by the ladies of the congregation, and represented a dozen or more scenes from Andersen's "Wonder Stories." The winner had sent it to the author of the tales.

The conversation then turned upon his writings, and I told him how his stories had been the dearest books of my childhood, and seemed associated with all that was delightful in the memory of it. I told him how happy and flattered I had felt at finding the name of the little boy in "Ole Shut-Eye" the same as my own, and that half unconsciously I had appropriated his experiences and half believed them to be my own.

This little confession seemed to touch An-

dersen strangely. Tears filled his eyes; he seized both my hands, and pressed them warmly.

"Now you understand," he said, "what a happy lot it is to be the children's poet."

I rose to take my leave, but lingered talking; and on my expressing a desire to hear him read, he half rose upon his sofa, adjusted his pillows, and began to recite from memory "The Ugly Duckling."

His manner was easy and conversational, full of caressing inflections, such as one employs in telling a tale to a child. In the pathetic passages he was visibly affected, and he closed almost solemnly.

"It is the story of my own life," he said. "I was myself the despised swan in the poultry-yard, the poet in the house of the Philistines." I felt suddenly, as he finished his recital, that I understood the man. I had caught the keynote of his character. All that was good and noble in him rose in vivid light before me. I never saw him again.

Hjalmar H. Boyesen.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

The Louisiana Lottery a National Infamy.

A MONTH ago we asked our readers to reflect on "The Degradation of a State," as revealed in the history of the Louisiana State Lottery. It was shown, on the testimony of the originators of the Lottery, that its charter was obtained and maintained by wholesale bribery and corruption; that this meanest and most pernicious form of public swindling was fastened upon Louisiana and the country in general by a gang of New York lottery-dealers and racing-men; that those gamblers were, in their own words, the conductors of a "business reprobated by law and contrary to public policy and good morals"; that, in effect, Louisiana has licensed a gambling corporation to break the laws of all the other States of the Union, and to plunder their citizens of millions of dollars annually; and that Louisiana herself has been a sufferer, not only by the impoverishment of her working-classes, but by the moral degeneracy of rich and poor alike, and by the subversion of the most sacred duties of State government.

For twenty-four years this giant parasite, this vile contagion, has been nourished by Louisiana for the sake of a paltry \$40,000 a year, which is only a fraction of the hundreds of thousands enticed annually from her own people; for twenty-four years it has fattened on the whole country, thanks to the venal cunning of its managers, and the blindness or indifference of the guardians of the laws, and even of the people themselves. Never before has one State of the Union so prostituted her authority to her own reproach and to the injury of her sister States; and never before has the general public been so apathetic toward such imposition, such infection, such robbery. A point has been reached where the existence of the Louisiana Lottery is not merely the degradation of a State; it is a national infamy.

Eighteen months ago, Congress tardily took effective measures to deprive the Lottery of the free use of the mails. This was attained only by giving other Federal courts than those of Louisiana jurisdiction over lottery infractions of the postal laws. But this salutary measure has only impaired the power of the monster by adding to its running expenses and by curtailing its advertising. Newspapers containing its advertisements may no longer be sent through the mails. This has given its organs a text for complaint on the score of infringing the liberty of the press; and with the aid of some of the most noted and respectable lawyers of the country, ostensibly in the interest of the newspapers, an attack is being made on the constitutionality of the law. Even if the law is upheld by the Supreme Court, the Lottery will get along very well, as at present, with the aid of the express companies, which in some ways are almost as far-reaching as the mails; and in case the expresses are prevented from serving the Lottery, it will still be possible to carry on the business by private messengers to all the large cities.

It has been suggested that a national tax, so large as to be prohibitory, on each lottery ticket sold, would be an effective measure of suppression. Congressman Little of New York has in fact, introduced a bill to this end, which ought to be made a law before the Louisiana election in April, partly for the moral effect it would have in that contest. The bill is skilfully drawn as to methods and penalties, which, with the great inducement offered to informers, would render concealment hazardous; yet the margin of profit is so enormous that the managers could lose three fourths of their plunder and still chuckle. When it is a fact that a million to a million and a half worth of lottery tickets are now sold monthly in States where the business has to be conducted by stealth, it will be possible,

clearly, for the Lottery to supply its subterranean channels from secret suboffices. It would be as easy and as respectable as the distribution of counterfeit money, with this advantage—that while the lottery tickets are really worth little more than “green goods,” they are accepted for “face value received” by the dupes who buy them. So, while under the action of such a law the profits would be smaller, “the swindle would be sure” and still yield a handsome maintenance in case the Lottery could protect itself against informers.

The upshot of all repressive legislation, except, perhaps, in the form of Mr. Little’s bill, will be that so long as the Lottery has the refuge and ownership of a State, where distinguished generals may preside in mock dignity over drawings conducted in apparent honesty, the Lottery will snarl at Federal postal laws and the prohibitory laws of other States, and will still enjoy the wags of our national infamy.

Strange as it may seem to citizens of other States who are not thieves at large, or already in prison, Louisiana is believed to be at the point of yielding herself for another twenty-five years to this swindling nuisance. Up to this time the State has had only a nominal bribe of \$40,000 a year, more as an amiable excuse for her purchasable legislators than as a reward for her services; but now what appears to be a majority of her influential citizens are eager to make her a full partner in the crime against her sister States, with a minor share of the profits.

Many otherwise good people of Louisiana have grown so fond of the stench of Lottery money that they doubt if the State could exist without its morsel of the carrion. The Lottery’s offer to pay annually \$1,250,000, almost the present State levy for taxes, is talked of as “a revenue measure,” when it is a scheme to farm out the taxes and the responsibility of government to a ruthless corporation, with power to filch four or forty dollars from the people of Louisiana for every one it turns into the treasury. Through self-deception, bribery, and personal interest this proposition has taken the form of a constitutional amendment recommended by two thirds of the State legislature, and, though irregular in its origin, has been accredited by a majority of the Supreme Court of the State. One of the justices of that court, ex-Governor McEnery, disguised as a half-lottery man in sentiment, has become the candidate for governor of the Lottery party, who hope to elect him and carry their measure in April. Every motive and every act of the pro-lottery people is under one disguise or another.

When otherwise respectable citizens are in open apology and support for an institution like the Lottery, shall we wonder at the barefaced effrontery of the Lottery owners? One of the minor stockholders was a passenger on an ocean steamship during the summer. In a smoking-room talk he had discoursed sweetly of religion, and had maintained the poise of an honest man until the conversation drifted into the channels of investment; then he could not help bragging of the wonderful dividends earned by some Lottery stock in his possession, until a justice of the supreme bench of Missouri, who was in the circle, boiled over with indignation, and shut him up with the exclamation: “Sir, in our State we treat the sellers of your lottery tickets as we treat horse-thieves.”

But it is the chief beneficiary of the Lottery, the man

who figures in the new bill as sponsor for the \$1,250,000 bribe to the State, who is most to be admired for cool assurance in this business. He has made millions of money out of the Lottery; he has seen political parties, political bosses, governors, legislators, and judges bend to his behests; he has felt the lick of a people degraded by the Lottery on the palms of his alms-giving hands; though a citizen of New York, he is now enjoying an office higher than that of the Governor of Louisiana, who is a mere creature of the constitution of that State,—for he is a part of the constitution itself, the maker and maintainer of government. Why should he not aspire to twenty-five years more of such omnipotence, and seal his ownership with nearly the full maintenance of the State? If Louisiana accepts this new degradation, how much longer will the other States accept their attendant infamy?

To be sure, there is a ray of hope that the anti-lottery party, which is a sudden growth among the best Democrats of Louisiana, aided by the Farmers’ Alliance and by a section of the Republican party, may defeat the Lottery bill even if it does not elect its own candidate for governor. Tremendous will and energy are enlisted to that end, though the money resources are meager. If the Democrats of other States ever mean to resent the Louisiana outrage on their rights, they can never again do it so cheaply and so effectively as now, by carrying aid to Governor Nicholls, Senator Murphy J. Foster, and their earnest colleagues. If the Republicans of the other States hold public honor above party advantage, they will send strong appeals to the colored Republicans of Louisiana to turn deaf ears as regards the Lottery bill to some of their leaders who are, and always have been, Lottery owners and supporters. And if Congress means ever to act by a tax measure, then let Congress act with double force by the immediate passage of such a law.

But the Lottery’s agents are in Congress as well as out of it; its money lurks in the coffers of State and national committees of both parties. Heaven only knows how well and for how long we have been trained to endure this national infamy.

Columbia College.

WHEN Mr. Seth Low was installed as president of Columbia College two years ago, we said that “those who have pondered on the needs of New York have dreamed of a time—which Mr. Low can, and we believe will, do much to hasten—when Columbia College will be the center, and our various museums, libraries, and other institutions more or less formal and official parts, of ‘the great metropolitan university.’” In the two years which have passed, the new president has accomplished much at Columbia, internally and externally. He has reorganized the administration of the various schools which make up Columbia, so that each school in a measure manages its own affairs, while the affairs of the college as a whole are managed by the University Council, consisting of delegates from every school. He has taken over the College of Physicians and Surgeons and made it an integral part of Columbia—an act of great importance to the future of medical education in the United States. He has rearranged the work of the senior year so that the student may begin his professional studies in the technical schools without surren-

dering his connection with his fellow undergraduates. He has begun to ally Columbia with the other educational institutions of New York; the students of the theological seminaries are now admitted to certain lectures of Columbia; and Dr. Osborn, the head of the new Department of Biology, has also been appointed Curator of Mammalian Paleontology at the American Museum of Natural History. Thus we see Columbia extending one hand to religion and the other to science. Thus we see Columbia seeking to coordinate, if not to consolidate, the influences which make for the intellectual life in this great city, giving them a center, a focus, a rallying-point.

The trustees of the college—to whom we owe the choice of Mr. Low as president, a distinct accession to the citizenship of New York—have been liberal in throwing open to the public those college lectures at which the presence of strangers would not interfere with the work of the students. They have in contemplation courses of lectures, to be delivered probably at Cooper Union, intended for "the plain people"—to use Lincoln's phrase—and chiefly on those subjects wherein the need of instruction is greatest in our polyglot and cosmopolitan city, the science of government, political history, economics, and sociology. They have invited Mr. E. C. Stedman to deliver, under the auspices of Columbia, his course of lectures on Poetry. They have been strengthening the teaching staff unceasingly, having within a year called Dr. Osborn from Princeton, Mr. Cohn from Harvard, Mr. J. B. Moore from the Department of State at Washington, and Mr. George E. Woodberry from his library. They have done much to make Columbia a really great metropolitan university—for there is no reason why New York should not have as great a university as Paris, Vienna, and Berlin.

Now the time has come when the citizens of New York must do something for the college. Columbia has shown its desire and its ability to identify itself with all that is best in the life of the city, and the people of the metropolis must now do something to help Columbia to a sphere of greater usefulness. The single block of buildings at Madison Avenue and Fortyninth street is no longer large enough for the many workers who are thronging there. The space which was ample for the little college of 1863 is wholly inadequate to the great university of 1892. So the trustees have secured an option on a part of the land now occupied by the Bloomingdale Asylum. This new site for the old college is two and a half times as large as Madison Square; it is set on the heights near the new cathedral, between the Riverside Drive and Morning-side Park, a situation of exceptional beauty and of unexceptionable fitness for the purpose. Here Columbia can spread out; here its schools can expand and multiply; here there will be space enough for a proper campus whereon the sports dear to the student's heart may be played comfortably; here will be room for dormitories—if it should be decided to add these aids to the compact cohesion of the undergraduates.

The advantages of this removal, of this opportunity for development, are indisputable—the advantages to the college and to the city. But if this removal is to take place, if this development is to be brought about, the citizens of New York must lend a helping hand. Columbia is not rich, despite the popular belief to the

contrary. Considering the work which the college is called upon to do, Columbia is poor. To make the move will cost money—for the land itself, for the library, for laboratories, for lecture-halls. Who will help? Whether New York shall have a great metropolitan university worthy of this great city now depends in a measure upon the response which its public-spirited inhabitants make to the statement of Columbia's desires, possibilities, and needs.

A Columbian Fair Memorial Building.

No more worthy proposition has been made in connection with the Columbian Exposition than that for the erection at Chicago of a permanent memorial of it in the form of a great museum. The establishment of such memorials has long been recognized as one of the most valuable concomitants of international fairs, and it would have been very surprising if Chicago, with her redundant and admirable public spirit, had not perceived her opportunity very soon after the Columbian Exhibition was organized. The project was in fact broached at the very outset, and played a considerable part in the discussions over a site. When the directory decided to go to the lake front, it decided also that it could not use any of the funds at its disposal for a memorial building. This threw the proposal upon public favor for support, and efforts were at once begun to enlist popular interest in its behalf.

The most zealous advocate of it from the outset has been Mr. W. T. Baker, the president of the World's Columbian Exposition (called the local board), and president as well of the Chicago Board of Trade. He has been warmly seconded in all his labors by Dr. W. R. Harper, president of the University of Chicago, and the two together have formulated a plan which has such obvious merits that public support of it ought to be quick and generous.

In brief, this plan is to construct, on grounds secured for the purpose, a magnificent fireproof building, especially adapted for its purposes, into which could be gathered, at the close of the Exposition, such antiquities and articles of historical value as the Fair had brought together, the same to be made the nucleus of a great museum for the education of the people for all time. It is believed by the promoters of the Fair that its residuum will be richer and more varied than that of any of its predecessors, especially so in reference to collections from the American continents, since the countries of Central and South America will be more completely and generally represented than they have ever been before.

In order that the best intelligence may be brought to bear upon the museum and its collections from the very beginning, it is proposed to have it started in connection with the new University of Chicago, and to have it conducted in connection with it, but not under its absolute control. This is an excellent idea, and ought to stimulate interest in the plan and at the same time encourage contributions; for the association of the university authorities is a sufficient guarantee that the work will be carried forward on lines of the highest artistic and educational value. President Harper showed his eminent fitness for this service in a speech which he made in support of the project when it was laid formally before the people of Chicago a few months

ago. He declared then that the opportunity of a lifetime had come to Chicago, and that if it were improved properly, the outcome would be a museum which would do for Chicago what the British Museum has done for England and the Smithsonian Institution has done for America. The first and most important work of universities, he contended, was that of research, the discovery of new facts, the deduction of new ideas from old facts; the universities of America were behind the great ones of Europe, chiefly because of the lack of libraries and museums; Chicago owed it to herself to provide, in addition to the libraries which she was supplying, a great museum which should furnish the equipment for research and investigation needed for the advancement of education; the establishment of such a museum would be a lasting benefit not only to Chicago, but to the people of neighboring cities and States.

This is a forcible and cogent statement of the case. The plan is simply one for the advancement of education and enlightenment throughout the whole Northwest. The influence of a great museum of the character described is limited only by the country itself. We need one in every group of half-dozen States at most, and if we were to have one in every State, the supply would be none too large, provided the material for their equipment could be found.

Mr. Baker proposes a total expenditure of \$1,000,000 for the building, and declares that if this were furnished, there would be forthcoming contributions of specimens and articles of historic interest aggregating \$3,000,000 in value. The whole State of Illinois ought to unite in subscribing the million desired, for the museum will be an incalculable benefit to the State as well as one of its proudest possessions. Philadelphia rejoices today in the possession of two beautiful memorials of her Exposition — Horticultural Hall and Memorial Hall, both situated in Fairmount Park, and both containing collections which are among the largest and finest of their kind in the country. Nothing would induce her to part with these, to have their beneficent influence eliminated from the community. The city and State contributed through large appropriations to the erection

of these institutions, nearly two millions of dollars going into the construction of them, but the outlay has never been regretted. It will be all the greater honor to Chicago and Illinois if they can erect their memorial by private aid alone.

National Justice to Postal Clerks.

THE bill for the classification of clerks in first and second class post-offices, which Congress is considering, ought to become a law without opposition. It was prepared by the National Association of Post-office Clerks, and is a measure conceived and designed for the sole purpose of securing just and fair treatment to a very hard-working and meritorious body of public servants. It fixes their compensation upon an equitable and reasonable basis, insures promotion according to service and ability, and makes faithfulness and efficiency the sole requisites for permanent employment. It is a measure in the interest of true civil-service reform, as well as national justice, since it classifies the service, makes it mandatory that all appointments to the higher grades shall be from the lower grades, on the ground of proficiency and length of service, and requires that all new appointments shall be to the lower grades after competitive examinations as required by the Civil Service Act.

Under the present system, or rather lack of system, the clerks have no classification which insures promotion according to service and ability, have long hours of labor, are poorly paid, and have no annual vacation. To say that a great and rich government like ours is justified in treating its employees in this heartless, unfair, and parsimonious manner is obviously absurd. A private employer who pursued such a course would be censured roundly by all reputable men. As a nation we are abundantly able to pay our servants fair wages, and we ought to see that it is for the best interest of the whole public to have our post-office clerks a permanent, well-drilled, intelligent, capable, and contented body of servants, for it is only from such a body that the best service can be obtained.

OPEN LETTERS.

The Numerical Strength of the Confederate Army.

THE total number of men who served in the Confederate army in the late war has never been ascertained. The number cannot be ascertained exactly, and perhaps cannot be very closely approximated. But there are certain evidentiary facts which have an obvious and important bearing upon the subject, but which, it appears, have not been duly weighed or understood by historians of the war.

The numerical strength of an army ought to be ascertainable in one way — that is, by enumerating the names borne upon its muster-rolls, provided, of course, that such rolls are complete and true; but if they are not, then the actual strength of such army cannot be exactly determined.

Let us refer, by way of illustration, to the Federal army rolls. Probably the rolls of a great army were never more accurate or complete. Various facts might

be cited in proof of this assertion. It will suffice to state that in the repeated inspection of these rolls from day to day in the War Department, during the whole period since the war, in order to furnish evidence to the Commissioner of Pensions relative to the claims filed in his bureau, it is of the rarest occurrence — in fact, it may be said that it is unknown and unheard of — that such rolls are ever found to omit the name of any person who served in that army. It will be perceived that this is a thorough and conclusive test. About twelve hundred thousand claims for pension have been filed since 1861. The report furnished to the Commissioner by the War Department from its records is conclusive in determining whether a claimant, or his or her deceased relative, actually served in the army of the United States in the late war. No testimony except the record is admissible. Since, therefore, in 1,200,000 claims, filed from every State and Territory, there is never a complaint upon the ground of omission of a

name from the records, it must be taken as infallible evidence that those records are correct and true. And such, beyond doubt, is the fact. The records are of course found in some cases to be meager or deficient in respect to casualties, or other facts in a soldier's history; but in preserving the *names* of those who served at one time or another, the muster-rolls have been found and demonstrated to be practically perfect, omitting the name of no man who ever served, even for a day, as a soldier in the Federal army. If this sweeping statement is subject to any rare exceptions, they are so few that they do not require to be taken into account.

It was therefore easy to determine from these rolls that the total number of *enrolments* in the Federal army for the war (counting all enlistments for short and long periods of service, and all reënlistments) was 2,672,341. This, however, is largely in excess of the total number of Federal soldiers, since a considerable percentage served under two or more terms of enlistment, so that their names are duplicated on the rolls. The terms of enlistment were for three, six, nine, and twelve months, two and three years; and many were enrolled as often as three or four times. Making allowance for the large number of reënlistments, and counting each soldier but once, it is estimated that the total number of men who served in the Federal army from first to last was about 2,200,000.

These references to the Federal rolls are made by way of illustration, and because of the contrast existing between them and the rolls of the Confederate army.

The original muster-rolls of the Confederate army, so far as they are preserved, are in the Confederate Archives Office of the War Department, having been captured with the other official records of the Confederate government at the fall of Richmond. There has never been occasion or necessity to examine these Confederate rolls in the transaction of the public business, as has been the case with respect to the Federal rolls. So far as I can learn, no officer of the War Department or other person has ever been charged with the official duty of enumerating the names upon these rolls to determine their aggregate number, and no such enumeration has ever been made. No official or other test has been applied to such rolls, to determine whether they are true and complete. The Government is publishing the "Rebellion Records," a numerous and valuable series of volumes, which will embrace the official military reports and records of both armies; the purpose being to publish the naked official records without addition or comment. But this publication will of course not contain the muster-rolls,—the mere names of the men of either army,—and therefore will not necessitate the examination of such rolls. Furthermore, the Confederate rolls were never published in any Southern State during the war; whereas, on the contrary, the Federal rolls were published in every Northern State.

While we therefore have abundant and accurate information concerning the Federal rolls and numbers, there is a corresponding dearth of information or data relative to the rolls or the true numerical strength of the Confederate army.

In North Carolina, and in some other Southern States, recent efforts have been made to compile and publish rosters of the troops furnished by such States to the Confederate army. These efforts have thrown a great

deal of light upon the subject, and have disclosed deficiencies in the rolls which are very surprising.

North Carolina is the only Southern State in which there has yet been published anything approaching a complete roster of Confederate troops. The roster in that State was published in 1882, in pursuance of an act of the State legislature, which designated Major John W. Moore, late of the 3d North Carolina Battalion, to compile and publish the same. Finding no complete rolls at the capitol, Major Moore visited Washington, and, by permission of the Secretary of War, transcribed the names from the captured rolls, and published them in four volumes. In his preface to the first volume he announces as his estimate that the State furnished to the Confederate army 150,000 troops. But his four volumes show only 104,498 names. In the preface to his last volume he revises his estimate, which he says was originally too high; but he declares his opinion that the muster-rolls omit the names of not less than twenty thousand North Carolinians who served in the Confederate army, an estimate which indicates a total of 125,000 for that State. These two official estimates, which differ by twenty-five thousand,—one of which may, perhaps, be received with as much confidence as the other,—should suffice to show the extremely dubious value of such rolls as evidence of the true strength of the Confederate army. Major Moore's statements regarding the deficiencies in the rolls are made from personal knowledge. He states, of his own knowledge, that the rolls of certain named regiments do not contain the names of "one half" of the men who actually served in them. Investigation shows that the same is true of other regiments of which he makes no mention. I will refer to the 60th, which was recruited mainly in Buncombe County, where many of its surviving officers yet reside. I am reliably informed by survivors of that regiment that at the time it was organized, in the fall of 1862, being at that time transformed from a battalion into a regiment, it numbered not far from 1200 men; and that, with subsequent recruits and conscripts added, its total strength for the war was probably upward of 1500. Yet its muster-rolls, as published in Major Moore's roster, show only 458 names—an omission of 1000 names from the rolls of one regiment!

There is another and conclusive test by which the North Carolina rolls may be judged—the test which is applied in administering the pension laws of that State. The persons entitled to pension under the laws of the State of North Carolina are principally those who were seriously wounded, and the widows of those who were killed in battle, in the Confederate army. In determining the question of service in such cases, it has been found that the published muster-rolls are wholly unreliable as evidence; that hundreds of men are known to have been killed in battle while serving in North Carolina regiments whose names are omitted from the rolls. The North Carolina pension officers, therefore, instead of accepting the muster-rolls as conclusive evidence, as such rolls are accepted by the United States Commissioner of Pensions, are compelled to disregard the rolls and to accept parole testimony to prove the fact of military service, and of death or wounds received while thus serving in the Confederate army. I am advised that there are on the pension-rolls of North Carolina 2798 widows whose husbands were

either killed in battle or died of wounds or disease while serving in that army, and that fully one third of such pensioners were enrolled without any record evidence that their husbands had ever served in the Confederate army, their names not appearing on the published muster-rolls.

The importance of these facts and the bearing which they must ultimately have in determining disputed points in the military history of the war are plainly apparent. There is one conclusion which, independent of any direct testimony bearing upon the subject, has long been settled in the minds of the principal Union commanders; namely, that the strength of the Confederate army was habitually understated in the official reports of its commanders, and has in like manner been understated since by ex-Confederate historians. This conclusion is advanced by General Grant, in his "Memoirs," as follows:

There has always been a great conflict of opinion as to the number of troops engaged in every battle, or all the important battles, fought between the sections, the South magnifying the number of Union troops engaged, and belittling their own. Northern writers have fallen, in many instances, into the same error. The whole South was a military camp.

Conscription was resorted to early, and embraced every male from the age of eighteen to forty-five years. The slaves, the non-combatants, one third of the whole, were required to work in the field without regard to sex, and almost without regard to age. The four million colored non-combatants were equal to more than three times their number in the North, age for age, and sex for sex, in supplying food from the soil to support armies. Women did not work in the fields in the North, and children attended school. The press was free (in the North) up to the point of open treason. The copperhead disreputable portion of the press magnified rebel successes and belittled those of the Union army.

Before the war was over, further conscription (in the South) took those between fourteen and eighteen years of age as Junior Reserves, and those between forty-five and sixty as Senior Reserves. Under such circumstances it is hard to conceive how the North showed such superiority of force in every battle fought. I know they *did not*.

General Grant's opinion was shared by other Federal commanders. Their opinions were not based upon direct evidence relating to the records, but upon their observations, and their knowledge of the resources of the Southern States in men and slaves, and of the fact that those resources were exhausted and drained to the utmost by sweeping measures of conscription. The first Confederate conscript law was enacted before the war had been in progress a year,—March, 1862,—and required the services of all white males, with few exceptions, between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five. In February, 1864, the law required the services of all white males between seventeen and fifty, "for the war," while boys under seventeen and men past fifty were organized into regiments of Junior and Senior Reserves. Even the "free negroes" and a certain number of "slaves" were held liable by this law for the performance of auxiliary military service.

This Confederate statute, approved February 17, 1864, entitled "An Act to increase the Efficiency of the Army," etc., provided: "That all male free negroes, and other free persons of color, between the ages of eighteen and fifty years, shall be held liable to perform such duties with the army, or in connection with the military defenses of the country, as the Secretary of War or the

commanding general of the trans-Mississippi department may from time to time prescribe; and shall receive rations and clothing and compensation at the rate of eleven dollars a month." The same act also provides for the impressment of "slaves" for the same duties, to the number of 20,000.

How many "male free negroes" or "other free persons of color" were impressed under this act, for auxiliary military service with the Confederate army, I have no means of determining.

There is another important fact touching the question of the value of the Confederate records. The records of the Confederate "conscript department" at Richmond appear to have been kept separate and apart from the muster-rolls. These appear to have been deliberately destroyed by order of the Confederate government, to prevent their falling into the hands of the Federal authorities. I have heard this statement made by Major Duffield, a Virginia officer, who declared that he had executed such orders by burning the records in the fireplaces of the building which was occupied by that department, of which he was in temporary charge.

It is easily understood that the total strength of the Confederate army from 1861 to 1865 far exceeded the number of white males in the seceded States "who were between the ages of eighteen and forty-five" as shown by the census of 1860; for that army included, in the last year of the war, men of sixty, as well as boys of sixteen, who were therefore only eleven years old at the census of 1860. The number of white males between eighteen and forty-five in North Carolina in 1860 was 115,369; yet no one pretends to estimate the North Carolina contingent to the Confederate army at less than 125,000, while Major Moore has placed on record an estimate that the State furnished 150,000. The number of white males between eighteen and forty-five in the eleven seceded States in 1860 was 1,064,253. In the three border slave States, Missouri, Kentucky, and Maryland, there was the additional number of 516,175. The people of these three border States were not unevenly divided, and gave about an equal number of men to each army. It is fair to assume from these data that the State of North Carolina could not have furnished more than one tenth of the strength of the Confederate army, which, therefore, in its total aggregate must have numbered not far from a million and a half of men.

The Federal aggregate is of course conceded to have been larger, though it included many who served under short terms of enlistment, and many who, enlisted in the last year of the war, never reached the front; whereas, in the South, substantially all of the fighting men were in the ranks long before the war ended.

The larger percentage of men furnished by Southern States to the Confederate army, in proportion to the population, than was furnished by Northern States to the Union army, may be shown by a comparison of the States of North Carolina and Iowa, which were nearly equal in white population, as shown by the following figures from the census of 1860:

TOTAL WHITE POPULATION.

| | |
|----------------------|---------|
| North Carolina | 629,942 |
| Iowa | 673,779 |

TOTAL WHITE MALES BETWEEN 18 AND 45.

| | |
|----------------------|---------|
| North Carolina | 115,369 |
| Iowa | 139,316 |

NUMBER OF TROOPS FURNISHED.

| | |
|--|-----------|
| North Carolina, incomplete records show..... | 104,498 |
| Estimated total..... | { 125,000 |
| | or |
| Iowa, complete records..... | 76,242 |

In the consideration of particular battles or campaigns, we naturally reflect that the disparity in numbers present at any specified battle, or in the field at a certain period, cannot be estimated by reference to the total number enrolled in either army for the war.

The disparity in strength of the opposing armies was greatest in the last year of the war, and it never could have been very great until the last year. The Confederate government drew upon their resources far more rapidly than the North; they forced their fighting men early into the field; and this in part accounts for the heroic resistance against odds which they were enabled to display more conspicuously in the closing campaigns, when nine tenths of the Confederate army were the seasoned veterans of many campaigns, while they were opposed, to a considerable extent, by raw recruits freshly drawn from the plentiful and unexhausted resources of the North. However the subject is viewed, it leads to the conclusion that General Grant was right when he emphatically denied that the Confederates were outnumbered in all the important battles of the war. It is certainly true that their muster-rolls were incomplete, and that the official reports of their commanders, therefore, could not have been exact.

Major Moore's published roster of North Carolina troops purports to show the date of enrolment of nearly all of the 104,000 men whose names are preserved on the rolls of that State. I have made a careful examination of this roster, in order to determine approximately the number who appear to have been enrolled during the years 1861 and 1862, and the number stated to have been enrolled subsequent to that period. This roster shows that of the 104,000 men whose names appear therein, about 85,000 (in round numbers) were enrolled in 1861 and 1862, and only about 19,000 subsequent to 1862. Assuming, as above stated, that the State of North Carolina furnished about one tenth of the Confederate troops, these figures indicate an aggregate of Confederate troops for the years 1861 and 1862 of about 850,000; and also that only about 190,000 were added to the Confederate army subsequent to the year 1862. It seems wholly unreasonable to assume that the Confederates raised 850,000 troops in 1861 and 1862, and only 190,000 thereafter, and yet this is the conclusion to which the North Carolina records lead. And I may add that it appears to me suggestive that these North Carolina records should thus appear to have been so full and complete for the first two years of the war, but deceptive for the last two years.

The facts here referred to point to another aspect of the subject, and suggest several inquiries: The Federal army rolls being perfect, why are the Confederate rolls so defective? How can it be accounted for that the rolls of one North Carolina regiment omit more names than are omitted from the rolls of the entire Federal army? Why did the Confederates, as stated by General Grant, "belittle their numbers in every important engagement"?

The principal ex-Confederate historians are those who held high civil or military rank in the Confeder-

ate government. They must necessarily have had knowledge of the resources of their Government, of the actual or approximate strength of their army, and of the character of their official records, whether true and accurate, or the reverse. Great inaccuracy of statement upon these points by such historians can hardly be accounted for upon the ground of ignorance.

The statements usually made by ex-Confederates regarding the strength of their army place the total at about 600,000 or 700,000; whereas, I do not think it would be difficult to demonstrate that the number was not far from 1,500,000.

Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederacy, in his "History of the War between the States," says, "The Confederates, all told, could not have much if any exceeded 600,000." How does this statement of the historian coincide with the estimate of Major Moore that the single State of North Carolina alone furnished 150,000 troops, or with his revised estimate of 125,000, or even with the incomplete records, which show the names of 104,000 men furnished by that State?

The facts herein stated lead me to submit one suggestion, looking to further and more thorough research upon this subject. The "Rebellion Records," so called, comprising the immense mass of Federal and Confederate official reports and correspondence touching the conduct and events of the war, valuable as that publication will be, will not settle this question; and this for the reason that the official records do not show, and perhaps were not designed to show, the true, actual strength of the Confederate army. There is, I believe, but one way in which the question can ever be really settled and removed from the field of doubt and controversy, and that is by an investigation authorized by law, made by the Government, and directed especially to that object. The efforts of ordinary individual research will only invite controversy, and prove unsatisfactory. The Government has in its custody all the captured muster-rolls, but it has made no use of these invaluable historical data. The names upon these rolls should be enumerated by regiments. Investigation would then easily determine how far the rolls of any given regiment fall short of showing its true strength for the war, and how many regiments, like the 60th North Carolina, had three times as many men in their ranks as they had names upon their rolls. The Government has also, in the records of the last census, data which should show the number of Confederate survivors in 1890. The census law of 1889 did not provide for obtaining these data; but I understand that the Superintendent of the Census, in the exercise of the discretion vested in him, found that in enumerating the Federal survivors, as the law required, he could with little inconvenience also enumerate the Confederate; and that, if the other duties of his bureau do not prevent, he will compile and publish the result of such enumeration.

I am deeply impressed with the conviction that the Government at Washington, possessing as it does these important historical data, and the means which would enable it to settle this question, so far at least as it will admit of definite solution, owes it to itself, to the cause of truth and justice, and to the good name of those who fought for its preservation, thoroughly to investigate this question. It ought, at least, to authenticate and

publish every known fact and record in its custody that may throw light upon the question, to the end that history may speak the truth, and may not become the mere trumpet of ignorance and of vague conjecture.

A. B. Casselman.

The Illinois of Lincoln's Time.

PORTIONS of the Lincoln "Life" recall most vividly my childish recollection of the time and the people mentioned there, as well as many points told me by my mother and father.

My father was the A. T. Bledsoe referred to in the history. He practised law in the Supreme Court of Illinois, of which my grandfather, Moses O. Bledsoe, was clerk. He was an intimate associate of most of the men mentioned in this open letter as being prominent in the Springfield of that date, and I have heard him talk by the hour and tell stories of that time.

In those days the character of the courts in which my father, as well as Mr. Lincoln, practised was very primitive, and the stories told by my father are perhaps worth recording.

In one case a livery-stable horse had died soon after being returned, and the person who had hired it was sued for damages. The case finally required some proof that the defendant was a hard rider. A witness was called—a long, lanky Westerner. The lawyer said, "How does Mr. So-and-so usually ride?"

Without a gleam of intelligence, the witness replied, "A-straddle, sir."

"No, no," said the lawyer; "I mean, does he usually walk, or trot, or gallop?"

"Wall," said the witness, apparently searching in the depths of his memory for facts, "when he rides a walkin' horse he walks, when he rides a trottin' horse he trots, when he rides a gallopin' horse he gallops, when—"

The lawyer, irately, "I want to know what gait the defendant usually takes, fast or slow."

"Wall," said the witness, still meditating, "when his company rides fast he rides fast, and when his company rides slow he rides slow."

"I want to know, sir," the lawyer said, very much exasperated, and very stern now, "how Mr. So-and-so rides when he is alone."

"Wall," said the witness, more slowly and meditatively than ever, "when he was alone I wa'n't along, and I don't know."

The laugh of the court at the baffled questioner ended the cross-examination.

A case of sheep-killing came up. The defendant was a rustic, and the charge was, "Killed with malicious mischief." When asked, "Guilty or not guilty?" the defendant would give no direct answer. "I *did* kill that sheep, but I did n't kill him with no malicious mischief." Nothing else could be extracted from him. Finally he was told that he must plead something, "guilty or not guilty." He refused to acknowledge himself either. "You must do something," said the judge. "What do you do?" "I stands mute," was all that could be extracted from him. In the end, the case was decided against him, but he was told that he could take it up to the Court of Errors. "If this here ain't a court of errors," said the phlegmatic victim

of the law, "I 'd jest like to know where you kin find one."

In a case (I have forgotten the charge) which went against the defendant, who rose up and gave his opinion of the judgment, and was fined ten dollars for contempt of court, a bill was handed over to the clerk which proved to be twenty dollars.

"I have no change," said the clerk, tendering it to the offender.

"Never mind about the other ten dollars," was the retort. "Keep it; I'll take it out in contempt."

There was in those early days a curious character who presided at the bar; his name I have forgotten, but I remember my father's characterizing him, in Lord Chesterfield's phrase, as "dullness blundering upon vicacities." In a certain case in which this person acted as counsel for the plaintiff, a five-dollar note had been stolen. That fact was proved beyond question. The point at issue finally was one of grand or petit larceny. The counsel for the defendant made the ingenious plea that the bill was an Indiana bill, and worth four dollars and ninety-five cents, and therefore was below the limit of petit larceny, five dollars being that limit. The jury seemed quite impressed by the argument, when the counsel for the plaintiff rose, and in the peculiar drawl and nasal intonation characteristic of his speech said: "Gentlemen of the jury, if any one of you was to take that Indian five-dollar bill to market, there 's not a butcher there that would not be glad to take it at pa-a-ar. If you was to go to any of the stores on the square here, they 'd be willing and more 'n willing to take it at pa-a-ar; but this mean, confounded sneak could n't afford to steal it at pa-a-ar." The jury rendered a verdict of "guilty of grand larceny."

After General Shields had challenged Mr. Lincoln, and before the preliminaries had been arranged, Mr. Lincoln came into my father's office. He said: "I don't like this duel business. It is very foolish; but I can't show the white feather, and I don't know what I ought to do." My father said: "Lincoln, you are the challenged party, and can choose the weapons. Choose broadswords, and I'll be qualified Shields will never fight you." Mr. Lincoln was very much amused with the notion, and instructed his second to name broadswords as the weapons. When the seconds met and broadswords were proposed, General Shields's second demurred. He said, "Barbarous weapons for the nineteenth century." "Yes," said Mr. Lincoln's second; "they are barbarous; so is duelling, for that matter. It is just as well to have the whole thing of a piece," or words to that effect. When the time for the duel came, my grandfather, father, Dr. Merryman, and some others went to the scene of action. In those days stage-coaches were the only public conveyances overland, and the party had to spend at least one night on the way. The men, as was not uncommon in those days, found very limited accommodations, so four, I think, had to sleep in a bed. My father said that during the night he found himself in very narrow quarters as to the shoulders, while below there seemed ample room to expatiate. In the morning he discovered that his right hand bedfellow, a perfect stranger, had lost his left leg. Dr. Merryman called out in the night to my grandfather, "Wake up, Bledsoe; wake up." Grandpa said, "Dr. Merryman, are you a doctor and don't know that when a man snores it is a sign that he is asleep, *not*

that he is dying?" "Yes; I know," said the doctor. "When most men snore, I know it is a sign that they are asleep; but when you snore it is a sign that nobody else in the house but yourself is asleep."

The news of the proposed duel was noised abroad, and a crowd had collected on the Illinois side of the river, awaiting the return; it seemed to this merry party that the termination of this threatening affair would be unbearably flat if they just came home and announced an apology as the "upshot in the end." So they put a log of wood prostrate in the bottom of the canoe, covered it over with General Shields's cloak, or something equally effective, and then clustered around the supposed victim of the fight, one fanning, another supporting, etc., till the crowd gathered on the opposite bank was worked up to a great pitch of excitement and sympathy. When the log was lifted out the dueling party had effectually turned the laugh from themselves.

Sophie Bledsoe Herrick.

A Remarkable Trial by Jury.

JOSIAH LAMBORN, who was a law partner of Abraham Lincoln, and one of the galaxy of stars that embraced Lincoln, Douglas, Baker, Calhoun, Logan, and Browning, has been nearly eclipsed by the neglect of the generous biographers who have recorded the fame of his compeers. Politics and law in his day were almost inseparable, and he took a leading part as a Democrat in the heated campaign of 1840. He was engaged in a notable debate, with Douglas, Calhoun, and Thomas as coadjutors, against Lincoln, Logan, Baker, and Browning for the Whigs. He was not brilliant in oratory, but correct and calculating. Only once was he beaten in argument, and that was by Stephen A. Douglas.

The following account of Lamborn's power as prosecuting attorney in a celebrated case is furnished by Judge J. H. Matheny, who was at the time a clerk in the Circuit Court, and an eye-witness of the event:

In a neighboring county, in a difficulty arising out of politics, two prominent citizens became involved, and one killed the other. He was arrested and indicted for murder. His friends employed Edward D. Baker to defend him. Baker was just coming to the front as a great criminal advocate; was young, ambitious. Lamborn was prosecutor, and he, too, was young and ambitious, and felt that Baker was a foeman worthy of his steel. The author of this sketch [Judge Matheny] was then studying law with Baker, and was somewhat skilled in the preparation of defenses and selection of juries, and at Baker's request went with him to the trial. The whole county was intensely excited. The trial had assumed a political aspect. The man on trial was a Whig, and the man killed was a Democrat; the party lines were closely drawn, and the friends of the dead man were clamorous for the blood of the man who killed him. The court was held in a large frame building used as a Baptist church, and on the day of the trial it was crowded to its utmost capacity. The jury was impaneled, and the evidence taken. The killing was admitted, and the defense was "justifiable homicide."

Lamborn and Baker were both strangers to the people and jurors, neither having visited that county before, and each determined to win a victory. Lamborn arose to open the case on the part of the prosecution. He was a tall, slim man, with a most singularly musical voice, and the strangest tawny complexion imaginable. His whole countenance was utterly emotionless. Over his voice he had complete control. He simply read the indictment, and then, in a few unimpassioned words, asked a conviction of the defendant. Everybody was astonished and disappointed. I was watching him intently. I knew the man

so well that I was looking for something extraordinary; but his sudden abandonment of the case surprised me greatly. Baker arose for the defense. He was a handsome man—one of the handsomest men I ever knew. Beneath the magic power of his burning eloquence all hearts were subdued, all angry passions were hushed, the fierce cry for blood was stilled, and it could be plainly seen that from every bosom in that vast audience went up the earnest prayer, "Let him go free!"

During Baker's wonderful defense I was watching Lamborn. He sat perfectly still, seemingly totally unconscious of time and place. When Baker sat down and the murmuring ripple of approval had ceased, Lamborn arose in a weary and listless manner, and asked the court to take a recess until after supper, stating that he did not feel well, and needed a little time to prepare his answer to the powerful defense made by Baker. Court adjourned until seven o'clock. After the people had gone Lamborn came to me and asked me to go with him to see the sheriff.

The sheriff came to the front door and invited us in. Lamborn declined, but said: "I am not well, and my eyes are so exceedingly weak that I cannot bear the light. Now I want you to do this for me. When you open the courtroom to-night, I don't want any light in the room but one candle, and I want that placed on the little stand in front of the jury." The sheriff replied: "Will the judge permit that? It will leave the room so very dark." Lamborn said: "I will speak to the judge. It will be all right. Baker made a stronger defense, and I must answer it, for that man is a murderer and must be hung, and I can't successfully answer it unless you do as I want you to." "All right—all right," said the sheriff, "if the judge don't object."

Seven o'clock approached, and Lamborn took my arm, and we made our way slowly to the court-room. As soon as I entered the door I comprehended it all. The house was completely filled, and the one solitary candle, casting its weird, ghostly shadow throughout the room, sent a shivering chill all over me, and, casting my eyes over the faces of the jurors, I could plainly see that the same effect was produced upon them as upon me. Gone were the beaming eyes and joyous countenances as they gleamed and glowed beneath Baker's glorious eloquence; gone the pulsations of mercy that then thrilled every bosom.

Lamborn slowly and deliberately arose in front of the jury, that one candle casting its faint light upon his cold and pulseless face. Half bent he stood, leaning upon a chair in front of him; and thus he stood for fifteen or twenty seconds utterly motionless. Every eye was upon him. Then with a cold and passionless sepulchral voice he said:

"Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed."

He partly straightened himself, pausing for perhaps a half-minute, the ghostly shadows seeming to grow darker around him, when again came the fearful words:

"Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed."

By this time the silence in the room had become absolutely appalling; men ceased to breathe, and their very hearts stood still. He raised himself to his full height, stood perfectly motionless for perhaps a minute, then in words as cold and passionless as death came again the awful denunciation:

"Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed."

Then, pointing his quivering fingers at the jury, and with a voice that rang like a trumpet, he exclaimed:

"Such is God Almighty's awful decree. Dare you disobey it?"

He ceased. It was enough, the work was done; a verdict of guilty followed, and the unfortunate victim passed on to his fate. I have seen in my time wonderful actors, have witnessed some extraordinary scenes on the stage, but never have I seen anything to equal that night's work in that humble court-room.

Lamborn became the law partner of Abraham Lincoln; was appointed prosecuting attorney for Jacksonville, Morgan County, Illinois, and was elected attorney-general of Illinois for 1840-43. He died in 1847.

Samuel Lamborn.

American Artist Series.

JOHN S. SARGENT.

A YEAR ago Mr. Sargent's life-size portrait of a little girl called Beatrice hung at the end of the main gallery, in the place of honor, at the annual exhibition of the Society of American Artists. All New York talked about it, and this was surprising enough, as our city does not often interest itself very keenly in a picture of so unsensational a kind. But it was still more surprising to find that all New York not only discussed but admired this "Beatrice," for as yet it is the way of the world that what artists praise the public does not find quite satisfactory.

In truth, attractive qualities which are not often combined in a picture unite to make this one beautiful in the eyes alike of the most critical and the most ignorant. The charm of the subject is the first thing to be noted — the rare and exquisite individuality of the little lady herself. But, it should quickly be said, we must not overestimate the intrinsic importance of this charm, since it is one that would certainly have been lost under the brush of any but a consummately able artist. To paint a child well is perhaps the most difficult of the portrait-painter's tasks — to preserve the naïve, infantile look of a face upon which time and experience have made no marks, and at the same time to express the character and soul which reveal themselves so shyly that the interpreter must be singularly in sympathy with children if he is to perceive them at all. It is one of Mr. Sargent's greatest distinctions that he never fails of entire success when he has a child before him. No painter who ever lived could more sympathetically have expressed the delicate, peculiar personality of little Beatrice with more truth and fullness or with more simplicity; and none now alive could have done it so well. It is worth noting, moreover, that Mr. Sargent did not "costume" the child for the sake of pictorial effect. The dress is one she was in the habit of wearing, and the bird is her own particular pet.

Beauty of color also counts for much in the attractiveness of this portrait. The dress, with its pale-brown stripes and sprinkled flowers, the rosebud-tinted flesh and light-yellow hair, the pink topknot, and the pink and gray bird in its gilded cage, all relieved against the rich, deep tone of the background, unite in a harmony as brilliant as it is pure and tender. The pretty pose, too, must be taken into account, and the scheme of composition, where the height of the canvas, as well as the tall table and cage, so admirably emphasize the fairy-like smallness of the child.

All these things a brother-painter appreciated as fully as the public. And yet he might almost have overlooked them all for a time in admiration for the technical skill displayed — for the truth and beauty, the combined force and delicacy, of the handling. Rarely had the values and texture of flesh been so perfectly reproduced, and never, one was tempted to decide, the values and texture of flesh of this fragile transparency. The treatment of the neck, where white skin, white lace, and white pearls met, was a marvel of delicate vigor, and in all the rest of the canvas it was

wonderful to see how so dashing a brush could produce an effect so complete, refined, dignified, and quiet. One did not feel that brilliant handling had been displayed for its own sake, but simply that the painter had known so exactly what he wanted to do, and been so sure that it was exactly the right thing, that he could not help working broadly and swiftly. It was masterly painting, because a master's eye had seen the subject before the master hand began its reproduction. Mr. Sargent had seen not only form and color with clearness and acuteness, but also the baby soul behind them; and he had reproduced them all so beautifully that, when the tears came in one's eyes from sheer delight, it was hard to tell whether emotion was more touched by the work of nature or the work of art. Yet when we reflect a minute, and say again, A pearl among babies portrayed in a pearl among pictures, we feel that art must be allowed the chief share in the result. Exquisite children are born into the world more often than exquisite works of art, and nothing is beautiful upon canvas unless beautifully painted. Mr. Sargent might have found another model to give him as happy a chance; little Beatrice could hardly have found another painter to do her such absolute justice. To art, not nature, will be due the credit when in later years this child shall win an immortality like that with which a Velasquez or a Van Dyck endowed the royal children of his brush. I should hesitate to say that this is the finest picture Mr. Sargent has painted; but it is one of the very finest, and is certainly the loveliest of them all.

John Singer Sargent was born of American parents in Florence, Italy, in the year 1856. His mother is a Philadelphian, and his father belonged to the Boston family several members of which have been honorably conspicuous in journalism, literature, and science. He studied painting under Carolus Duran in Paris, and evidently, in another fashion, under the spirit of Velasquez in Spain. In 1878 he received an honorable mention at the Salon, and in 1881 a medal of the second class, while at the International Exhibition of 1889 he was given a medal of honor and the rank of chevalier in the *Legion d'Honneur*.

Born in Italy, educated in France, living much in London, and traveling widely, Mr. Sargent is that typically modern product, a citizen of the world. Yet he is not a man without a country. Blood has proved the strongest influence. No American would take him for a "foreigner," and we are only following his own lead when we claim him for the Western World. The pictures which won him the highest honor that could be gained at the Paris Exposition formed the chief feature of the American collection, and though he is a member of the *Société Nationale des Beaux-Arts* in France, he is also a member of the Society of American Artists in New York; and Americans appreciate their good fortune in being able to claim him as a fellow-countryman. Wherever his pictures have been shown they have excited a very unusual amount of interest; prizes have been awarded him in Chicago and Philadelphia; and he is now working upon a large mural painting for the Boston Public Library.

M. G. van Rensselaer.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

The First Presidential Election Under Ballot Reform.

THE presidential election of this year will be the first one in the history of the country to be decided by a secret ballot. Three quarters of all the States will cast their vote in that election in accordance with some form of the Australian system, and these three quarters include the most powerful States in all sections except the South. They include all the New England and Middle States, and all the Western and Northwestern States except Iowa, Kansas, Nevada, and Idaho. Four Southern States will have the system in operation this year,—Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and West Virginia,—and Kentucky and Texas have adopted constitutions directing their legislatures to enact laws embodying its principles. Seven Southern States have, for some inexplicable reason, failed to realize the value of a reform which is of even greater importance to the South than it is to any other part of the Union.

The fact that all the so-called "doubtful" States, whose vote is decisive in the election, are to cast their ballots in absolute secrecy, free from all espionage and intimidation, is one of momentous importance. The first and inevitable effect will be to lessen enormously the part which money will play in the contest. Every State in which money has heretofore been used most freely has adopted the new system. If votes be bought in those States hereafter, the purchasers cannot follow the men whom they have bought to the polls to see if they keep their bad bargain. The result will be the same in those States as it has been everywhere else under similar conditions; namely, very few votes will be bought.

This is a novel phase of a presidential canvass and election which both political parties will do well to take into consideration in selecting their campaign managers for this year. If money is no longer to be the controlling factor in the election, will it be either expedient or wise to put a professional corruptionist in charge of the campaign of either party? On the contrary, will it not be the highest political wisdom to put men of character in charge of all the committees, national, State, district, and other? Surely the time has come when such a change is most earnestly to be desired. Everybody admitted at the close of the last presidential campaign that money had been used upon both sides with a profusion never before seen in this country. There was no concealment of the fact. Both campaign committees admitted that they had used large sums, but that each had been compelled to do so by the lavish outlays of the other. Indeed, for several years past the absolute necessity for getting skilled corruptionists to take charge of campaign work has been argued with great plausibility on the ground that for one party not to do it would be simply to let the other party's corruptionist win the battle without a struggle. "We must fight the devil with fire" has been the excuse on both sides, and the fire has been supplied with a recklessness and an abundance which aroused the conscience of the whole country, and did more than anything else to create the popular sentiment in favor of ballot re-

form which has led to the enactment of the twenty-nine laws of to-day.

These laws are certain to operate here in the same beneficent way in which they operated in England. They did not stop all extravagant use of money in elections, but they did put a stop to bribery. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, when in this country at the time our ballot-reform agitation was beginning, said of the operation of the Australian system in England: "In my opinion there is at the present moment exceedingly little electoral bribery and corruption in the United Kingdom. The elections are singularly pure, and are daily, if it were possible, improving in that respect. Corruption, indeed, is almost an impossibility, owing to the fact that the briber is absolutely dependent upon the bribe-taker's observance of the motto 'Honor among thieves,' for the briber has no means of ascertaining how the latter votes." Yet before the English law went into effect bribery was more open than, and its general practice had reached proportions far in excess of, anything ever seen here.

In England they did not stop with legislation making bribery unprofitable because of the impossibility of seeing the goods delivered, but they went a step further, and forbade extravagant expenditures of all kinds in elections by limiting the amount of money each candidate should be allowed to spend, and requiring him to publish a sworn account of all his expenditures. They made this the corollary of their ballot-reform legislation, and we must do the same thing here before we can stop the undue use of money in elections. The English Corrupt Practices Act, to which we have had occasion to refer many times, was passed by Parliament in 1883. It forbade the undue use of money and influence in every conceivable way, and fixed a maximum limit for all expenditures, requiring the sworn publication after election of every penny spent. When it was under discussion it was constantly predicted that it must fail of its purpose because the evils complained of were not such as could be reached by legislation, and the opinion was almost universal that the maximum limits of expenditure were far too low. Yet it was a complete success at its first trial, and practically abolished corruption in English politics at a single blow. When the grand total of expenditures in the election had been footed up, it was discovered that it was only a little more than one half of the grand total allowed by the law, so that, instead of being too low, the maximum limits were at least a third higher than they needed to be. This demonstration has been repeated in every subsequent election. When one candidate does not bribe, his opponent has no incentive to outbid him; and the result is that elections are not only decided on the merits of the candidates as they appear to the uninfluenced judgment of the electors, but they are so cheap that the poor man has equal chance with the rich as a candidate.

Does anybody doubt that if we had a law in this country fixing maximum limits for the expenditures in behalf of all candidates from aldermanic to presidential, and requiring sworn publication of all expenditures

after election, that the profuse use of money in elections would not be stopped at once upon the law's going into effect? Sworn publicity by itself would be almost a complete cure. If both campaign committees in 1888 had made their expenditures with the knowledge that at the end of their work they would be required to make public, under oath, a full statement of all the money they had received and spent, would not the outlay have been much less than it was?

We have, by passing ballot-reform laws, made the use of money for bribery difficult if not impossible, and have, therefore, cut off one of the avenues for large expenditures; but we must not stop there. So long as extravagant expenditures are permitted, they will be made. Our experience is like that of all other nations. There has never been a government under which the rich have not bought votes and the poor have not sold them, provided the law permitted such bargains to be made in secret. The American people are as jealous in the care of the moral health of their political system as other nations have been, and now that they have taken the first step toward abolishing corruption from their elections, they will be certain to take the second at an early day. In the mean time the political managers will do well to make a note of the fact that money is certain to play a less important, and reason and argument a more important, part in the campaign of 1892 than in those of its immediate predecessors, and select their campaign directors with this end in view. They can rest assured, furthermore, that the people are not in a mood to view with complacency the selection of a professional corruptionist to conduct the campaign of either party,—much less the nomination by any party of a notoriously corrupt politician as a candidate for the presidency,—though in these latter days such men have dared to attempt to juggle even the presidency into their pockets.

The New Electoral College.

UNDER the new Apportionment Act the Electoral College in the next presidential election will consist of 444 members, and 223 votes will be necessary to elect. This is an increase of 43 over the Electoral College of 1888, of which 23 come from enlarged representation in 17 old States, and 20 from the admission into the Union of six new States. We give in the following table the old and new apportionment for each State, the old States being divided between the two parties as they voted in the last presidential election:

| Republican. | | Democratic. | | | |
|--------------------|---------|-------------|---------------------|-----|-----|
| New ap. | Old ap. | New ap. | Old ap. | | |
| California..... | 9 | 8 | Alabama..... | 11 | 10 |
| Colorado..... | 4 | 3 | Arkansas..... | 8 | 7 |
| Illinois..... | 24 | 22 | Connecticut..... | 6 | 6 |
| Indiana..... | 15 | 15 | Delaware..... | 3 | 3 |
| Iowa..... | 13 | 13 | Florida..... | 4 | 4 |
| Kansas..... | 10 | 9 | Georgia..... | 13 | 12 |
| Maine..... | 6 | 6 | Kentucky..... | 13 | 13 |
| Massachusetts..... | 15 | 14 | Louisiana..... | 8 | 8 |
| Michigan..... | 14 | 13 | Maryland..... | 8 | 8 |
| Minnesota..... | 9 | 7 | Mississippi..... | 9 | 9 |
| Nebraska..... | 8 | 5 | Missouri..... | 17 | 16 |
| Nevada..... | 3 | 3 | New Jersey..... | 10 | 9 |
| New Hampshire..... | 4 | 4 | North Carolina..... | 11 | 11 |
| New York..... | 36 | 36 | South Carolina..... | 9 | 9 |
| Ohio..... | 23 | 23 | Tennessee..... | 12 | 12 |
| Oregon..... | 4 | 3 | Texas..... | 15 | 13 |
| Pennsylvania..... | 32 | 30 | Virginia..... | 12 | 12 |
| Rhode Island..... | 4 | 4 | West Virginia..... | 6 | 6 |
| Vermont..... | 4 | 4 | | | |
| Wisconsin..... | 12 | 11 | | | |
| Totals..... | 249 | 233 | Totals..... | 175 | 168 |
| Increase..... | 16 | | Increase..... | 7 | |

NEW STATES.

| | |
|-------------------|----|
| Idaho..... | 3 |
| Montana..... | 3 |
| North Dakota..... | 3 |
| South Dakota..... | 4 |
| Washington..... | 4 |
| Wyoming..... | 3 |
| Total..... | 20 |

If we divide the States, old and new, according as they have voted in the most recent elections since 1888, some of which occurred in 1890 and others in 1891, we shall arrive at the following result:

| Republican. | | Democratic. | |
|--------------------|-----|---------------------|-----|
| California..... | 9 | Alabama..... | 11 |
| Colorado..... | 4 | Arkansas..... | 8 |
| Idaho..... | 3 | Connecticut..... | 3 |
| Illinois..... | 24 | Delaware..... | 6 |
| Kansas..... | 10 | Florida..... | 4 |
| Maine..... | 6 | Georgia..... | 13 |
| Michigan..... | 10 | Indiana..... | 15 |
| Minnesota..... | 9 | Iowa..... | 13 |
| Montana..... | 3 | Kentucky..... | 13 |
| Nebraska..... | 8 | Louisiana..... | 8 |
| Nevada..... | 3 | Maryland..... | 8 |
| New Hampshire..... | 4 | Massachusetts..... | 15 |
| North Dakota..... | 3 | Michigan..... | 4 |
| Ohio..... | 23 | Mississippi..... | 9 |
| Oregon..... | 4 | Missouri..... | 17 |
| Pennsylvania..... | 32 | New Jersey..... | 10 |
| Rhode Island..... | 4 | New York..... | 36 |
| South Dakota..... | 4 | North Carolina..... | 11 |
| Vermont..... | 4 | South Carolina..... | 9 |
| Washington..... | 4 | Tennessee..... | 12 |
| Wisconsin..... | 12 | Texas..... | 15 |
| Wyoming..... | 3 | Virginia..... | 12 |
| Total..... | 186 | West Virginia..... | 6 |
| | | Total..... | 258 |

In this compilation Massachusetts, Iowa, and New York are placed in the Democratic column because each of those States has been carried by the Democrats in two successive elections since 1888. Indiana is placed there because the Democrats carried it by nearly 20,000 majority in 1890. Michigan is placed in both columns because twelve of her fourteen electors are to be chosen this year by congressional districts, and two by the State at large. It is conceded that at least four of them will be elected by the Democrats, and we have put that number in the Democratic column.

While making this division on the basis of elections held since 1888, we do not for a moment wish to appear as assuming that the result of this year's presidential contest is foreshadowed by it. There are several States usually and rightly classified as "doubtful" which in this division are placed in the Democratic column. There are also at least two others which have hitherto been regarded as safely Republican in presidential elections. The "doubtful" States are Connecticut, Indiana, and New York, and the States hitherto classed as Republican are Iowa and Massachusetts. All the twenty-two States in the Republican column have hitherto been regarded as surely Republican, with the exception of Montana, and possibly New Hampshire and Rhode Island. As the Republican column stands, its total of 186 votes, 37 less than enough to elect, may be taken as representing fairly the number of absolutely "sure" Republican votes. If now we take from the Democratic column the 57 votes of the three "doubtful" States, and the 28 votes of Massachusetts and Iowa, we reduce the Democratic total to 173, or 50 short of a majority in the college, which may be taken as representing fairly the number of absolutely "sure" Democratic votes.

There are several interesting combinations which can be made with these "sure" totals as bases. First, as to the Republican side. Here are four :

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Sure Republican votes | 186 |
| New York | 36 |
| Connecticut | 6 |
| Total | 228 |

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Sure Republican votes | 186 |
| Massachusetts | 15 |
| Iowa | 13 |
| Indiana | 15 |
| Total | 229 |

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Sure Republican votes | 186 |
| New York | 36 |
| Iowa | 13 |
| Total | 235 |

| | |
|--------------------------------|-----|
| Sure Republican votes | 186 |
| New York | 36 |
| Massachusetts or Indiana | 15 |
| Total | 237 |

All these combinations are on a basis of ten Republican votes from Michigan. If there were to be eleven, this combination, giving precisely a majority of the college, could be made :

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Sure Republican votes | 187 |
| New York | 36 |
| Total | 223 |

Turning next to the Democratic column, we can arrange the following :

| | |
|--------------------------------|-----|
| Sure Democratic votes | 173 |
| New York | 36 |
| Indiana or Massachusetts | 15 |
| Total | 224 |

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Sure Democratic votes | 173 |
| New York | 36 |
| Iowa | 13 |
| Connecticut | 6 |
| Total | 228 |

These are arranged on the basis of four Democratic votes from Michigan. If the number from that State be raised to five, the following can be made :

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----|
| Sure Democratic votes | 174 |
| Massachusetts | 15 |
| Indiana | 15 |
| Iowa | 13 |
| Connecticut | 6 |
| Total | 223 |

The first point which will strike every observer of these various combinations is the overwhelming importance of the thirty-six votes of the State of New York. It is as true now as it has been for many years that the party which carries that State has by far the better chance of winning the election. The admission of the six new States with their twenty electoral votes, all supposed to be safely Republican, has diminished somewhat the importance of New York to the Republicans ; that is to say, they have more chances for winning without New York than they have had hitherto, and more chances than the Democrats have for winning without it : but, as our combinations show, they will have to carry all the States of Iowa, Massachusetts, and Indiana in order to accomplish that feat. As for the Democrats, it is difficult to escape the conclusion that New York is a *sine qua non* for them. With that and Indiana or Massachusetts they can win, or they can win with it together with Iowa and Connecticut ; but it is very difficult to make a combination by which they can win without it, unless we were to count Montana among the "doubtful" States and give them a chance at that, or, as our final combination shows, give them one more vote in Michigan than is usually allotted to them.

The importance of Michigan with its divided vote is second only to that of New York with its largest total in the list. This is made apparent by our final combination in each set, for it is there shown that the change of one vote from one side to the other in Michigan may enable either party to elect a President.

OPEN LETTERS.

The Yankee and Rebel Yells.

ALL organized bodies of men, whether civilized or savage, while engaged in desperate deeds, and every army from the days of Pharaoh to the present moment, have probably had their peculiar yell or cheer, a vocal outburst natural to the people represented. The potent or determining influence which yells, vigorous and enthusiastic, or weak and heartless, may have had from time to time in turning the tide of battle, whether in securing victories or in causing defeats, is an unwritten element or force in war which the historian has greatly if not totally neglected.

It is certainly safe to say, other things being equal, that the body of men or the army exhibiting the greatest amount of enthusiasm, even though its numbers may be decidedly inferior, will possess a marked advantage over its antagonist. Hence to awaken spirit, determination, and dash in his troops at the moment of a charge, is the

earnest desire of every commanding officer. To secure this end, when no secrecy is required, a bold, defiant "yell" is of the greatest value, not only in its effect upon the command in action, but also in the depressing influence which may be produced upon the enemy.

It would be interesting indeed to know the old Roman and Grecian yells, their tone, spirit, and vocal range ; but this the historian has left to our imagination. The same may also be said, so far as I am aware, of the English, French, German, and Russian yells or cheers, for we read and hear but little or nothing of their existence or of their influence in battle.

During and since our late war the "Rebel" and "Yankee" yells have been frequently referred to, but their true character and essential differences, with reasons for the differences, have not, so far as I know, been clearly presented.

I was recently asked to say something upon this subject before the society of "The Virginians" on the

occasion of its annual banquet in New York, and the following is the substance of what was then stated.

There is a natural tendency in the minds of most men, as they move onward along the "River of Time," to forget, or in a great measure to obliterate from their memories, unpleasant things, and, on the contrary, to recall and treasure those that have contributed to their joys, comforts, and successes. With no one is this peculiarity more marked than with the old soldier. When he talks of his war experiences, it will constantly be found that his trials, privations, discomforts, and disappointments, have been largely forgotten or overshadowed by the memory of his comrades, of social gatherings around the camp-fires, of songs that were sung and stories told, of adventures and narrow escapes, of battles lost and victories won.

Among the incidents of active service there were probably no events more thrilling and more exciting to the soldier than those of a charge, for in its dash there were displayed not only the boldness and the fury of the occasion, but, of necessity, much of the savagery of war.

It was in the charge that the "war-whoop" was heard, the savage "yell" with which men wild in battle endeavored to send terror to the minds of their enemies.

Each foe, in every clash of arms, sought to arouse all of the military energy, the enthusiastic vigor, the martial spirit, and the determined endeavor, which could possibly impress upon its enemy the overwhelming force with which its charge or its resistance was made, and no feature added more to the accomplishment of this purpose than the enthusiasm of the yell.

I was a member of the Ninth Virginia Cavalry, a follower of Stuart and his successors, and on many a well-fought field I have seen, listened to, and participated in charge after charge. The defenders of old Virginia were not by any means successful at all times in defeating their adversaries, and not infrequently by force of circumstances were induced to take their turn in a more or less graceful "skedaddle." Whenever I was one of the "skedaddling corps," I found some consolation in recalling a little family incident.

My grandfather was an officer in the war of 1812. Once in his old age, while relating to a number of his grandchildren gathered around him some of his experiences in war, he told of an encounter with the British in which his troops were forced to retreat in decided haste. One of the little boys who had been listening, with his mouth agape, no doubt, in the intensity of his interest, asked, "And, grandpop, did you run?" The old man replied, "Ah, yes, my child; and braver men than your grandfather ran that day."

That there existed a marked difference between the yells of the opposing armies during our late war was a recognized fact, and a frequent source of comment. The notes and tones peculiar to each of them were well defined, and led to their designation as the "Yankee" and the "Rebel" yells. It is interesting to note some of the reasons why they differed so widely.

Southerners have always been recognized by those who have known them best as a people possessed of unbounded enthusiasm and ardor. They have been considered and often called a "hot-headed," a "hot-blooded," people. Among the rank and file, as well as among the officers, of the Confederate armies, were

to be found men of intelligence, birth, position, and distinction in the communities in which they lived; men in whose veins ran the invigorating blood of the noblest ancestry; men who were proud in peace, courageous and fearless in war.

These peculiarities of birth, character, and temperament, coupled with the fact that they were chiefly an agricultural people inhabiting a broad expanse of country but thinly settled, and confined in no large numbers (comparatively) to the narrow limits that city and town life impose, had much to do with the development of their soldierly qualities as well as of their capacity for yelling.

Life in the country, especially in our Southern country, where people lived far apart and were employed oftentimes at a considerable distance from one another, and from the houses or homes in which they ate and slept, tended, by exercise in communicating with one another, to strengthen and improve their voices for high and prolonged notes. A wider range to the vocal sounds was constantly afforded and frequently required.

The voices of women as well as of men were often utilized for "long-distance calls." It may be amusing to note the difference in intonation which was usually exhibited by the sexes. When a man had occasion to summon any one from a distance, the prolonged tone was placed on the first note, the emphasis on the second; thus, "O—h, John!" If a female called, the prolonged tone and the emphasis were both placed on the last note; thus, "You, John—y!"

Hollowing, screaming, yelling for one person or another, to their dogs, or at some of the cattle on the plantation, with the accompanying reverberations from hilltops, over valleys and plains, were familiar sounds throughout the farming districts of the South in the days gone by. It used to be said of my father's old negro foreman that he could be distinctly understood a mile or more away.

Hunting, which was enjoyed and indulged in more or less by nearly every citizen of the South, was also conducive to this characteristic development.

I remember an amusing instance illustrative of this point. I was out on one occasion before the war with a party of gentlemen hare-hunting with hounds. No guns were allowed. I had taken with me a very bright and intelligent little negro boy, who had become for a time separated from me. Later, while the dogs were chasing the hare from thicket to thicket, from meadow to woods, I came to a small open space surrounded by "old-field pines," and "broom-sedge" which had been cultivated in corn during the previous season. There, in the sunshine, unconscious of the presence of any one, sat the little darky packing damp sand over his foot, and withdrawing it—building what the boys called "frog-houses." Just then one of the huntsmen saw the hare, and gave a most vigorous vocal outburst, yelling for the dogs, "Here-here, here-here, here-here!" etc., endeavoring to place them still closer in pursuit. The little negro, without removing his eyes from the work with which he was occupied, simply uttered a most significant comment; he exclaimed, "Humph! Good gracious! dat man certainly kin holler."

The Federal, or "Yankee," yell, compared with that of the Confederate, lacked in vocal breadth, pitch, and resonance. This was unquestionably attributable to the fact that the soldiery of the North was drawn and re-

cruited chiefly from large cities and towns, from factory districts, and from the more densely settled portions of the country.

Their surroundings, their circumstances of life and employment, had the effect of molding the character and temperament of the people, and at the same time of restraining their vocal development. People living and working in close proximity to one another have no absolute need for loud or strained vocal efforts, and any screaming or prolonged calling becomes seriously annoying to neighbors. Consequently, all such liberties or inconsiderate indulgences in cities, towns, etc., have long ago been discouraged by common consent.

It is safe to say that there are thousands upon thousands of men in the large cities, and in other densely populated portions of the North, who have not elevated their vocal tones to within anything like their full capacity since the days of their boyhood, and many not even then.

To afford some idea of the difference between these "yells," I will relate an incident which occurred in battle on the plains at Brandy Station, Virginia, in the fall of 1863. Our command was in full pursuit of a portion of Kilpatrick's cavalry. We soon approached their reserves (ours some distance behind), and found ourselves facing a battery of artillery with a regiment of cavalry drawn up on each side. A point of woods projected to the left of their position. We were ordered to move by the right flank till the woods protected us from the battery, and then, in open field, within a few hundred yards of the enemy, we were ordered to halt and right dress.

In a moment more one of the Federal regiments was ordered to charge, and down they came upon us in a body two or three times outnumbering ours. Then was heard their peculiar characteristic yell — "Hoo-ray! Hoo-ray! Hoo-ray!" etc. (This yell was called by the Federals a "cheer," and was intended for the word "hurrah," but that pronunciation I never heard in a charge. The sound was as though the first syllable, if heard at all, was "hoo," uttered with an exceedingly short, low, and indistinct tone, and the second was "ray," yelled with a long and high tone slightly deflecting at its termination. In many instances the yell seemed to be the simple interjection "heigh," rendered with the same tone which was given to "ray.")

Our command was alone in the field, and it seemed impossible for us to withstand the coming shock; but our commander, as brave an officer as ever drew a saber, frequently repeated, as the charging column approached us, his precautionary orders, to "Keep steady, boys! Keep steady!" and so we remained till the Federals were within a hundred yards of us. Then, waving his sword in air, he gave the final order, loud enough to be heard the field over: "Now is your time, boys! Give them the saber! Charge them, men! Charge!"

In an instant every voice with one accord vigorously shouted that "Rebel yell," which was so often heard on the field of battle. "Woh-who—ey! who—ey! who—ey! Woh-who—ey! who-ey!" etc. (The best illustration of this "true yell" which can be given the reader is by spelling it as above, with directions to sound the first syllable "woh" short and low, and the second "who" with a very high and prolonged note deflecting upon the third syllable "ey.")

A moment or two later the Federal column wavered and broke. In pursuit we chased them to within twenty feet of their battery, which had already begun to retreat. The second regiment to the right and rear of the battery then charged upon us, and for a moment we were forced back; but by that time our reserves were up, and we swept the field.

In conclusion, let us rejoice in the fact that war and its incidental accompaniments are with us only in memory, and let us hope for our loved country, and for ourselves, that peace, happiness, and prosperity will dwell with us and our children's children now and evermore.

J. Harvie Dew.

Is Islam the Gospel for the Orient?

THAT command which Mohammed seemed to himself to hear in the depths of his serious and brooding soul, "Cry, cry, in the name of Allah!" and which he interpreted as the voice of the angel Gabriel, introduces us to a veritable dreamland of history. It is not, however, a land of dreams; rather of realities which have thrilled and torn the world, and strained the religious, social, and political systems of men as with the throes of revolution. The good sword of Christendom never struck more telling blows than at Tours and Vienna, when it dashed to the earth the Damascus blades of the Saracen and Turkish invaders sweeping into central Europe. Who could picture the course of history had the result been different? Who can estimate the world's indebtedness to Charles Martel and Sobieski, and to the brave men who fought with them for the rescue of humanity from the Koran, the crescent, and the harem—the symbols of religious, political, and social degradation? Who can write this story of Islam as it throbs and glows in Eastern history? Who can solve this mystery of God and Mohammed? Who can explain the genesis and the historic mission of this cry of the desert, which has closed ancient schools of philosophy, and held as in chains the sensuous tastes and the wildly idolatrous trend of the fervid East by the simple creed and the stern practice of a severe religious discipline? The history of Islam as a religion, and the story of its mysterious sway, are yet to be written by some master in the science of comparative religion whose spirit shall be taught of God, and who shall bring to the task both genius and patience in Oriental research. He must be able to read history between the lines of romance, separate sober fact from garrulous tradition, trace back the streams of Islamic thought to their hidden fountains in the desert, and push aside the tangled overgrowth from sources, long since dry, which once gave forth their brackish waters to those who perchance were searching the barren wilderness for the purer and sweeter springs of life.

The thought of our time seems ripening for such a true and exact estimate of Islam. A kindly and generous but firm and inflexible judgment upon this historic problem is rapidly forming. Islam shall have all the credit it deserves; it shall be treated with fairness and calmness and courtesy; but never can it have the place of supremacy it claims; it can never even share the honors of Christianity; nor can it presume to be her handmaid in the regeneration of the East. It has done its work, and left its stamp upon the Orient. Its record is of the earth, earthy, although it has cried and fought

in the name of Allah. Its fountainhead is in the depths of the Arabian wilderness; it has flowed only in human channels; it has hardly risen above the ordinary level of religious standards in the Orient; its ethical and social code is only the rude and vulgar heritage of the desert. Its doctrine of one God, while it is the secret of its power and explains to a large extent its magic sway, has not saved it. It has given dignity and nobility to the Moslem creed; but a closer scrutiny reveals the broken, distorted, and inferior representation of the ineffable character of God which we have in Islam. It is God environed with human interpretations, modifications, and readjustments to meet the religious and social requirements of the East as understood by a representative Oriental. The Deity is made to sanction what he loathes, and to command a whole system of human formalism. The difference between the Bible and the Koran is the difference between the divine and the human.

What shall we say, then, of the mission of Islam? What is its significance as a factor in the religious history of the world? Why was it so quickly recognized, and so readily admitted to the place of power it has held in human affairs? What has it done for mankind? It has at least saved the Orient from atheism, and has taught men to bow in prayer, and has nourished generations in the exercise of faith. It has staggered idolatry by a crushing blow throughout all of western Asia and northern Africa. It has been, moreover, a disciplinary dispensation to the priestly pretensions and the idolatrous practices of apostate Christianity. The Eastern world seemed to have rushed headlong into the vortex of idolatry, and had lured Christianity to her fatal lapse. Centuries must pass in the ordinary course of history before the dawn of a spiritual reformation could be expected in the East. Shall idolatry, pagan and Christian, be left, meanwhile, to riot in the ancient seats of Jewish monotheism? Shall the lands which have known "one God" know him no more forever? A fervid cry is wafted from the depths of the Arabian wilderness: "There is no god but God"—alas! that there were added the fatal words—"and Mohammed is the prophet of God." Yet Islam is immeasurably better than idolatry, and has truly a noble message and a high mission. The world shall learn what superb energy and resistless power lie wrapped in the potent principle of faith in God, even though a human teacher be its only leader, and its path is in the mirage of Mohammed's Koran. Idolatry shall be overthrown in the high places of its power, and unhappy Christianity must sit in sorrow and humiliation within the shadow of her defiled shrines, beneath her pictures and images, until the time of her deliverance shall come. Such was the decree and purpose of Providence. Such is the verdict of history.

Islam is thus a rebuke and a check to idolatry until a spiritual era shall dawn. It has comforted many a devout heart, and nourished the religious instincts of the East with its supreme and unflinching allegiance to one supreme God: but, alas! it has thrust a human hero into the place of the Son of God; it has compromised with man's lower nature in its moral standards; it has simply given a religious sanction to the code of the desert; it has collected the odds and ends of Talmudic Judaism, of travestied Christianity, and barbaric heathenism, and has patched up a religion which, while

it claims to teach men in the name of God, is simply a strange and childish medley of God and Mohammed, of truth and trash, of simple faith and rank superstition, of high aims and reckless abandon. Never was there a more bewildering blunder in spiritual discernment, or a more astounding eccentricity in religious opinion, than that which has so recently striven to indorse Islam as a religion which is worthy of a place by the side of Christianity, as a helpful and uplifting power in the world's regeneration. The Christian sense of the age and the civilized self-respect of Christendom have united in an indignant protest.

Islam, however, is not simply a thing of the past, a relic which we dig up from the prolific dust of those ancient seats of Asiatic power. Islam is here; it is of the nineteenth century; it is a power in our generation; it is something to be studied and understood. It is a political factor in the Eastern question of the very first magnitude. What becomes at once, when opened, the "burning question of the straits" is usually at first the flash of Islamic fanaticism amidst the inflammable religious elements of the Levant. The government of Turkey has pledged itself to Europe again and again as guaranteeing absolute religious toleration and freedom; but let a Moslem attempt to claim his liberty of conscience to embrace Christianity, and before the ink is dry his doom is sealed. America, to be sure, has little concern with the politics of Europe; but American Christianity has a high mission and a noble field amidst the intellectual and spiritual struggles of downtrodden peoples. Her mission is one of sympathy, and help, and active philanthropy. An Arabic figure of speech designates a helpful and gracious ministry as something done by a "white hand." American Christianity is reaching out her "white hand" of beneficence to the nations of the Orient. She has already carried to the teeming centers of Asiatic life some of the highest and most helpful elements of our civilization, and is grafting into the intellectual and spiritual movements of the Old World that power which "makes for righteousness," which both sweetens and glorifies human life, and gives it its noblest possible impulse and its highest possible destiny. There must be no "Monroe doctrine" in our American Christianity, bidding us hold aloof from this "white-handed" ministry to those who need so sorely the help of the favored nation whose happy lot has fallen under the light of the "westward star"—a star which, we must not forget, first arose in the East.

America can do much, by wise effort, and cordial sympathy, and watchful interest, to establish throughout the world the precious principle of religious freedom. Her whole influence should be thrown on the side of religious toleration and liberty of conscience. This is a lesson yet to be learned by almost the entire Eastern world. The glow of American sympathy is to-day doing wonders for whole nations in the Orient. American philanthropy has already planted six colleges and seven hundred schools in the Turkish empire. Every prominent language of the East is throbbing with American literary and religious contributions. American missionaries have within a generation given the Word of God to Eastern peoples outnumbering many times over the population of the United States.

Let American hearts be interested in the welfare of Oriental nations, and enlisted in their behalf in the

high services of human brotherhood. An example of national unselfishness as wide as the world and as deep as human want is yet to be given to men. Let America crown her greatness with the beauty and power of this example.

James S. Dennis.

Dr. Weir Mitchell's "A Psalm of Death and other Poems."

A MINOR poet shares with the greatest the privilege of being unequal to himself: some moods are more fitted to his power of expression, some forms are more adequate to his limited art, some phases of thought or action appeal more to his personality; and thus it occasionally happens that he writes above himself. The critic finds in such cases an opportunity, and may do a friendly service to literature by attracting attention to these rare single poems which seldom pass, even when of high excellence, beyond a cultivated and narrow circle. Dr. Weir Mitchell has written more than one volume that has been welcome to lovers of poetry for somewhat unusual qualities in minor verse, and in particular for some few single poems that stand out from the rest. Generally these contain a dramatic element, though the form may be lyric or narrative or, perhaps, ballad. His readers may remember such an instance in the vigorous masque of the miser, with its humorous ending, so much more effective in the original poem than was the prolonged tragic ending which encumbered it, and destroyed its best quality, when it was put upon the stage two winters ago. In a recent volume which Dr. Mitchell has published, "A Psalm of Death, and other Poems,"¹ there is an even finer dramatic poem, which has drawn so little notice as to make the fact a discouraging sign of our lack either of interest or of perception in these matters. Much else in this collection deserves a word of recognition — the sentiment for nature developed by attachment to particular places, a ballad of adventure that interests the imagination, and among a few pieces, which the author somewhat unhappily calls psalms, one sharply touched by that sympathy with physical pain which is usually vague but here is real and definite as science itself, and yet is kept within the bounds of art. All these have their merit; but this dramatic piece already mentioned excels them so far as to be of a different class and to deserve praise of a higher kind. "Master François Villon" is its title — a dialogue between two French nobles. The characterization of each of the speakers is complete, and affords a contrast, but the dramatic power of the author is felt more in the story which one tells to the other, and which concerns Villon. The skilful blending of several interests helps the variety of the matter, and the way in which the narrator unconsciously is made to reveal his own nature is admirable literary irony, while the comic element and a certain sparkle of wit and epigram affect the style without controlling it. The story itself, however, is apart from these literary traits, and is an expression of the charm of the poetic nature in Villon, worked out by well-chosen circumstances; the author has shown

the poet in Villon rising like another self out of the set he was — the flame burning in the swamp. It is an altogether exceptional poem in our current literature, original, imaginative, vital, with both beauty of expression and energy in the movement. The very short and simple annals of our present-day verse cannot well spare work of such distinction, and it is a pleasure to direct lovers of strong and well-turned verse where such an estray lies hidden.

George E. Woodberry.

Aërial Navigation.

SINCE my article on "Aërial Navigation. The Power Required" appeared in the October number of your magazine, I have received a large number of letters on the subject. Those received from France and England have been of a congratulatory character, while two written in the United States have been of a depreciatory character.

The apparatus described and shown in my article was not intended as a complete flying-machine, as some of your readers seem to imagine. It is simply an apparatus which I designed and constructed for the sole purpose of ascertaining how much power was actually required to perform flight with a screw-driven aeroplane.

The apparatus was provided with every requisite for accurately determining the energy required, and furnished me with data which I could not obtain at that time from any other source. My article related wholly to this apparatus.

Some of your readers lay great stress upon the impossibility of such a machine moving straight through the air, saying that it would be quite impossible to preserve the angle of the plane as relates to the earth's surface, or to anything else, and if the machine was cut loose from the arm that guided it around the circle, it would run up a steep incline and fall back to the ground. This might be true of the apparatus shown.

In the machine which I am building, and which is intended for free flight, the most intricate part of the whole thing is the apparatus for keeping the machine on an even keel while flying. This apparatus does for the machine what the brain does for the bird. The least deflection from a predetermined angle instantly applies an enormous amount of energy to the planes of the machine, changing the angles of some in order to maintain the angles of others.

The machine consists of one very large plane with smaller ones attached to it. I do not anticipate any insurmountable trouble in the direction of maintaining the principal plane of my machine at any angle desired. My apprehensions at the present time are altogether of another kind: Will my engines be strong enough?

With the data and formulæ which I have at hand, it would appear that they are, and with a large margin of energy to spare; but the machine is very much larger than any that has ever been made before, and possibly there may be another and an unknown factor — the factor of size.

Yours truly,

Hiram S. Maxim.

"STONYHURST," CRAYFORD, KENT, ENGLAND.

¹ Houghton, Mifflin & Co.