TOPICS OF THE TIME.

A Great Citizen.[1]

OF all the praise that has been uttered in memory of George William Curtis,—editor, author, orator, true gentle-man,— the highest and most significant is the praise accorded him as one of the greatest citizens of the republic. It is true that the loss to the American people of Curtis the writer, of Curtis the orator,— the vanishing of that exquisite and lofty personality from current literature and from the modern platform,— is a most deplorable event; but it is not the calamity that is suffered in the sudden cessation of the disinterested and patriotic activities of one of our few really influential critics of public events, one of the few leaders of public thought and action.

For, strange as it seemed to those educated in a different school, this modest, musical-voiced, courteous, scholarly persuader was an element of which the "practical politicians" of both parties learned that it was necessary to take account. He could easily suffer the gibes of men whose ideas of government were based upon opportunities for cash returns or of personal aggrandizement, knowing as he did the purity of his own motives, as well as the telling effect of his well-delivered blows.

In American citizenship Curtis stood for the theory — as little disputed as it is rarely acted upon by those in power — that government, city, state, national, must not be for a ring, or for a faction, but truly and absolutely for the people. He believed that in a political contest there were no "victors" in the barbaric sense; and that, therefore, there were no "spoils" to divide, but only duties to distribute, policies to be carried out, and always the people to be served.

The death of Curtis should not carry dismay into the ranks of his comrades and followers in the great cause of good government in which his brilliant abilities and pure fame were so completely enlisted. It should rather give new sacredness to that cause; it should enlist larger numbers in the warfare; and be the occasion of greater and still more effective zeal. His ideal of the public service was not a vain and chimerical one. It was practical in the truest sense; it is attainable; and upon its accomplishment depends the very life of the republic.

The Massachusetts Corrupt Practices Law.

MASSACHUSETTS continues to hold the lead among American States in the movement for electoral reform. It was the first State to enact an Australian ballot-law, which has served as a model for similar laws in many other States, and it has the honor also of enacting the most stringent, comprehensive, and carefully considered Corrupt Practices Act yet made a law in this country. Other States — New York, Michigan, and Colorado — have preceded it in point of time in passing such laws, but none of them has a law which can bear favorable comparison with that passed by the Massachusetts legislature at its last session.

We do not wish to be understood by this praise of the law as pronouncing it a perfect statute. On the contrary, it has some defects which are likely seriously to impair its usefulness as a means of suppressing the undue and corrupt use of money in nominations and elections. Yet it has fewer such defects than any other similar American law, and it has many merits which no other such American law possesses. As it is likely to prove a model for other laws, it is worth while to consider somewhat in detail its provisions.

It requires all political or campaign committees, or combinations of three or more persons who shall assist or promote the success or defeat of a political party or principle in a public election, or shall aid or take part in the nomination, election, or defeat of a candidate for public office, to have a treasurer, who shall keep a detailed account of all money, or the equivalent of money, received by, or promised to, the committee, and of all expenditures, disbursements, and promises of payment or disbursement made by the committee or any person acting under its authority or in its behalf. Every such treasurer who shall receive or expend twenty dollars in money or its equivalent is required to file, within thirty days after election, a statement "setting forth all the receipts, expenditures, disbursements, and liabilities of the committee, and of every other officer and other person acting under its authority and in its behalf," such statement to include the "amount in each case received, the name of the person or committee from whom it was received, and the amount of every expenditure or disbursement, and the name of the person or committee to whom the expenditure or disbursement was made." In every instance the date of the receipt or disbursement is to be given, so far as practicable. The statement must also include the "date and amount of every existing unfulfilled promise or liability, both to and from such committee, remaining uncanceled and in force at the time the statement is made," with the name of the person or committee involved, and the purpose clearly stated for which the promise or liability was made or incurred.

It will be seen at a glance that these provisions cover the monetary and other actions of the committee so completely that it will be exceedingly difficult for illicit conduct of any kind to escape full publicity after the campaign is ended. In regard to persons other than committees, including candidates, who receive or disburse twenty dollars, a similar sworn statement is required as from the treasurers of committees, except that candidates may pay their own personal expenses for traveling, stationery, postage, printing of circulars, etc., and need not include such expenditures in their sworn returns. All persons are forbidden to give any money or other valuable thing, or to promise any office, directly or indirectly, to aid or promote their nomination or election to any office, and all demands upon candidates for contributions are forbidden; but

[1] See biographical sketch of Mr. Curtis, by S. S. Conant, in THE CENTURY for February, 1883, in connection with which the engraving by Mr. Cole, reprinted in this number, first appeared.

any candidate "may make a voluntary payment of money, or a voluntary and unconditional promise of payment of money, to a political committee for the promotion of the principles of the party which the committee represents, and for the general purposes of the committee."

We regard this last quoted provision as the chief defect in the measure. Under it any candidate may give a large lump sum, which, though professedly given voluntarily, will really be the price which he will pay for his nomination. The law seems thus to sanction and legalize the "assessment" evil, which is one of the most objectionable in modern politics. To be sure, the report of the committee will show the exact amount of this contribution, and the exact uses to which it is put, but experience with the New York law has shown that candidates do not shrink from this exposure so far as it reveals the sums which they give. Candidates will be forced, not directly, but none the less surely, to pay the expenses of the campaign, and as no limit is placed upon these, it will follow under the new law, as under the old, that in many cases the man who pays the highest price for the nomination will be likely to get it.

The provision which permits candidates to incur personal expenses without including such in their returns is also susceptible of abuse. In striking at the corrupt uses of money in our elections we cannot do better than to follow the English statute, for that has accomplished completely what we are striving for — the annihilation of the evils. The English act compels the complete publication of every penny received and spent, personally or otherwise, in promoting an election, and it fixes a maximum limit in each case beyond which the total expenditure must not be carried. Until we carry our laws to the same extreme, we must be prepared to see them only partly successful in practice, merely restricting the evils somewhat, but not eradicating them.

Road-Building Exhibit at Chicago.[1]

ALTHOUGH the advocates of good roads were unable to induce Congress at its last session to pass a bill appropriating one million dollars for a special building to be used for a comprehensive road-building exhibit at the World's Fair in Chicago, they are not discouraged. They propose to renew their request at the present session, and though they may not succeed in getting it granted, they declare their purpose of making an exhibit. If they cannot get a building, they will use tents, or some other inexpensive method of inclosure, and they will have a mile or more of roadways in various stages of construction.

This is a patriotic determination. That there is a great and steadily increasing interest in the subject of good roads was shown in a very striking manner by the memorial which the advocates of the proposed exhibit sent to Congress. It was a pamphlet of more than one hundred pages, and contained letters of approval from the President and several members of his cabinet, a large number of senators and congressmen, the governors of nearly all the States, the mayors of many leading cities, prominent army officers, and the presidents of our leading colleges. All these persons expressed hearty sympathy with the movement, and declared their conviction that no more worthy or patriotic cause could be represented at the Fair. These letters, accompanied as they were by a great mass of favorable newspaper comment, gave most encouraging evidence that public sentiment in all parts of the country has been aroused to the pressing need of road reform, and to the importance of using the best means for bringing it about.

What the advocates of good roads propose is a comprehensive exhibit of all that is known of scientific road-building, which will serve as a school of instruction to the thousands of Americans who will visit the Fair. They will give sample sections of the best road-construction in this country and in Europe. They will have skilled workmen actually engaged in constructing sections of the various kinds of roads, the most expensive and the cheapest as well, and will have competent engineers and chemists in attendance to explain the process of building the roads, constructing artificial stone, and preparing cements. All machinery used in the work, and the various kinds of material, will be seen in daily practical operation. In short, the visitor who wishes to see not only what a scientific road is, but the exact way in which it is built, will have full opportunity of doing so.

It is scarcely necessary to comment upon the great public value of such an exhibit. Thousands of men in all parts of the land will have their interest in the subject not only aroused to fresh activity, but directed in intelligent channels toward the accomplishment of the most desirable results. Road-building will receive a truly national impulse, with the ultimate effect of incalculably increasing the happiness as well as the prosperity of the whole people. It is not improbable that the people of the United States, now slowly awaking to the fact that they are more than one hundred years behind other civilized countries in the science of road-building, may date the general beginning of their determination to catch up with the rest of the world in this matter from the World's Fair of 1893.

That we are far behind other nations in the construction of our highways no one denies, but few persons realize how long the older countries of the world have been engaged in the work of scientific road-building. In that delightful book, "Young's Travels in France," we come almost constantly upon such tributes to the roads of that country as the following, under date of June 9, 1787:

> The immense view from the descent to Donzenac is equally magnificent. To all this is added the finest road in the world, everywhere formed in the most perfect manner, and kept in the highest preservation, like the well-ordered alley of a garden, without dust, sand, stones, or inequality, firm and level, of pounded granite, and traced with such a perpetual command of prospect, that had the engineer no other object in view, he could not have executed it with a more finished taste.

That was written over a hundred years ago about a road which had been built long before, yet it will stand to-day as a perfect description of the best road which modern science is able to construct. What a civilizing influence such a road must be in any country through which it runs!

[1] See also "Our Common Roads" in THE CENTURY for April, 1892.

Sunday at the World's Fair.

THE Day of Rest is too important an institution in its relation to the physical, moral, industrial, and spiritual interests of the nation to be subjected to any supposed financial necessity. The World's Fair should not be kept open seven days of the week for any sordid reason. If Congress is to change its decision, it must be for sanitary, educational, and moral reasons, and not for merely financial ones. The Sabbath must not be bartered away; it must be put to its best uses — the uses of man. If the gates are to be opened, it must be in the spirit of the statesmanlike, patriotic, and inspiring program outlined by Bishop Potter in his paper printed in this number of THE CENTURY and of the Rev. Dr. Gladden's admirable statement in our "Open Letters."

If the gates are to be opened during any part of Sunday, it should be for a silent exhibition: no hum of machinery; no confounding of the Day of Rest with the days of labor. Sunday should be the day devoted especially to the higher phases of the great Exposition — the natural beauties of the situation, the architecture, the landscape-gardening, the art, the music — to the opportunities of listening to learned, patriotic, or spiritual discourse. Religion should not stand at the gates to drive away with thongs and reproaches the crowding myriads of humanity; but with outstretched hands it should welcome men, women, and children to all within those gates that is noblest and most saving. The World's Fair at Chicago can and should be made an object-lesson of the humane and genuinely Christian use of the first day of the week.

OPEN LETTERS.

Sunday in Chicago.

THE enforcement by law of Sabbath observance from a religious point of view or for a religious purpose has always seemed to me equally opposed to the spirit of our Government and to the spirit of our religion. All that we can seek through legal enforcement is a weekly rest-day; and we seek this in the interest of the national health and the national vigor. We may believe that it is better for the whole people, and especially for the working-people, that one day in seven should be a day of rest. The principle on which the law of the Sabbath is founded is the old Roman precept — *Salus populi suprema lex esto.* That the national vigor is seriously impaired by the failure to keep the weekly rest-day is, I believe, pretty clearly recognized just now in Germany, where strenuous efforts are being made to recover a lost Sabbath, in the interest of the working-classes. If the opening of the Columbian Exposition on Sunday should seem to justify and encourage Sunday labor, it would be a national injury. The working-classes, in whose interest it is to be opened on Sunday, are the very persons who are chiefly interested in strengthening the barriers which divide the weekly rest-day from the other days of the week. It is they, above all others, as experience shows, who suffer from the overthrow of the Sunday rest.

The proposition to make the Exposition itself a great illustration of the fact that Sunday in America is in this respect different from other days, by stopping the processes of labor, and enforcing in all this enormous hive of industry the law of Sabbath rest, seems to me reasonable. If the visitors from all lands, admitted on Sunday afternoon, could see all the machinery standing still, and be conscious of the Sabbath silence that has fallen upon all this toil and traffic, they would get some impression of the meaning of Sunday in our national life. They would see that while continental Europe permits its laborers to be driven to their toil seven days in the week, the American rest-day stands between the greed of wealth and the toiling millions for their shelter and defense. The lessons to be learned at the Exposition on Sunday afternoons would be different from those taught on week-days, but they might be no less valuable. There would be much to see and enjoy in those quiet hours; to the vast majority of the visitors the silent halls would afford an educational opportunity more valuable, in some respects, than that of the noisy week.

All this may be conceded without yielding much to the implied threat of Chicago that if the Exposition is not opened on Sunday, Chicago will debauch the crowd of visitors. It might occur to Chicago that, whether the Exposition is open or shut, it is her first business to see to it that order be preserved, and that a strong hand be laid upon the dealers in debauchery. It is manifest that Sunday in Chicago, during the continuance of the Fair, might be a perilous day for the multitude, whether the doors of the Exposition were open or not. It is evident that it will be, unless Chicago takes good precaution against the peril. This measure of precaution the nation has a right to demand of Chicago. We have bestowed upon Chicago a great privilege and a great bounty; we have a right to ask that she behave herself decently. We shall be sending our youth by the hundred thousand to sojourn for a season within her borders. We want her to make her streets safe and orderly while they are there. We call upon her to restrain and suppress those classes of her population who thrive by the corruption of their fellow-men. Chicago is burning to show us her tall buildings and her big parks. It is a thousand times more important that she show us a city well governed. The nation has done Chicago an immense service by giving her this exhibition. The one return that the nation has a right to require of Chicago is that she order her municipal life in such a way that the nation shall take no detriment, in its reputation or in its morals, by the sojourn of this great multitude within her gates.

Washington Gladden.

COLUMBUS, O., September 7, 1892.

Female Humorists and American Humor.

WHY, in literature, are there no female humorists? Is it not because our sister has been, so far, com-

pelled by nature to make idols, and because she is too much in earnest over her devotion to them to lapse into what would seem to her to be frivolity? Whether erected rightly or wrongly, these idols become a part of herself, and must be propped up at any cost. If, in spite of all her effort, some other power throws them down, or if they throw themselves down, she may become bitter, or sad, or savage, or religious — but never humorous.

A glance at the origin and effects of humor in men does much to answer the above question. Man's humor is the outcome of his capacity to see truth, or at least to discern untruth, and thus to make comparisons. Accustomed since childhood to find the sawdust dropping out of everything, and losing belief in all kinds of wonderment-myths, he ceases to allow his early and more effeminate passion for something to adore and idealize to override his growing desire for truth. The deities which have become mythological, the misplaced affections and trusts, the mistaken respect for the great families of Bulstrode and Pecksniff, in fact, every thing in which he has been disillusionized, has gone to form his education to form an aggregate past of "general smash" at which Jove may smile.

The man smiles, too — if he can. Every day, every hour, he sees the more effeminate of both sexes placing on a heart-altar for adoration images, ideas, heroes, beliefs — all of which have been for him, in turn, fetishes which once possessed every magic power with which fancy could endow them. He therefore smiles when he sees others in the purgatory of the world's schooling, which teaches unpalatable truth and the healthy self-reliance which comes with full knowledge of sawdust and cheese-cloth.

But his smile is not unkind; for he remembers the hurt which iconoclasm brought. The necessity he finds for making the best of things, and the habit he has fallen into of giving a sort of mental snap of the fingers at the unhappiness of each disillusionment, often produce a certain philosophic mirth which provides one avenue of escape from the inevitable difficulty that education and love for truth force upon him — certainly a better one than is afforded by despondency. There is nothing so sane as good humor.

No matter how various may be the channels into which his sense of humor may afterward lead him, it first proceeds from his being convinced of the worthlessness of a great deal that passes as valuable, and from that passion for truth which exhibits things as they are, and not as they seem, and which compensates him, most of the time, for the loss of the visionary's happiness.

Women's idols are so much a part of their lives that when these are broken they cannot snap their fingers. They suffer, and their suffering seems to them sacred. To seek man's avenue of escape from wretchedness in the *laisser-aller* of mirth would seem, to them, the worst kind of sacrilege. If possible, in time, they seek other idols — perhaps embrace the religion which happens to offer the first consolation, taking care afterward to shut out any truth that might again disillusionize them. With them it is always a mere change of idols, never a total giving up of them. They will not face truth which means unhappiness. While man learns that happiness must be confined to quiet and normal limits, woman still seeks ecstasy. She does not love truth — in a masculine way. She loves satisfaction. The woman who gives up a comforting belief merely because it has no *raison d'être* is rarer than the black swan.

Fanatics and very single-minded people, such as the ancient Hebrews or present Arabs, are not humorous. So with women. The idols of fanaticism must be smashed before the whimsicality of human life finds speech. When men learn by education that they know nothing, there is fellowship upon the common ground of mutual loss. When satisfied that the questions of the universe will never be answered, they politely ignore the tragedy of man's position by saying, "Is it not absurd?" As long as women cannot break their idols, or suffer injury when these get broken, just so long will they never produce humor.

Yet they appreciate many kinds of humor when these are put before them; when, for instance, it is made clear that Pecksniff was not what he pretended to be. But (George Eliot excepted) they have not created a Pecksniff. Not being convinced of the worthlessness and absurdity of much that is considered valuable, their minds are not in the habit of placing the real and the unreal side by side; and if they do arrive at a knowledge of human weakness, they write of it only to condemn it, not being so accustomed to it that they can express or even discern the absurdities with which it often appears to men. The sermon or novel which causes change is generally, now, the one which makes weakness seem absurd. Vanity can be touched when religion is nowhere; and with well-informed Americans human error, and in fact almost everything else, is passed through a sort of compassionate whimsicality which appreciates what is valuable, and casts out or makes sport of the absurd. But, dazzled by her ideals, blind to all else when gazing on her idols, woman does not arrive at the comprehensive and whimsical view of the humorist, and consequently loses in her writing the great moral uses of the sense of absurdity, which has done more to kill out error than all the argument of centuries, and has made Americans a free people more than any Declaration of Independence that ever was signed.

Again, women generally exist in one of two conditions — the imagining of a happiness to come, or the seeking for consolation because it is lost, or never arrives. Now this makes them, in a limited way, much more serious than the men who have given up hoping for ecstasy, and have learned to smile, or to try to smile, at all life as it comes. This serious concentration; this continuous necessity for making herself, for either joy or consolation, a part of an adored idol; this picturesque passion for reverential wonderment; this utter disregard for a *raison d'être* in anything she desires — all these phases are poles apart from the mind that has been hammered by the brutality of truth into seeing the world as it is, and can pause to portray the humorous side of its events.

Let me not be understood to suggest that "motley 's the only wear," or that heart-empty humorists have the best of it in life, though it must be admitted that the pleasantest men met with are often those who are so deeply conscious of the terrible realities of life that their humor is simply a well-bred effort to make the pathetic endurable, or to conceal their own distress. On many faces stamped with lines of grief may be seen playing a quaint humor, seeming like an essence which has come

through life's furnaces purified; a something, call it what you will — a pleasing play of fancy backed by compassion and good will, making trouble lighter and gaiety brighter for all; a glimmer of satisfaction, perhaps, in not being responsible for the making of this world; an attempt to make the best of things where perhaps the only answers to the cries of the desolate and anguished are in the hearts of human beings.

Then it is asked, "Why, if witty women exist, does not their humor appear in books?" The witty ones discern laughable incongruities in channels outside those in which their devotions run. They are the least reverential of women, and generally so cold of nature that their gods are few. Some womanly instincts which blind others are so absent from them that they can see *some* absurdities of life without attaining the general view, so that they do not discern the comic side of things so extensively as some men; and in their writings the thoughts which sway them — thoughts which are part of or analogous to the worship of such gods as they possess — always absorb them first.

Satiric and ironic women are partly accounted for in the same way. They do not become humorists because their satire or irony is the only form of humor — not always healthy — which they possess. Women whose natures are so strong in them that they feel themselves different from those who chiefly rule society often feel like hurling something at any negative saint who assumes to be more valuable. Especially satiric are they after they have transgressed a social law; and often with such a "plentiful lack of wit" in their bitterness that literature suffers little by not knowing of it.

The study of George Eliot and her works goes far to suggest that for some time female humorists will be scarce. She, more than any other authoress, attained the general view. But always present with her was her woman's hunger for something to adore; and she never recovered from the heart-starvation which a perfect education and love for truth forced upon her. With her insight into human nature, even her satire was full of a fathomless compassion that yearned over the very weaknesses she amused us with; and, bravely as she faced the eternal impossibilities, her sex's absolute need for a certainty, and the divinity of her ideals, made it impossible for her to be content with the humorist's conviction that this world, apart from its tragedy, is highly absurd.

Humor mingles strangely with the compassion and sense of decency which help to form the composite religion in which an American seeks to be valuable rather than holy; and if women are not up to his humoristic level, it is because they cannot as yet tread the same arduous path. For his part, he thinks they suffer too much already; and he is content that they retain their power for worship — especially of him.

How odd that woman's idols answer prayer! Certainly, at least, she produces only while her idols exist. When life ceases to be in some way holy, or at any rate ideal, for her, then her creative faculty terminates. She ends where man's talent as a humorist begins.

Speaking vaguely, then,— and hoping that the foregoing will explain my meaning,— men may become humorists as they find that they know nothing. Women are not humorists because they never cease to think they know something.

Stinson Jarvis.

A Coöperative Failure and its Lessons.

About a dozen years ago a coöperative scheme of considerable magnitude was begun and carried forward toward completion in a town in the Far West. It did not owe its conception to a strike, which with its accompanying heedlessness might have urged the investors to inconsiderate action. The business venture was of sober judgment, planned in quiet times. Casually investigated, the undertaking seemed, even to shrewd business men, to have many elements assuring its success. The business was not a new one to the investors. To nearly all of them it had been in one way or another their daily toil since early youth. Among the number financially interested were some who, by their intelligence and faithfulness, had risen to positions of foremen and superintendents in just such work as the enterprise was to give for them. No wonder, therefore, that the coöperators had resolute faith in their undertaking. It was often their boast that this was "the poor man's scheme," one that in every way they were specially fitted for. When once they had it in running order they would show the bloated bondholders at present employing them how to make money.

Capital was speedily raised among these workmen, foremen, superintendents, and such of their friends as they were willing to have share with them. In an enterprise so safely guarded, the investment was, in their estimation, surer than a bank-account. To mortgage their homesteads would not endanger them, when such certain profits were to accrue to the money so borrowed. So bank-accounts and borrowed money — a lien upon their homesteads — were accumulated to make a capital of about one hundred thousand dollars. In felicitating themselves upon the bright hopes of immense profits, the first plan of a blast-furnace only was amplified to include puddling-furnaces, a merchant-bar mill, and even a foundry — adjuncts which could only add to the lucrativeness of the scheme.

All went well so long as the capital lasted. Later the day came to this enterprise, as it has to many another, when an empty treasury and an unfinished plant represented the status of affairs. Hitherto it had been easy sailing. They had had money and visible property individually upon which to borrow. They had the ability to plan the works and to direct the construction of the various parts. They were familiar with the machinery to be used, and so had found no difficulty in selecting to advantage. This practical knowledge had been in their estimation all that was necessary to make an absolute success of their scheme. Financial skill with them was of a lower order of merit, while business ability and practical knowledge of their trade were synonymous terms. But money must be provided, and they did not now have it among themselves. How and where it must be raised was the question. They were henceforth for a time compelled to attempt a solution of another and to them a new side of the business problem,— the financial part, which they had held in light esteem. So hopeful were they of their scheme that they sought no outside advice, nor did they court assistance where experience could give it. They felt themselves equal to the emergency. Money was borrowed on their furnace property, the loan being secured in a region where the current rate of interest was twenty-four per cent. per annum.

Difficulties soon met them again, and at a new turn, for the borrowed money was insufficient in amount to complete the works. Experience was teaching them that the duties of their business had many complexities. They had just struggled with a very unfamiliar combination of duties — the making of estimates of the cost of work and the paying for it. This was very unlike their daily toil, which had been directed by men possessing great financial skill and business ability. Their estimates were far too low to complete even the blast-furnace, which on the score of economy was nevertheless pushed toward completion.

It was at this stage of affairs that they became thoroughly awakened to the saddest of business straits — inability to borrow, and their unfinished works mortgaged at a ruinous interest. Overwhelming ruin was impending. It was evident that only financial skill could secure the needed aid. To solicit such help now, after their earlier boastings, must have caused them much chagrin. A friend was sought in whose business ability and integrity they reposed much confidence. They proposed to him the transfer of the controlling interest and the management of their scheme at a great sacrifice, if he would but help them to success. He gave them encouragement, for, as mentioned earlier, the scheme appeared to casual inspection as possessed of substantial merits. The financial part he investigated without discovering any troublesome perplexities. But when the basis of the scheme was carefully examined by an expert sent by the capitalist to look over the property, the fact was discovered, or, to speak accurately, was verified (for the coöperators had been advised of it early in the history of their enterprise), that there was no suitable fuel economically accessible. What they had deemed a bituminous coal was in reality a lignite, which would in no way serve for iron-smelting; and unless proper fuel could be obtained in the vicinity there was no reason for the existence of their scheme.

The adverse report was the death-knell to the bright hopes of all interested. With some of their number the shock made reason totter as their fair dream vanished.

It would have been a happy event, and not less notable as an example, had the coöperators succeeded. Their signal failure is an instructive lesson. These unfortunate investors have come to know by costly experience that a coöperative scheme is subject to all the laws which circumscribe any business venture. No special commercial deity presides over coöperation. In fact, such enterprises have inherent weaknesses which render them even less exempt than others from danger of wreck. Skill in labor is not the sole essential to success in business, nor does capital allied with it make it sure. If that were so, then but a brief interval would elapse before the united workmen of the world would control its capital. To achieve commercial success the combination of financial skill and business ability is far more essential than the combination of labor and capital. The former qualities may be likened to the abilities of a victorious general, the latter qualities to the attributes of an army. The army may be ever so courageous, ever so strong in numbers and equipment, but without a skilful captain no real battles can be won.

N.

Suggestions on the Labor Question.

I SHOULD be glad to see a careful consideration of the following points by some capable writer on the labor question:

First. The misdirection of associated strength. The mere possession of power and opportunities does not give the party controlling them infallible wisdom in their use.

Second. The policy of confining the associations to a few well-defined objects of beneficial character. Squandering strength by meddling with questions that can be settled by other means brings a stormy and expensive life and an early death to an association.

Third. The growing tendency all over the world to localize administration, and to keep communities free from entanglement with the errors and mistakes of their neighbors. The labor movement seems to reverse this plan, and to endeavor to make every personal difficulty wide-spread and national.

Fourth. The irresponsible action by secret societies to effect objects that should be controlled by open and regular laws, affecting all citizens alike. If the laws are not right, let them be properly amended.

Fifth. The wisdom of compelling all associations of employers or employees to take out State charters making them responsible corporations that can sue and be sued; that is, making them responsible for the use of their great power for either good or evil. To make this provision complete, the officers controlling strikes or lockouts should be required to give substantial security that they will conduct their duties lawfully and with discretion. A provision of this kind would send reckless and impracticable agitators to the rear, and bring the more prudent elements of society to the control of the various associations.

A Reader.

General McClellan's Baggage-Destroying Order.

IN THE CENTURY for May, 1889, pages 157, 158, there are letters from General J. F. Rusling and George E. Corson, referring to a foot-note (page 142 of THE CENTURY MAGAZINE for November, 1888) of Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's "Life of Lincoln." The foot-note quotes from testimony of Lieutenant-colonel Alexander before the Committee on the Conduct of the War, to the effect that he saw on the evening of June 28, at General McClellan's headquarters at Savage's Station, an order directing the destruction of the baggage of the officers and men, and he thought also the camp equipage, and that he "remonstrated with the general against allowing any such order to be issued," and that he heard afterward that "the order was never promulgated, but suppressed." General Rusling states conclusively that the order was issued and executed (as does George E. Corson), but he thinks it singular that nobody has ever produced a copy of the baggage-destroying order, and that General McClellan does not mention it either in his official report or in the writings included in "McClellan's Own Story." General Rusling relied apparently upon Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's omission to correct Colonel Alexander's statement as to its suppression as evidence that it was in fact suppressed, so far as accessible publications could demonstrate.

This order, however, was published in full, together with the other circular orders of the same date (June

28, 1862), in Part III. of Vol. XI. of the War Records, p. 272, and has been accessible to any one since that volume was issued in 1884, five years before the date of General Rusling's letter, and four years before the publication by Messrs. Hay and Nicolay of Colonel Alexander's statement. In the next column and same page of THE CENTURY MAGAZINE these authors quote from the same volume of War Records, and from the third page preceding the circular, which is its own refutation of Colonel Alexander's statement as to its scope, as well as its non-promulgation and suppression. The circular order applied only to "tents and all articles not indispensable to the safety or maintenance of the troops, and to officers' unnecessary baggage," and distinctly provided for the carrying by every division and army corps of its entire supply of intrenching-tools, showing that it was an order preparatory for battle, and not for contemplated disaster. Since many of the severely wounded were necessarily left behind in the field-hospitals, with surgeons and medical supplies, it must be believed that there were not wagons enough to transport this unnecessary baggage, and as these wagons, used for ammunition and necessary forage and subsistence, were all brought in safely to Harrison's Bar, the presumption is that McClellan knew his business, for a furious and successful battle was fought on every day of the journey.

This baggage-destroying order was, in fact, an ordinary incident of army life, very shocking, doubtless, to Colonel Alexander,— who was then new in experience of actual war,— and to civilians; but common enough in all campaigns. In fact, the same thing occurred when Sherman began his march to the sea; and when Grant began the Wilderness Campaign the superfluous impedimenta of the army were destroyed. "War Records," Vol. XXXVI., Part II., page 382, contains Burnside's order of May 4, 1864, to "abandon and destroy" the "large amount of forage and subsistence stores" accumulated for issue to his own troops, and which were at Brandy Station, *between* Grant's army and Washington, with no enemy within many miles, and directly on the railroad then in operation to Washington; and this merely in order to make a more rapid junction with Grant's army, then about to cross the Rapidan. Every soldier of the war is familiar with many such instances, which occurred in every department and in every campaign.

I. W. Heysinger, M. D.,
Late Captain U. S. A.

The Sea-Serpent at Nahant.

THAT the traditions at Nahant about the "sea-serpent" were not evanescent may be shown by the following remarks, arising from the article in the June CENTURY. When serving as a midshipman in H. M. S. *Warspite* in 1842 or 1843 I was allowed to accompany Lieutenant Dickson and Mr. Jacob, purser of that ship, to Nahant. During our visit, one of us said to the consul's wife that we had been surprised to see fishing-boats out on Sunday in the bay.

"Oh," she said, "are they out? Then I suppose there are shoals of fish" (I think she named the fish) "in the bay; they say they almost always precede the appearance of the sea-serpent." Of course I cannot say that those were exactly the words used, but I remember that there was some little talk on the subject, more in joke than in earnest, and we went away to an hotel to get our dinner before going back to Boston.

After dinner a man ran up and rather excitedly asked for a telescope, as the sea-serpent was in sight. Somebody furnished one, and we all hurried up to the group. There, sure enough, was "something" very much like what appears in the very minute sketch in the article referred to. It was certainly moving; not, we thought, with the tide, and was not a shoal of fish. How far off it was I cannot say, but probably not more than a couple of hundred yards, traveling along at a rate of something between five and ten knots, with a slight, undulatory motion, and leaving a wake behind it. I cannot particularize any shape as to the head, which was not raised clear of the water, though showing like other lumps of dark-colored body above the surface. I suppose we saw it for four or five minutes, and I know that we three Englishmen thought we had seen something very unusual. I wrote home about what I had seen, and I think my account gave rise to a friendly altercation between my father (then Lord Francis Egerton) and Professor Owen, and, if I mistake not, to an article in one of the quarterlies. The subject was little talked of on board the ship, probably because we were afraid of being chaffed about our credulity; but I am sure that, except what I have said of the lady's remark, we had had no reason to expect to see anything strange at Nahant, nor had we ever heard of a sea-serpent as a frequenter of the bay.

Francis Egerton, Admiral.

ST. GEORGE'S HILL, WEYBRIDGE, ENGLAND.

"The Century's" American Artists Series.

WILLIAM MERRITT CHASE. (SEE PAGE 29.)

WHATEVER place posterity may award Mr. Chase as an artist, whatever the merits of his works may be in the estimation of the older or younger generation of artists, no one conversant with the art progress of this country can doubt that he is one of the strongest personalities in our modern art life, and a most important factor in its development. By nature an optimist, possessed of a fervent enthusiasm, artistic in everything, an honest believer in himself, and in the future of American art, he has impressed his thoughts and theories, fancies and ideas, upon hundreds of students and younger artists, and has raised their enthusiasm to the diapason of his own.

The Art Students' League of New York has always been fortunate in the choice of its professors, and in the third and fourth years of its babyhood perhaps especially so. In 1878 Mr. Walter Shirlaw took charge of the weakling; the year following Mr. Carroll Beckwith and Mr. Chase were added to its staff. Shirlaw and Chase had just returned from Munich, Beckwith from Paris. With the knowledge of European methods possessed by these three, the artistic faithfulness and calm gentleness of Shirlaw, the vigor and tact of Beckwith, and the enthusiasm of Chase, the weak baby became a sturdy child, and at the end of its fourth year the school had an attendance of one hundred and forty, and a surplus of eighteen hundred dollars. Mr. Chase has been identified with the League from that time to the present, and is now one of the ten professors who instruct its students, nearly one thousand in number.

His enthusiasm for teaching, and his sympathy for and helpfulness to the students, are probably largely the outcome of his own early struggles. Born in Indiana in 1849, he was destined by his father for a business career; but this was so uncongenial that he broke over the traces, and after a few lessons from a western painter entered the schools of the National Academy of Design in New York, where he remained for two years. During his stay in this city he was befriended by the portrait-painter J. O. Eaton, to whom many others beside Mr. Chase are indebted for help and encouragement in their early art aspirations. In 1871 he went to St. Louis, where he had some success as a portrait-painter; in 1872 to Germany, where he became a pupil of Piloty. He returned to New York in 1878.

Mr. Chase is a National Academician, and President of the Society of American Artists, and has been the recipient of many honors both at home and abroad.

W. Lewis Fraser.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF AN EDITOR.

By the Author of "Autobiography of a Justice of the Peace."

PICTURES BY E. W. KEMBLE.

SOME men are born newspaper men; some achieve experience as newspaper men; and others have journalism thrust upon them. I do not know which is productive of the best results.

My parents designed that I should be a lawyer, and so I studied the law faithfully for five years, which time was necessarily broken into a good deal by vacations of two or three months at intervals, which I devoted to working by the month, an occupation of which I was passionately fond. Whenever the study of Coke and Blackstone began to grow irksome, and the world began to seem colder to me when I came in contact with it in my sedentary life as a student, I would start up impulsively and secure outdoor employment, by means of which I obtained a great deal of fresh air and new clothes with the price-mark still on them.

After this broken term of study I applied for admission to the bar of Wisconsin twice, and was told both times that I had better study some more. Some would have resented this action on the part of the bar of Wisconsin, but I knew that there was no malice in it, and so I studied some more.

What I liked about the study of the common law, and of Blackstone especially, was that I could read the same passage to-day that I read yesterday, and it would seem as fresh at the second reading as it did at the first. On the following day I could read it again, and it would seem just as new and mysterious as it did on the preceding days.

One winter I studied in the office of Bingham and Jenkins. It was a very cold winter indeed. It was one of those unusual winters so common in Wisconsin. An unusual winter in Wisconsin may be regarded as the rule rather than the exception. I slept in the office, partly because I wanted to be near my work, and where I could get up in the night to read what Justinian had to say, and partly because hall bedrooms were very high at that time except in the matter of ceilings, and money was tighter in the circles in which I moved than I have ever known it to be since.

The first day in the office was devoted to general housework, and learning the combination of the safe. This safe was in fact a large fireproof vault which contained valuable documents, also pleadings, and my blankets. I had a bed-lounge, which was used for consultations during the day, and opened out for sleeping purposes at night.

After reading a chapter on riparian rights and a few *bon mots* from Justinian, I found that it was very late, and so cold that I determined to go to bed. Then I attacked the combination of the safe in order to get my blankets, but Justinian and Blackstone had so taken possession of my newly fledged mind that it had yielded slightly to the strain, and forgotten everything else. The

"I ATTACKED THE COMBINATION."

gray dawn found me still turning the knob of the safe eleven times to the right, stopping on eleven, then nine times to the left, stopping on seven or some other number, but always scoring a failure, and pausing each time to warm my hands under the friendly shelter of the roof of my mouth.

That night was the coldest in the history of the State of Wisconsin, and the woodshed was also locked up at the time. The following summer I went up into Burnett County to look up a location for the practice of the law in order to have it all ready in case I should be accidentally admitted to the bar. The county-seat of Burnett County consisted at that time only of a boarding-house for lumbermen, surrounded by the dark-blue billows of a boundless huckleberry patch. There was also a log hovel with a dirt floor, in which a paper was published.

Leal and her children. A plate crashed. Two of the guests shot up to grapple each other—

The door swung in. The radiant old man on the threshold, roused from weakness of the flesh, and unmindful of all his late-born fear of bigotry, lifted up his voice and cried:

"That 's it! That 's it! Put that doctrine to them straight, Rob! Why, bless the Lord! my boy, that 's better Methodism — straiter-laced — than ever your old father preached in his best days!"

Florence Watters Snedeker.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

The First Duty of Congress.

ONE of the first things which Congress ought to do, when it reassembles upon the fifth of this month is to repeal the silver law of 1890. Under that law the Government is purchasing each month 4,500,000 ounces of silver at the market price, paying in return for it legal-tender notes, redeemable in gold or silver at the option of the Government. The bullion thus purchased is stored, to be coined whenever the exigencies of the circulation may seem to require it. By the end of the year there will be in the Treasury vaults nearly three thousand tons of this bullion, or a sufficient quantity to keep the entire mint facilities of the country busy for over two and a half years if it were to be coined.

But this is only a fraction of the silver which the Government has piled away. The report of the Director of the Mint, read in the Senate in July last, gave the amount of silver dollars stored in the vaults, where they were as idle as if lying at the bottom of the sea, as 357,189,251. The number of silver dollars in circulation at the same date was 56,779,484. There have been coined, therefore, 413,968,735 silver dollars, and of this amount less than one seventh has passed into circulation. If the three thousand tons of bullion were to be coined, and placed in the Treasury with the silver dollars already there, we should have a total of over 460,000,000 of silver dollars, all locked up and all lying idle.

Every ounce of this silver has been purchased at a loss. Some of it has been purchased for 39 cents more than its present value per ounce. The aggregate loss on the whole is more than $100,000,000. If an attempt were made to sell it, the price would fall enormously. Senator Sherman said in his speech in the Senate on June 1, 1892, that to "attempt to sell it on a falling market would only be adding misery to ruin. We have got this vast mass, and we cannot sell it; we dare not sell it."

Surely, in the presence of this enormous amount of idle silver, which refuses to pass into circulation, and which is constantly falling in value, no one can say that there is need either of further coinage of silver, or further purchase of silver bullion. If the limit is ever going to be reached, it has been reached already. We have called it idle silver as it lies in the Treasury, but it is worse than idle, for it is a constant menace to our standard of value.

Here is a great mass of depreciated money held above its real value by the fact of the Government's ability to redeem it in gold. What would happen if the Government, finding itself with a deficit in its Treasury, and thus being without a supply of gold, were to refuse to redeem its silver notes in gold, and were to avail itself of its option to redeem them in silver? We should drop at once from the gold to the silver standard, and every dollar in silver would be worth only its market price, or about 63 cents. It would buy only 63 cents' worth of goods, and every wage-earner would discover that he had lost three eighths of his wages, that his savings-bank deposits had experienced a like loss, and his insurance policy the same. All the results which we depicted in an article in this place in THE CENTURY for May last would follow as surely as night follows day.

The possibility of such a boundless calamity as this ought to be removed by Congress without delay. The present Congress has exceptionally favorable opportunities for wise action in this matter. It comes together for its final session immediately after a presidential election in which both political parties took a position of hostility to free silver coinage. By their action the two parties eliminated the silver question from the late campaign, it being accepted by the people that whether Mr. Cleveland or Mr. Harrison were elected, there would be no further legislation in favor of free silver coinage. Here is ample authority for the present Congress to take the first step in undoing the harm that has previously been done. Its members can have now no fear of the effects of their conduct upon their political futures, for their successors have been chosen, and there is to be no new election of Congressmen for two years. Before that time has elapsed, the silver question will have disappeared utterly from politics.

Every patriotic impulse ought to inspire the members of the Senate and of the House to move at once for the repeal of the law of 1890. Its author, Senator Sherman, expressed his regret last spring that it had ever been enacted, and he would, in all probability, be willing to take the lead of his associates in both houses in securing its repeal now. Let them not only stop this accumulation of silver in the vaults, but let them remove also the possibility that the whole mass may be let loose upon us, sweeping away our standard of value, and wiping out over one third of our earnings and savings.

The repeal of the law of 1890, and with it the option of redeeming silver notes either in gold or silver, would be the first step, but others ought to follow. We ought to get away utterly from the silver folly by decreeing that there shall be no silver dollar in this country which contains less than a dollar's worth of silver. If we could secure an international agreement in favor of a common ratio between gold and silver, the test would soon be made as to whether even such an agreement could im-

part sufficient stability to silver to make a double standard permanently practicable. But we cannot get such an international agreement until we first abandon utterly all efforts to make silver circulate on a par with gold at a ratio which makes the silver dollar worth less than the gold dollar in the markets of the world. So long as we continue in that course, other nations will hold aloof from all international agreement, for the simple reason that they will hope that we will get upon a silver standard, and thus furnish them with a good market for their silver.

The time has more than come for fearless dealing with this subject. Every day of continuation under our present laws is a menace to our prosperity, and to commercial and industrial stability, the evil possibilities of which can scarcely be overestimated. We are in this position simply because of the timidity and short-sightedness of time-serving politicians, who were misled by a mistaken idea that there was great popular strength behind the free-silver movement. There has never been any evidence of such strength, but in every instance in which a true test of popular sentiment has been made, the result has been conclusive evidence that the people were on the side of honest money, having both the intelligence and the probity necessary to convince them that a debased and dishonest dollar was as pestilential a thing for a nation as for an individual. It is time our politicians discovered that the surest way in which to please the people is to be honest with them, and to trust in their ability and willingness to appreciate and reward honest conduct at its full value.

Immigration Problems.

THE subject of restricting immigration is certain to command unusual attention from the session of Congress which is about to open. Chiefly because of the cholera experience of last summer, there is in the country to-day a more pronounced public sentiment in favor of restriction than there has ever been before. People who had formerly a vague idea that we were receiving somewhat too carelessly whomever might choose to come, without regard either to quantity or to quality, became suddenly convinced that their suspicions were only too well founded. No sooner was their attention concentrated upon the quality of the immigration which was bringing the pestilence to our doors, than they began to perceive that there was in it also very doubtful material for good citizenship. It came about, therefore, that the demand which was made for restricting immigration in the interest of the public health became one also for restricting it in the interest of public and political welfare.

As a consequence of this, to us, very hopeful condition of opinion, the approaching session of Congress is likely to be called upon to consider many plans both for regulating and for restricting immigration, and is likely to give them more serious thought than such measures have commanded heretofore, if for no other reason than that public opinion now demands some decisive action in the matter. Legislation in the past has been timid and halting, partly because of the political consequences of anything like rigorous restrictions, and partly because of a lack of public opinion in support of such restrictions. The fear of political consequences — that is, of alienating the support of foreign-born voters by seeming to be hostile to their nationalities — may still be an obstacle when the question of legislation is reached, but it will be counteracted largely by the strong public sentiment which is now discernible in nearly all parts of the country.

The restrictive measures are likely to appear in two forms, one set relating to quarantine regulations, and the other to direct checks upon the whole mass of immigration. In regard to quarantine regulations, a strong movement will surely be made for the establishment of a national quarantine, in place of State and local quarantines, with uniform jurisdiction over all ports. The arguments in favor of this change are unanswerable. In the first place, the interests of the whole country are involved, and the government of the whole country, and that of no single State, should be in charge of it. Over 90 per cent. of all the immigrants landing in this country come in by way of New York. The great body of transatlantic travelers come in through the same port, and the great bulk of the commerce of the whole country as well. That the government of the State of New York should have the power to regulate and control this travel and business, which belong to the whole country, is both unreasonable and unjust. The General Government has charge of all international commerce, and it should have charge of all international travel, for it is impossible to interfere with the latter without at the same time interfering with the former.

Furthermore, if a single State government be in charge of quarantine, it can be called to account for its management only by the people of its own territory; but if the Government of the United States be in charge, it will be held responsible by the people of the whole country. This fact alone would be certain to secure better service, and a more effective as well as a more just quarantine. All the intelligence of the nation would be brought to bear to make the quarantine service the best possible.

It has been proposed, and the plan may be considered by Congress, to have in connection with a national quarantine in the country a kind of branch quarantine service in foreign ports. This could be done by limiting the number of ports from which immigrants would be allowed to sail for this country to four or five, and by establishing in each of them an inspection bureau at which every person desiring to emigrate would be required to register at least five days in advance of sailing. Such person could in that period be thoroughly examined as to his health, character, and capacity for self-maintenance, and if he prove unsatisfactory, shipment could be refused to him. The American consuls could assist in this work, and could give certificates, countersigned at the port of sailing, which would serve as passports, and be the only kind receivable, for admission into this country.

Another plan, which has no reference to quarantine regulations, is proposed by General Francis A. Walker. In brief, it is that free immigration be suspended for ten years beginning with 1893, and that every immigrant arriving here after that date be admitted only on payment of $100. If he return home within three years, the money is to be refunded. If he remain in the country three years, and can present satisfactory evidence that he is a law-abiding and self-supporting citizen, the money shall be repaid to him at the expira-

tion of that period. This amounts to a tax on immigration, and while it would undoubtedly restrict it greatly, and would keep out a great deal of the poorest and least desirable of it, it would not keep out some of the most objectionable; for almost any criminal who really desired to get in could raise the necessary money, or his neighbors might raise it for him to be rid of him. The plan of examination at the ports of sailing, though obviously it would be more difficult of execution, would act more efficaciously as a sifter, which is the most desirable form of restriction.

But that restriction of some kind is imperatively needed, all thoughtful persons admit. It may be many years before we shall have a repetition of the cholera visitation, but we are going to have with us every year, in steadily increasing volume, a great mass of ills in our body politic, introduced therein by the precipitation of a huge mass of foreign voters who know little about our institutions and care even less. The readers of THE CENTURY cannot have forgotten the impressive article on this subject, entitled "Safeguards of the Suffrage," written by Dr. Washington Gladden, which we published in February, 1889. The argument of that article was that we must restrict the suffrage by improving our naturalization laws in the direction of placing more severe requirements and a longer period of residence upon the aliens desiring admission to citizenship, and that we must also limit the bestowment of it upon natives themselves by requiring more intelligence and character on their part as requisites for its exercise. We have no doubt whatever that if these ideas could be carried into effect,— that is, embodied in law,— a vast improvement in our political condition would be the result; but the trouble is that the politicians, who are our masters in such things,— save during the rare and fleeting moments in which the people become sufficiently indignant to assert their supremacy,— would not willingly consent to the changes. A great deal may be accomplished, so far as the foreign-born voters are concerned, by restricting the number, and sifting the quality, of the immigrants, thus making the general average of new citizens from that quarter better; and it may be that this is about all we can hope to accomplish at present. Still, public sentiment is aroused on the subject, and when once a beginning has been made in the right direction, a great deal more may be accomplished than now seems probable.

Government Architecture in America.

MR. VAN BRUNT, in closing his articles in THE CENTURY on "Architecture at the World's Fair," makes an earnest protest against the present antiquated methods of what may be called the National Government's department of architecture. He describes the evils of the present system, and advocates the designing of government buildings by architects who have "proved their ability to do justice to such great opportunities for professional distinction." It is evident that Mr. Van Brunt is in thorough sympathy with the proposed remodeling of the office of the supervising architect under an act of Congress which has already passed the House of Representatives, and which it is hoped the Senate will quickly approve at the coming session.

No senator is likely to vote against the new law who gives five minutes to the reading of the succinct and lucid report on this subject from the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds; although no senator experienced in public affairs is likely to be ignorant, even before reading that admirable statement, of the wasteful and ridiculous workings of the system that now exists. The report explains that a single architect is now theoretically expected to design all the buildings belonging to the General Government throughout the United States, as well as to attend to all the repairs of the enormous and ever-increasing number of these structures. The consequence is that this unfortunate official's entire time is absorbed in clerical details; while he glances hopelessly over the tables where innumerable clerks are busy making copies of stupid old buildings to serve for stupid new ones, with as complete a disregard of climatic appropriateness as of artistic value. The committee is surely correct in declaring that "it was not intended that, as now, clerks and copyists should do the work of the learned architect, and that the learned architect should be occupied with the work of clerks and copyists."

Under the circumstances, of course, the one thing that it is rarest for the supervising architect to do is to supervise. This is generally done by some local carpenter or builder with a genius not so much for architecture as for politics, who is apt to see to it that the "job" is carried on with no undue haste. The consequence is that the Government pays nearly twice as much for the work; that it takes at least three times as long as it should to finish the building; which, when done, is apt to be an architectural negation, if not an actual monstrosity. "Eleven years ago," says the report, "the public building at Detroit was authorized; $1,300,000 has been appropriated by Congress, and the foundation walls are not yet completed."

The bill approved by the committee gives plenty of useful occupation to the supervising architect, but (in the language of the report)

> it authorizes the Secretary, in his discretion, to obtain plans and specifications and local supervision for its public buildings by the system of competition among private architects. While not mandatory, it authorizes the Secretary to employ the architect whose plans are approved to superintend the construction. It is to be presumed that this will secure the best architectural ability in the formulation of plans and the construction of the work according to such plans; that the compensation of such architects will be determined, as in private employment, on fixed commission upon the cost of the work, and that this will secure speedy completion of the work.

The condition of things which the new law will correct is a national disgrace, pure and simple, and we are assured that our senators will prove the senatorial wisdom by losing no time in the establishment of a new and better order.

OPEN LETTERS.

American Painters in the Christmas "Century." [1]

ABBOTT HENDERSON THAYER.

ABBOTT HENDERSON THAYER, whose "Virgin Enthroned" appears on page 272, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1849. He was a student at the École des Beaux Arts, under Lehmann and Gérôme, from 1875 to 1879. Upon his return to America he settled in New York, and was made President of the Society of American Artists.

Mr. Thayer is one of the most sensitive and one of the most artistic of artists, decidedly modern and yet reminiscent of the best qualities of the fourteenth century,— one of the most realistic of idealists and most ideal of realists. He is thoughtful and intellectual in all he does, and his works charm us perhaps most of all by their intense humanness. In genre he exalts the commonplace, and what in the hands of a poorer artist would be ordinary becomes in his canvases precious. The subjects of his portraits, like those of Vandyke, impress us as people we would like to know, and a bit of New England hillside in his hands reveals its essential qualities. Excellent examples of his work are—"Child with a Kitten," "Portrait of two Ladies," exhibited at the Society of American Artists in 1884; and "An Autumn Afternoon in the Berkshire Hills," engraved by Cole, and published in this magazine for July, 1880.

EDWIN HOWLAND BLASHFIELD.

IT is seldom that a modern artist has achieved uniform success in so many forms of pictorial representation as has Mr. Blashfield, and certainly the works of few American artists, save those of the semi-Parisians, have been so often received and so well placed in the Paris Salon, Royal Academy, and other foreign exhibitions. A list of his principal pictures will best illustrate his versatility, including, as it does, "The Emperor Commodus," "A Roman Lady's Fencing Lesson," "Inspiration," "The Siege," and "All Souls' Day." He has also painted many life-size portraits and half a dozen ceilings in New York, and has made numerous illustrations for this and other magazines.

Mr. Blashfield's work is characterized by earnestness and thoroughness and by easy grace and charm; it is pleasant and agreeable in color, possesses a good "painter quality," and always repays study for its rare quality of concealing so easily, in most instances joyously, the conscientious labor and care of its production. The "Christmas Bells," of which we give an engraving on page 188, was painted in Paris, and was exhibited in 1892 in the Salon of the Champs Elysées. The studies for the bells were made at the old church of St. Nicholas at Blois and at Giotto's Tower in Florence.

Mr. Blashfield is a native of New York city, studied his art in Paris under Bonnat and Gérôme, and was the recipient of a medal at Paris in 1889.

MISS MARY L. MACOMBER.

THE Annual Exhibition of the Society of American Artists is known primarily as an artists' exhibition,— though not the less popular on that account; therefore, when Miss Macomber's picture "The Annunciation" (an engraving of which is printed on page 283), passed the jury of selection, and found a place on the exhibition walls of 1892, the painter could fairly congratulate herself upon having passed an important milestone in her artistic career. Miss Macomber was born in Fall River in 1861, and her only place of study has been the Museum Art School at Boston. Her work is all of a religious or imaginative description, simple and naïve, tender in sentiment and delicate in execution.

EDWARD EMERSON SIMMONS.

ONE of the most promising things in connection with American art is the readiness with which our artists, following the example of the great ones of the Italian Renaissance, take to decoration. By the word decoration I mean its ordinary, every-day signification, the ornamentation by pictures of walls, ceilings, and windows. Among these are La Farge, Maynard, Dewing, Blashfield, and Low. Another is Edward E. Simmons, at present a member of the artist colony who, under the direction of Frank D. Millet, are making in the decoration of the Exhibition buildings in Chicago the best plea yet made for the recognition of the American artist. Mr. Simmons first came into notice for this special genre, when he painted the window at Harvard for the Class of '84, now in Memorial Hall. He has painted many excellent easel pictures, among others that which we print on page 257. He is an example of the current tendency toward the revival of religious sentiment in art—a movement which was inaugurated in Germany by Von Uhde and in France by Dagnan-Bouveret, and which is spreading in other lands.

Edward E. Simmons was born in Concord, Massachusetts, in 1852; he was a student of the Museum Art School in Boston one winter, and afterward studied at the Académie Julian, under Boulanger and Le Febvre. He won an honorable mention at the Salon of 1882 and a medal at the Universal Exposition of 1889.

W. Lewis Fraser.

[1] A sketch of Mr. F. V. Du Mond appeared in the CENTURY for December, 1891.—EDITOR.

To Persons Desiring to Cultivate a Taste in Music.

IN the first place, if you are seriously bent upon acquiring a real discrimination of music, avoid the opera for one season as you would a pest-house, and confine your attention to what is called absolute music—that is, music without text of any kind. The sovereignty of the singer is the ruling principle in the opera-house, especially since we have returned to what is called Italian opera, in which the graces of vocal art are esteemed more highly than dramatic verity. He who seeks his early culture in the opera-house will almost surely lose sight of the essentials of music and become a worshiper of vocal display.

Let us, therefore, bear in mind that at first we are not seeking to cultivate our taste for singing and playing, but for music itself. Therefore we must devote ourselves wholly to that kind of music in which the individuality of the performer is lost. We must listen to chamber music and orchestral concerts. The latter

are preferable, because in nine quartets out of ten the personality and technical accomplishments of the leader are too influential. If you must have some variety, go to piano recitals; for, of all classes of composition, piano music most readily adapts itself to the control of a single player's thought without losing its own significance. But we know from experience that merely listening to music will not give us the instruction we desire. Something must be learned. What is it?

Let us be thankful that it is wholly unnecessary to be a practical musician in order to understand and appreciate the works of the great as well as the little composers. What we need, to begin with, is some knowledge of the theory of music. The prime requisite is a knowledge of form. Musical form is of two kinds, melodic and harmonic. It is the former variety which the listener to music needs most to know. Melodic form is the prosody of music. The person who has learned its rules is no longer in the condition of the man who cannot tell a pencil-drawing from a water-color, nor a sonnet from a five-act tragedy. To state the laws of musical form, simple as they are, is not within the province of this article. But it is necessary that the writer should lay special emphasis upon their importance to the person who wishes to listen intelligently. To the average hearer of music a sonata, or a symphony (which is simply a sonata for orchestra), is a long composition divided into several contrasting movements. The real fact, however, that the sonata is built on prescribed lines escapes him. The sonata form is the most artistic and complex of all musical forms; and although its outlines cannot be altered without a destruction of its identity, it admits of the widest variety of treatment. The prescribed form is like the human skeleton. Remove, enlarge, diminish, or greatly change the shape of any of the bones, and you produce a monstrosity. But preserve the skeleton, and in the investiture of flesh you may have as many outward appearances as there are in the human race. Fortunately it is much easier to learn musical than human anatomy. The sonata must be the end of our study of musical forms, for it embraces them all. Our beginning must be made with the musical phrase, which is simply the germinal thought of a melody. As I have said, it is not the province of this article to teach musical form, but by way of illustration let me dissect one melody. To aid the reader, let me first dissect the text which accompanies it.

'Mid pleasures and palaces,
Where'er we may roam,
Be it ever so humble,
There 's no place like home.

There is a stanza. It is also a sentence. In rhythm as well as in sense there is a suspension at the end of each line except the last, in which the rhythm and the sense are completed. Deprive it of its pictorial aspect of poetry, and write it continuously as prose, and it comes into the same condition as a printed piece of

music. But examine the music, and you will find it divides itself into lines precisely as the poetry does.

That is what is called a period, or musical sentence. The period, like the poetic quatrain, naturally divides itself into two sections, each consisting of an equal number of phrases. In this case, these phrases are equal to poetic lines. This is not always so. Sometimes a phrase would be equal to only one half the line, for a section in music may be composed of more than two phrases. But this example is sufficient to illustrate the process by which we get at musical forms. By analysis we find that the phrase, which is a germ both rhythmic and melodic, is the fundamental principle of form. The synthetic process combines phrases into sections, sections into periods, and periods into various larger shapes, such as the song form, the rondo, or the minuet. Further development brings us to the sonata form, which is a descendant of the rondo.

By learning the rules of form the hearer will become able to take the two chief subjects used in a symphonic movement, and trace them through all the developments and modifications evolved by the composer's fancy. Without a knowledge of form the hearer does not know what to expect. He is ignorant as to when he ought to hear the subjects, when he may listen for the beginning of their development. With the knowledge of form, however, he is no longer at this disadvantage. Nay, more, whenever the composer imposes upon the recognized anatomy of the sonata some new charm of fleshly integument, the informed hearer experiences the shock of a happy surprise. For him there is a piquancy of interest which the unskilled listener misses. He has a delight akin to that of the cultured reader of Swinburne's rhythmic witcheries. Better still, he acquires the power of discriminating between styles; for it is not alone in the fundamental thought that Beethoven differs from Mendelssohn, or Schumann from Brahms, but in the treatment. And by constantly preserving before the mind the anatomy of the symphony, the hearer will soon learn to detect wherein the differences lie, just as accurately as a portrait-painter will discern what makes one face differ from another. The music-lover who is thoroughly skilled in form will speedily acquire the ability to tell why Mendelssohn's music is airy and graceful, Beethoven's profound and massive, Mozart's smooth and vocal; for from analyzing the compositions into their periods, sections, and phrases, he will finally come to analyzing the germinal thoughts, the phrases themselves; and therein he will reach the origin of the differences in style. Long before the lover of music has reached this point in his study of form, he will have learned the difference between machine-made music and that which is the fruit of the spirit. He will be able to discern art-work from carpenter-work, and he will find his love for the real and noble in art increasing daily.

It is a very old process, that of picking things to pieces to see what they are made of; and if in nine cases out of ten we are in the unhappy state of the little maid who finds her doll stuffed with sawdust, we must put the blame in the right place, and thank heaven that Tschaikowsky, Dvořák, and Brahms are still with us. But, after all, the study of form is not enough. Its natural complement is a knowledge of the history of music. We need to know whence these forms came, how they were

developed, and what were the purposes of the artists who dealt with them in the various stages of their growth. Otherwise we shall be without perspective in our view of the musical field, and shall fall into the absurdity of measuring all epochs by the standard of the present. To him who knows the history of the tone-art it is an inspiration to be able to read Beethoven by the light of Wagner; but to him who does not know, or who disregards the meaning of history, the value of the past is overshadowed. It is just this want of perspective that makes so many ardent lovers of Wagner's music lose their enjoyment of Haydn and Mozart. They blame these fathers of music for not doing as Wagner did, forgetting that they belonged to the peaceful dawn of the art, when the morning stars sang together.

Aside from its inestimable importance in helping us to estimate the esthetic value of the work before us, the history of music is a study delightful in itself. To him who loves art, the history of any branch of it must be luminous. To him who has studied the history of other arts, that of music will be a revelation. The development of church counterpoint among the profound masters of the Netherlands school is in itself an epitome of the whole development of music, and throws a powerful side-light upon the emotions and impulses which worked in the Reformation. Beginning with Okeghem and his canonic riddles, music found in Josquin Després a guide toward beauty of utterance. Gombert followed, and opened to her the door of Nature, and finally came Lasso and Palestrina, who taught her to voice the celestial aspirations of the soul. Luther seized upon the dawning desire for simpler and broader thought in music, and, reviving congregational singing, which had been forbidden by the Council of Laodicea, made the Protestant chorale the hymn of the church militant. Almost simultaneously with that movement, the Renaissance laid hold of music, and, in striving to resurrect the dramatic recitative of the Greeks, a little body of enthusiasts in Florence brought to birth the opera.

What a world of art-history is wrapped in the records of those three centuries preceding the year 1600! What a panoramic display of the course of human emotion, of intellectual yearning, of religious aspiration, is to be found in the history of music from Pope Gregory to Jacopo Peri! And what a flood of light it throws upon that form of music which, being the most familiar, is the most misunderstood in our day. It is an assertion which cannot be overthrown that no man is prepared to express an opinion upon the artistic value of an opera who does not know the history of music. Without that information he is ignorant of the nature and purpose of the lyric drama. The necessary knowledge can be gained only by going back to the origin of the opera, and by following that branch of music through its various phases of development down to the present day. To do this is to know why Mozart is immortal through his "Don Giovanni"; to know why Rossini's "William Tell" lives when his "Semiramide" is but the rattling of dry bones; to know why Gounod's "Faust" still touches the great heart of the people with a deeper emotion than all the rhythmic jingle of Donizetti and Bellini; to know why Verdi's "Aïda" and "Otello" tower among other Italian works like giants, and why Richard Wagner's music-dramas have shaken humanity. It is only the student of musical history who can withstand the overwhelming personal influence of a great singer, so as to perceive the value or the worthlessness of the music which the singer voices. It is only the student of musical history who can rightly measure the worth of a De Reszke or a Patti.

The lover of music, who wishes to listen intelligently, may spend a lifetime in study and never know too much; but he may in a much shorter period acquire information which is neither so deep as a well nor so wide as a church door, yet will suffice for his daily wants. He needs to read only three books to lay the foundation. One volume on Form, one on the Theory of Music, and one on the History of Music will provide the student with the elementary instruction of which he is in search. On each of these subjects there have been written small, comprehensive books, giving all the salient facts without incumbrance of detail.

Once the music-lover has acquired the habit of listening with his mind, the development of his taste for good music will be rapid. Listening with the mind, let him remember, depends primarily on ability to perceive the form of a composition; and let him, therefore, first of all master that subject. After a time the practice of analyzing, which at first will undoubtedly interfere with the indolent ear-tickled pleasure of older days, will become so easy that the mind will be unconscious of effort. Then, with a knowledge of the limits and purposes of musical epochs and composers added to the analytical habit, the listener, without labor and with freedom from the embarrassments which beset him in his uninformed days, will get from music an esthetic pleasure and a mental glow of which he never before dreamed.

Nor will he be satisfied to rest on this sum of information. He will hunger to know what constitutes good singing and playing; he will be eager to learn what has been said about the esthetics of so subtle an art. He will be ready to deepen and widen his stock of knowledge, and he will find before him a field of study full of profit and pleasure. A year of sincere study ought to lift the student far above the level of the commonplace, and enable him to stand where he will hear with the mind as well as the sense. He will not be completely equipped, but he will no longer be of the number of those who, having ears, hear not. He will be out of the slough of despond and well along the straight and narrow path. The promised land will lift its glory before him, for no mistress smiles more kindly or more swiftly on honest devotion than divine Music.

W. J. Henderson.

Some Tenement-House Evils.

THE need of caring for children who could not be accepted as pupils in our public schools years ago appealed to some of the best citizens of New York. Schools maintained at private expense were established and are still maintained under the care and management of the Children's Aid Society. The helplessness of childhood appealed strongly to public sympathy, and we have in our city several fine school-buildings erected at the expense of private citizens for the benefit of such poor children. These buildings are equipped with every modern requisite for a perfect school-building. The managers of the Children's Aid Society schools early recognized the need of manual

training for this class of children, and introduced a system of manual training,— limited, it is true, but with results that proved the need of such training. The girls were taught to sew, and certain schools introduced cooking. In the system girls were much more benefited than boys, because it was easier to procure teachers for them. This introduction of manual labor appealed at once to those who had made a study of the needs of this class of our citizens, and as a result hundreds of sewing- and cooking-schools sprang into being, and results can now be seen in some of the homes of the pupils.

There is, however, another side to this question. Are not these schools educating a pauper class? These children know that they are being educated at the expense of private charity. They receive a free lunch, clothing is given them, and they are to all intents and purposes the wards of the managers of the societies, and of the charitable persons maintaining these various schools. Parents are relieved of responsibilities that they should bear, and the child from its infancy receives that for which it never makes the slightest return. Do the benefits received compare with the injury done the child by accustoming it to the receiving of charity? If statistics could be gathered, there is not a doubt in my mind but that a large percentage of adult pauperism could be traced to these schools. Would I abolish them? By no means. I would have these schools remain under their present management, but have them subsidized by the Government, thus removing the stigma of charity from the hearts and lives of the pupils. I would abolish the free lunch. Every child should pay a penny a day for its lunch, or perform some item of labor that would be recognized as a return for what was received. There should be in the vicinity of all our school-buildings erected in tenement-house districts a penny lunch restaurant, established and maintained as far as necessary by private benevolence, and, in connection with this restaurant, a day-nursery where the babies could be left while the older children were in school, thus removing one prolific source of absenteeism.

Facing this question of the present condition of the working-man and his family, it is my firm conviction, based on close observation covering a period of five years, that to attribute the misery, suffering, poverty, and crime committed in the homes to intemperance is to attribute it to the secondary instead of the primary cause. The true cause is the utter ignorance of the wife and mother. Her ignorance prevents her from doing those things that would make her home a place of rest, a refuge, for her husband and children. Her ignorance prevents her from buying or preparing the kind of food that would give nourishment, and satisfy the cravings of hunger, which drive the inmates of the home to stimulants, to silence longings the causes of which are unknown to them. Teach every girl the hygiene of foods, and you have gone far toward making a home of peace and happiness, because the most prolific source of intemperance has been removed.

As proof, let me state facts gathered three years ago while preparing a paper based on this question. I visited 244 women, all wives and mothers. Of 244 women five knew how to make bread, and one did make it. One woman of the entire number cut and made the garments worn by herself and children; three could make the garments if they were cut and basted or joined together. Two made soup once in a while; a few cooked fish. I found that they knew nothing of cooking beyond frying meat and boiling a few vegetables. Not one family used oatmeal or any farinaceous food. The women, when at home, spent their time lounging in their neighbors' rooms, or about the street doorways. Why? To kill time; because they did not know how to do the work necessary to make and keep their families comfortable. These women had worked from early life in factories, had married, and had gone into homes of their own without the faintest ideal, or the least knowledge of how to make a home comfortable. Many of them did not know how to make a fire, or sweep a room. They burned and wasted the food they attempted to cook. Many of them acknowledged that the men they married never drank to excess until after their marriage. All of them had lost children. We can readily understand why. The matron of one of our seaside sanitariums told me that not less than 85% of the mothers who came there in the summer acknowledged that they never gave their children baths; that it was a common thing to have a mother ask, when told by the resident physician to give her child a warm bath, "How shall I do it, sir?" They do not know, and can scarcely be made to understand, the value and importance of cleanliness and regularity in the care of their infants. One mother, sturdy and healthy-looking, sat on the piazza of the sanitarium, rocking a feeble, puny baby boy. The look of dumb agony in her eyes would have moved the hardest heart. "Your baby is quite ill; I 'm sorry," I said. "Yes, 'm. He 's goin' like the rest. This is the seventh, 'm." Investigation brought out the fact that she "did n't believe in these new-fangled notions that a child must not have a bit or a sup of a thing but milk." She began too late in life to study hygiene and sanitation, and the baby went out of life a victim to ignorance and prejudice. I asked how the father felt when he saw his babies leave him one by one. "Ah, it breaks his heart, and drives him to drink for weeks. He 'll be kilt if this one goes," and she rocked back and forth with the tears slowly falling on the puny face. This woman and her husband had attended public school in New York city, one leaving school at eleven, the other at thirteen years of age. Does any system educate that leaves such ignorance in the minds of those who have passed through at least seven grades in that system?

As this condition of things exists, how shall it be mitigated?

First: By adapting our system of education to the wants of a large class of our citizens. By maintaining at the expense of the public, as our present public schools are maintained, the several kindergarten and industrial schools supported now by private citizens. Maintain these schools as industrial and manual training-schools, and let the citizens of all classes make their choice as to which school their children shall attend. This will remove class distinction, which now exists under the approval of a democracy which declares all men free and equal, but which distinguishes at the very entrance into life between the children of its citizens.

Second: Let there be no such thing as an Italian, a German, or any other school but an American. Recognize in every child in the land a future American citizen, or a mother of citizens, and educate them to meet the responsibilities of the future.

Third: Almsgiving increases far more than it diminishes the evils of tenement-house life. It is not the alms they need, but the education to meet the difficulties that lie within and about them. And these will yield only when men and women of intelligence and wise sympathy go among them and teach them to conquer themselves, give to them the ambition to be that of which they never dreamed — men and women thinking and planning for their own and their children's future, realizing their responsibilities as parents, and meeting these responsibilities with intelligence. Mothers' classes should be organized in every tenement-house square in our city. These classes should give lessons in cooking, sewing, and especially in mending and the cutting of cloth into garments. The women should be encouraged to bring their own materials, both old and new. Where the needs are pressing and alms must be given, let the garments be of suitable material, made and altered by the receiver if possible. There should be short practical talks on the value of money; the care, moral and physical, of children; the responsibility of a wife and mother; the reason for cleanliness of person and rooms. There should be on every square through our tenement-house districts provision for giving hot- and cold-water baths at all seasons of the year; also some provision for the care of infants, during the absence of the mother at work, that would not interfere with the attendance of the older children at school. The health laws concerning tenement-houses should be enforced, and the tenants made familiar with their rights and responsibilities as tenants.

Clubs should be maintained for the young girls and the boys employed during the day. The amusements and practical work introduced in each club should be such as will arouse and awaken the highest and best in the members. A few such clubs do exist, but they do not receive the support their importance demands. The clubs for girls should be organized in rooms similar in size to those they occupy as homes. One room should be fitted up in the simplest manner as a kitchen that could be used as a living-room by a family in their own circumstances. Here they should learn to use an oil-stove, that the discomfort of a tenement-house room in summer might be reduced. The girls should be made to understand that the aim of this life should not be the "having of a good time," but the fitting of themselves to meet future duties and responsibilities, that they may enjoy the blessings that come from knowing how to meet them.

No one realizes her deficiencies more than does the working-girl herself. Talking to a club of girls, I said; "Girls, why is it that so many whom we all know, just as pretty, just as trim as any of you, in two or three years after marriage are broken down, slovenly, unhappy? Why is it that the men they marry are as much changed as they are, and spend their time loafing and drinking when not at work?" A dead silence was the only answer. "Girls, do you know any who have so changed?" "Yes, indeed we do," was the answer given by several. "Shall I tell you the reason? It is because they did not know how to keep house. They were discouraged by their own ignorance, and became careless and slovenly because they were discouraged. The husband soon tired of the dirty, disorderly house and the slovenly wife, and found rest and entertainment out of it. Am I not right?" "Indeed you are!" "What will make your future different from this?" "We 'll learn what we should know." From that time on, whenever that club-room was open, you would find the members busy over little garments designed for one of the sanitariums at the seaside. As they worked some one read. During the winter practical talks, illustrated by the stereopticon, were given by physicians. Household matters were the subject of several talks; a library, which was used freely, was another means of good. Multiply this class of club by fifty, and you will have created a current that will revolutionize the lives of hundreds.

Boys' clubs, devoted to the instruction and entertaining of boys, that will open avenues of entertainment in themselves, should number, at least, one to five hundred of the liquor-shops that debase and ruin our boys. Entertainments to which fathers and mothers can come in company should be held at least once a month. Remember that with this class it is a rare thing for the husband and wife to spend an evening in company. Workingmen's clubs should be organized, where the members can meet and discuss the questions of the day with intelligent and educated men. It is time the workingman, whose opportunities for education are limited, received his instruction from some other source than a ward politician or a political demagogue, and in some other place than a rum-shop. Our recent elections have proved most conclusively that the workingmen are a force that will be felt more and more strongly every year. It is time that we recognized the fact that there are wards in every city where the non-taxpaying citizen outnumbers the taxpaying citizen by a hundred to one. These wards are peopled by the most ignorant, the most degraded of human beings. These are the citizens who make the criminal politicians of our time possible. It will take more than the jury system, or the punishments inflicted by law, to crush the heads of these political serpents. They retain their ill-gotten gains, and return to their little kingdoms crowned heroes.

Who is to change these conditions? The intelligent men and women who value the future of the city; who have a care for the children about their own hearthstone; who would save their children from contamination and the sure misery that must follow if this large and increasing class is left in the condition that our present system of education leaves them — either the wards of charitable benevolence, their very souls branded with dependence, or in the equally bad state of knowing their ignorance and their inability to conquer it, and consequently slowly sinking through discouragement to the level of brutes possessed of immortal souls, dragging with them the peace and happiness of the nation.

Lillian W. Betts.

The Prevention of Blindness in Infants.

According to the census of 1880, there are about fifty thousand blind persons in the United States. Of these at least fifteen thousand have become so from a kind of inflammation that is likely to attack the eyes of a new-born infant. It is not claiming more than statistics justify to assert that not one of these fifteen thousand persons would have become blind had the proper measures been instituted at the right season. Ophthalmia neonatorum, or the sore eyes of the new-born, is a preventable disease. In those large hospitals where

the preventive measures first put in practice by Professor Credé, of Leipsic, are in force, the disease is practically stamped out. But, unfortunately, all infants are not born in a well-regulated hospital, and a very large number make their advent into the world under the superintendence of persons wholly ignorant of the gravity of this disease, and with no knowledge of the proper method of treating it after it has once been established.

The eyes of the baby from one to three days old become red and begin to discharge matter. The officiating person pooh-poohs the idea of its being a serious thing, says it is simply a cold in the eye, suggests some simple remedy,— the mother's milk usually,— and promises that it will be all right in a few days. In a certain number of instances that is the fortunate termination of ophthalmia neonatorum, for all cases are not of the virulent type; but they all begin in the same way, and at the outset of any case no one can foretell to which category it will belong. The disease going from bad to worse, the infant is finally taken, perhaps, to a competent practitioner, and the heartrending fact is revealed that it has come too late. An irreparable damage has been done — the cornea has ulcerated off, and the child is hopelessly blind.

But even more frequently the child is not taken to a doctor who understands the case until the acute inflammation has passed away, and then it is for the purpose of having the " scum " removed from the sightless eyeballs. Any one who has once seen the look of anguish in the face of one of these mothers when told that this cannot be done, and that her baby can never see, will never afterward regard babies' sore eyes as an insignificant affair.

It is not the purpose of this communication to consider the subject from a purely medical standpoint. There are, however, it must be confessed, many practitioners in good standing who are shamefully ignorant of the whole matter, and to their criminal negligence are due the sightless eyes of thousands of their fellow-beings. With them it will be left for the faculty to deal; and I am glad to say that in our colleges and clinics young men are now learning the proper method of dealing with such cases. But it takes a long time for knowledge to percolate in a professional way from the practitioner to the people, and particularly to the class of ignorant and poor among whom the disease, from various circumstances of environment, is most rife. Many infants among these people are never seen by a medical man at all, and when they are it is only in a cursory and casual way, and not once in a thousand times, perhaps, is the condition of the eyes examined into or inquired about. There is about the whole matter a state of ignorance, apathy, and indifference, against which science and humanity are having a hard struggle.

The readiest and most efficient way of meeting and overcoming this is to put a knowledge of the dangers of the disease in possession of the mothers, and of those having the care of new-born children. The public at large must be made aware of the irremediable evils that are likely to follow from the neglect of what has been regarded as a simple and innocent affection. One medium through which this knowledge can be extensively disseminated is the various charitable organizations, municipal and private, with which our country is so abundantly supplied. Let every society or organization which has to do especially with women, have printed and widely distributed among its people cards containing something like this:

> If the new-born baby's eyes become red, and begin to run matter, take it *at once* to a doctor. This condition is dangerous, and may lead to total blindness.

By this means thousands of eyes that would have been lost will be saved. There is no need to appeal to the humanitarian sentiments of the readers of this magazine; a simple statement of the facts is sufficient, we are sure, to arouse their interest and enlist their coöperation in such a work.

But there is another aspect of the subject which, if somewhat narrower and on a lower plane, is yet of no mean importance from the standpoint of political economy. Every child becoming blind in infancy is henceforth, so long as it lives, a charge upon the community. Instead of being, as it should be, a producer, it is a consumer only; or at least its production, even in the most favorable cases, is only a tithe of what it would have been had the individual possessed good vision. The total loss to the commonwealth of our nation from this source reaches proportions which are astonishing from their magnitude. A very simple calculation will show how very large this is.

The minimum cost of sustenance of a single person in our best and most economically managed institutions for the blind is about $132 a year. The cost of the " keep " of these fifteen thousand blind people is, therefore, nearly two millions of dollars annually. But these people, if they had not been blind, would have been contributors instead of an expense to the community, and their net contribution to the general fund can be taken as at least one dollar a day on the average. Adding this to the cost of maintenance, we have the total loss to the commonwealth of seven million five hundred thousand dollars each year, and this takes no account of those made partially blind by the disease, and who are thus handicapped in the race of life.

In some countries of Europe the state has taken the matter in hand, and has made it compulsory on the attendant to report at once to the proper medical authorities all infants whose eyes show signs of being affected. In spite of earnest petitions Great Britain has refused to take any official notice of it. In this country three States at least have taken definite action in the matter. Two years ago the legislature of New York passed an ordinance making it compulsory on the attendant to report all cases at once to the sanitary authorities, and Maine and Rhode Island have within the year followed her worthy example. Several other States have, I believe, the matter under consideration. All this is good and necessary, and should be made universal; but of what advantage are statutes if the people are unaware of the danger? In some way or ways we must let them into the knowledge of what babies' sore eyes may mean. One method I have suggested, but there are others which will occur to some of the many thousand readers of THE CENTURY. And still further to increase the spreading of the facts, I trust that the newspapers of the country will publish so much of this communication as shall embody the essential idea of the great danger of the disease when left to itself or under improper care and treatment.

Swan M. Burnett, M. D.

the apparel of a delicate, high-bred Friend. A plain gray dress sufficed for traveling, a black silk one was reserved for social and public occasions. A shawl or velvet mantle without ornament she reserved for occasions when she was to meet persons of high social or public position. Her waving brown hair was brought over the temples, and carried above the ears, in the fashion of the period. Her soft, brilliant, blue-gray eyes, with pupils so dilating as to cause the eyes to seem black; the bright glow of her cheeks; her shapely head set on a neck so long, flexible, and graceful as to impart an air of distinction to her carriage—all expressed the blending of dignity, force, and tenderness in her character. She was one of those who have greatness thrust upon them. She never sought nor proclaimed it, but bore herself with an endearing humility to the last, leaving the impress of a life inimitable, truly, in its proportions, but precious in its efficiency, in its absence of ostentation, and in its deep-seated but never cymbal-clanging piety.

Mary S. Robinson.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

The Proposed Recession of the Yosemite Valley.

NO one who has beheld the glories of the Yosemite Valley can remain indifferent to the preservation and (so far as it is possible by the work of man) the enhancement of the attractiveness of this phenomenal scenery; and it is doubtless this penetrating impression in the minds of persons of taste which has led to the numerous and continuous protests against what are, to say the least, serious errors of judgment in the official conduct of the valley.

Remembering that the total effect of this colossal scenery is not dependent merely upon the unspoiled and unspoilable natural monuments and waterfalls, but upon the harmonious relation which these bear in the mind of the beholder to the beautiful groves and fields which form the floor of the valley, one sees the necessity of providing for this concord on the highest plane of expert intelligence.

That such intelligence has been sadly wanting, and that in the past six years respectful appeals to members of the successive boards of control for a reform of the amateur system have been contemptuously disregarded, are matters of abundant record. It will be remembered by the readers of THE CENTURY that in this magazine for January, 1890, we printed three temperate statements, made after personal investigation, calling attention to the "Destructive Tendencies in the Yosemite Valley"; and without taking responsibility for any exaggerated statements that may have been made elsewhere, we called special attention editorially to the question of greatest importance—"Has the treatment of the Yosemite landscape been intrusted to skilful hands?" This publication was not made in THE CENTURY until after the attention of an influential member of the Yosemite Commission of 1889 had been personally called to the evident necessity of reform; nor were we by any means the first to take this view of the matter, for so great had been the abuses resulting from the lack of intelligent supervision that, at the original instance of Mr. Charles D. Robinson, a previous investigation of the matter had been made by a legislative committee, which revealed, at least, that the landscape management of the valley was not on the high plane demanded by the character of the scenery.

In presenting to our readers at that time photographic views showing unskilful treatment of the landscape, we said:

> Without going into the details of the alleged abuses, monopolies, rings, and persecutions, it is easy to see in the above testimony and photographs abundant confirmation of those who hold that the valley has not had the benefit of expert supervision. In saying this we are not impugning the good faith of past or present commissions or commissioners, appointed for other reasons than their skilfulness in the treatment of landscape. They are certainly to be acquitted of any intention to injure the valley: that would be unbelievable. It is no reproach to them that they are not trained foresters. Their responsibility, however, does not end there: it is, in fact, there that it begins; for, in the absence of knowledge of a professional nature, it should be their first aim to obtain the very best man or men available to do this work. No such expert is too good or too expensive, and no claim upon the budget of California should have precedence of this. If the commissioners have not money enough for this expenditure, it is part of their duty as holders of a great trust to arouse a public sentiment which shall procure the proper appropriation. The press of the country, which is never backward in such matters, would lend an effective support to the demand for funds for this most necessary expert care.

Evidence is not wanting that this and similar discussions of the subject were of use in bringing public opinion to bear upon the commissioners, and there is no doubt that in some respects the management of the valley has since been freer from causes of criticism. There is, however, no evidence of a fixed disposition on the part of the commissioners to recognize the crying need of expert supervision, and at their annual meeting held in June of the present year, a contract was let for the "underbrushing" of the valley at an expense of $3000, and to a person with no pretension to the requisite skill. At the time of our publication the intention to "cut down every tree that has sprouted within the last thirty years" had been announced by an active member of the commission, and it had been declared by Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted (who, it need hardly be said, stands at the head of the profession of landscape engineers in this country) that this policy, if it were carried out, "would eventually result in an irreparable calamity—a calamity to the civilized world."

It will thus be seen that this danger, against which we protested when it was nothing more than a threat, has now been put on the highway to realization. How far it will be carried, who shall say? The following extracts from a letter from Eugene F. Weigel, Special Land Inspector, written from San Francisco, October 3, 1892, as part of his report to the Hon. John W. Noble, Secretary of the Interior, tells its own story:

> As I already informed you, a good deal of underbrushing had been done near the Stoneman House in Yosemite Valley and around the stables of the Transportation Co., by direction of the State Commissioners, under the supervision of Galen Clark, the Guardian. Mr. Clark was formerly one of the commissioners, and, although 78 years old, is still active, and appears to be an educated, honorable man. He took me around to the places where the clearing had been done for the purpose of lessening the danger of fires, and which, it is true, at times partook of the nature of a mutilation of natural beauty. Guardian Clark was free to confess that he was no scientific landscaper, and that he carried out the orders of the board to the best of his ability. *He said that he had frequently importuned the commissioners to employ some expert landscape engineer to thoroughly study the valley, and make a systematic plan of improvements that might be carried out in the course of several years, but all to no avail.*

Mr. Clark's failure to obtain any attention for these suggestions recalls the reception given to our similar suggestion in the summer of 1889, when a member of the Commission of that year declared to the writer that in this matter he "would rather have the services of a Yosemite tree-cutter than of the best so-called Eastern expert, Frederick Law Olmsted, or anybody else."

In the face of such a policy, both passive and avowed, it clearly becomes the duty of Congress to consider whether this and other defects in the management of the valley do not invalidate the stipulation made in the act of cession of 1864, that the said State "shall accept this grant upon the express conditions that its premises shall be held for public use, resort, and recreation, inalienable for all time," etc. For this action a strong basis would be found in the opinion which, in response to a Senate resolution and after careful official inquiry, Secretary Noble has expressed, that the conditions of the grant have not been complied with.

There is good reason, however, to hope that such a course will not be necessary, but that the better judgment of public opinion in California will be operative to procure a voluntary act of recession of the valley. A prominent member of the Commission has denied that California is in sympathy with the reform sentiment; but Mr. Weigel, writing from San Francisco, says:

> To judge by the utterances of individuals here, as well as in Merced, Mariposa, and Fresno counties, a large majority of the people would be in favor of letting the government of the Yosemite Valley revert to the National Government. I have been informed by different parties that an effort will be made in the next Assembly to accomplish this object.

An additional reason for this action exists in the fact that by an act of October 1, 1890, Congress created a new National Park, of which the old grant to the State of California is the heart, and which is almost equal in extent to the State of Rhode Island, but does not include in its jurisdiction the valley which it surrounds. It was the belief of those most active in procuring this legislation, that the establishment of the larger park was not only desirable in itself, but would be a stepping-stone to reform within the State grant. It is obvious that the two reservations should be under one control. Were the official management of the smaller such as to awaken public confidence, it is not improbable that there would be a movement to place the larger in the same hands. As it is, the continued disregard by the Commission of what is due to the American people in this matter, makes it all the more desirable that the consolidation should be under the Government.

The sincere regard for the public interests shown by Secretary Noble in the matter of such reservations, and his vigorous and intelligent action in the management of the Yosemite National Park, in spite of the lack of an adequate appropriation for his work, are worthy of the highest praise. His demonstration of the efficiency of national control, and his conviction that recession is necessary, are strong arguments in favor of a policy which would, in the long run, prove to be vastly more beneficial to all the legitimate interests of California than the present policy of neglect and blundering.

Moreover, the granting by Congress during the past year of right of way to a free road into the valley makes it less desirable for the vested interests now virtually in control of the valley to oppose such a movement. Mr. Weigel says:

> To the ordinary traveler the toll-roads in and outside of the Park are very annoying, and the free road to be built up to the valley from Merced this winter will be hailed with delight, besides possessing the advantage of enabling the tourist to visit the valley all the year round. It will reach Yosemite Valley on easy grades *via* Mariposa, and attain no high altitudes, so that it can be kept open all winter.

Mr. A. H. Ward, a prominent citizen of Alameda, California, writing October 5, 1892, says:

> At present, as you are aware, the valley is only reached by a roundabout mountain toll-road that is open but six months in the year. This new road is to be free and open the year round. It will greatly increase the number of visitors, and, as a consequence, make the government of the park much more difficult. It will simply be impossible to manage it from a camp located on its extreme southern boundary. The headquarters should be in the valley. At present the valley is in the hands of a ring who run it for the number of dollars they can make, caring nothing for the public or their obligation to the State government. I strongly urge that the State of California be requested to return the deed of trust of the valley, that this valley ring be turned out, that the headquarters be established in the valley, and that a competent army officer be given full control.

It is to be hoped that Californians will not be misled by appeals to a false State pride in the cry that anybody is "attacking Yosemite" or the State of California, when the main point at issue is whether or not the servants of the State are exercising proper care of the wonders committed to their charge in trust for the people of the whole country. It is to be hoped that the legislature, at its coming session, will promptly pass an act receding the valley, and thus put an end once for all to the Yosemite scandal. Meantime Californians should organize to procure this action, remembering that eternal vigilance is the price of public parks.

New York and the World's Fair.

THE artistic and magnificent housing of the World's Fair at Chicago is in itself an exhibit more splendid and effective than any of its contents can possibly be. And yet the very worthiness of site, grounds, and buildings furnishes a new argument for the hearty and complete coöperation of the nation, and of the several States, in the preparation and presentation of the contained exhibits.

In this matter the State of New York has the greatest responsibility, and must put forth the greatest energy. But it is evident that the State appropriation is lamentably deficient. Especially is it deficient on the

side of the art department. The sum devoted to the arts proper is, at this writing, no greater than that devoted to the same department by States having hardly a twentieth of the art products of New York. In architecture, painting, sculpture, stained glass, wood and other engraving, the metropolis of the country naturally leads all other cities; and if the means were not forthcoming for New York's department of art, then the art of the country itself would fail of its proper presentation at the World's Fair. The failure would be national.

Take the single item of stained glass — the "art of glass." This is an art not only costly in fabrication, but especially costly in the matter of transportation, and in the necessary arrangements for exhibition. Under the present appropriation it might utterly fail of a representative showing; and yet this exquisite art, which is daily becoming more wide-spread in its uses, not only in our public buildings, but in the homes of the people — this exquisite art is one of the very few in which America has struck an original note, has even in some respects surpassed the work of modern Europe. There are, indeed, European critics who think that at least in the art of stained glass and in the art of wood-engraving America can show examples of greater subtlety and art value than can be found in these branches to-day in the Old World.

But in every branch of art New York is strong; hers are the great national art societies; she is the home of contemporaneous American art. It is to her collections also on which the country must largely depend for the success of the retrospective side of the art exhibition. There is every reason of State pride as well as of national self-respect why the State should be liberal in its Fair appropriation, and especially in the appropriation for art.

Legal Tenders and Bimetallism.

THE following letter, which comes to us from a reader in Arkansas, is one of many similar communications which have been received during the past few months:

> I have read with interest articles which have appeared from time to time in THE CENTURY on the currency question, and, in particular, "The People's Money," in "Topics of the Time," May number. Two points in the last article I should be pleased to have you explain in your magazine in the near future.
>
> You say, "All debts would therefore be scaled down 30 per cent." Why so? If the 70-cent dollar is legal tender for all debts both public and private, would it not be still legal tender with as great purchasing and paying power?
>
> Again you say, "If advocates of free silver were honest," etc., etc., "they would consent to a coinage of a silver dollar worth 100 cents," etc. The present value of a silver dollar you say is 70 cents. You arrive at this by estimating its value in gold, do you not? Grant that you raise its value to 100 cents, how long would its value remain at 100 cents? As the supply of gold decreases, the value of gold increases, and from year to year, as gold increased or decreased in value, would not the value of the silver dollar fluctuate from the higher to the lower standard, and vice versâ? Can you maintain a fixed standard of either metal without an international agreement?
>
> Your explanation of above points will be of interest to many who like myself are trying to study this financial question in all its phases, and seeking a remedy for a stringency in the currency which nearly all confess exists.

Making the 66-cent dollar — it is worth four cents less than it was when our May article was written — a legal tender would have no effect upon its value. All that a government does when it declares any kind of money a legal tender is to give it compulsory circulation. Its purchasing power is not changed by the act, though its paying power as applied to existing debts may be. Any creditor who has loaned money, without stipulating the coin in which the debt is to be paid, can be forced by law to accept the legal tender at its face-value in payment, but he is the loser by the transaction if the legal tender be worth less in the exchanges of the world than the money in which the debt was contracted. Says the Hon. Hugh McCulloch, in his "Men and Measures of Half a Century" (p. 177), when speaking of the greenbacks issued by Secretary Chase: "By their being made a legal tender, they enabled, most unjustly, debtors to use them in discharge of obligations executed when coin was the only standard; but their value was not enhanced by it." All the various forms of cheap money with which the world has been made familiar — John Law's, the Rhode Island Paper Bank's, the Argentine Republic's, our own "greenbacks" — were made legal tenders, but their purchasing power was always expressed in gold, and the prices of commodities at once adjusted themselves to the situation. It would be the same with a 66-cent silver dollar; it would buy only 66 cents' worth of goods, and the creditor who had to receive $1000 of it in payment of a debt of that amount would in reality get only $660, for he could buy only that money's worth of goods.

Of course when we say the silver dollar is worth sixty-six cents, we estimate its value in gold. There is no other standard to measure it by, for gold is the basis upon which the commerce of the world is conducted. The value of gold, like the value of silver, is its purchasing power, and is fixed largely by the cost of its production. If a gold dollar were to be dropped into the fire and melted, the shapeless mass taken from the ashes could be sold for a dollar anywhere; but if the silver dollar were to go through the same experience, the resulting mass could be sold for only 66 cents. The Government stamp adds nothing to the intrinsic value. Gold has been adopted as the standard for the commerce of the world, not because it is gold, but because it best meets the uses to which it is put. It is convenient, it is divisible without loss, and it is more steady in value than any other known medium of exchange.

It is because silver has fluctuated so violently in value that the nations of the world have been forced to abandon it as a standard, and to conduct their business on the gold basis. There has been no hostility to silver as silver, or no fetish-worship of gold as gold, in this proceeding, but simply plain business necessity. The inexorable law of nature has compelled it by making the supply of silver both larger and more unsteady than that of gold. If the gold-supply were to become invested with similar qualities in the future, the nations of the world would have to find some other standard of value upon which to transact their business.

In regard to the effect of international agreements upon standards of value, there is a difference of opinion among financiers and economists. The advocates of bimetallism contend that an international agreement upon a common ratio for the free coinage of both gold and silver would be both practicable and beneficial. The opponents of it contend that no ratio can be fixed which will maintain the two metals at one and the same value, that constant revision will be necessary, and that in every case in which the market value

of one coin is higher than that of the other, the cheaper will drive the dearer from circulation. This has been the experience of all nations. Various attempts have been made in the United States during the present century to circulate both silver and gold on equal terms, but there has never been any considerable period in which it has succeeded. Sometimes we had silver alone, sometimes gold alone, but never permanently the two together. A difference of 1½ per cent. in the value of one coin over the other has invariably driven the dearer one out of circulation. This has been the experience of other countries, and those to-day which are nominally bimetal countries conduct all their international business on the gold basis. It is this voice of experience which convinces many of the leading economists of the world that even if we had an international bimetallic agreement, the international business of the world would still be conducted in gold alone.

But whatever doubts there may be about the effect of international bimetallism, there are none about the folly of the United States or any other nation adopting a bimetallic standard separately, with free coinage of both metals, no matter what the ratio of value might be. If it were the present ratio, that of a 66-cent silver dollar, the result would be a plunge to the silver standard, the consequences of which we have discussed in this place (see "Topics of the Time" in May CENTURY). If the ratio gave us a dollar worth 100 cents at the outset, it would be impossible to maintain it with all the silver of the world poured upon us, as it would be, from other nations eager to get upon the gold standard. We should have the whole world against us in international trade, and would suffer loss in every direction. On this point, the oft-quoted words of Webster, in his speech on the Bank Bill of 1815, are complete and final:

> The circulating medium of a commercial community must be that which is also the circulating medium of other commercial communities, or must be capable of being converted into that medium without loss. It must be able, not only to pass in payments and receipts among individuals of the same society and nation, but to adjust and discharge the balance of exchanges between different nations.

The Kindergarten not a Fad.[1]

A RACE that is said to take its pleasures sadly,— a branch of which, indeed, by inheritance is inclined to look upon all amusement as sinful,— such a race very naturally produces many minds that cannot help suspecting the utility of an institution like the kindergarten, which might to a casual observer seem merely organized pleasure. This kind of observer, seeing for the first time a kindergarten "in full play," naturally asks himself, Can anything so delightful really be part of a grave, scientific system of education; or is it merely a pretty way of keeping children — especially the children of the poor — out of mischief?

That it is a thoroughly accredited, successful, scientific, and rapidly spreading educational device, and no mere fad of the moment, seems to be an established fact, as may be gathered from inquiry among the leaders of education everywhere in America, and from all the teachers who, whether kindergartners or not, have come into contact with the system.

The kindergarten is no longer an experiment. It is not now on the defensive, either on its educational or on its philanthropic side. It is rather for those who ignorantly oppose the kindergarten to show cause for their opposition in the face of the almost unanimous approval of experts, and the enthusiastic indorsement of all that part of the general public who have had the opportunity of becoming familiar with its methods and results.

OPEN LETTERS.

The Kindergarten in a Nutshell.

WHEN I wish to put my ideas on the kindergarten in a nutshell, I say that:

The kindergarten provides for two classes of weaklings that develop in a city community. First, the children of the very poor who lack the virtue of thrift, and do what they can to educate their children into the same weakness. The kindergarten takes these from the street at an early age, and gives them a humane introduction to neatness, cleanliness, and social union with their fellows, thus initiating them into civilization. On the basis of self-respect, industry and thrift will grow.

The second class of weaklings which develop are the moral weaklings; for example, those furnished by the class of spoiled children. The many chances for wealth in this country combine to create a class of people newly become wealthy. The time of the father has been absorbed in gaining the wealth, that of the mother in adjusting herself to the new social caste into which she has entered. Their children are precocious in directive power, and almost unmanageable by the ordinary tutor or governess. In the absence of parental restraint, they develop selfishness, indulge all their appetites, and often die of excess in early manhood. The kindergarten, through its mild discipline, and its facilities for employing these precocious children in work, by means of gifts, occupations, and games, succeeds in saving most of them.

I believe that the kindergarten should not be modified from the form in which it comes to us from Froebel and his immediate disciples, under the plea that it needs adaptation to the primary school. Such an adaptation ends in changing the kindergarten into a species of primary school of the old sort. The primary school is well adapted in its present form to pupils of seven years of age and upward. The kindergarten is the only good educational method invented for the child between the

[1] Besides papers in the present number, see article on "The Kindergarten," June, 1871; on "The Child-Garden," by Edward Eggleston, June, 1876; on the Adler "Workingman's School and Free Kindergarten," June, 1888; also paper by Felix Adler, October, 1889; on "Free Kindergartens in New York," by Angeline Brooks, November, 1889. In the Adler kindergarten, and the kindergartens connected with the New York College for the training of Teachers and the Normal College, kindergartners are trained, as well as in the kindergartens taught by Miss M. L. Van Wagenen and Miss Jenny Hunter, and in the school of Mrs. Kraus. The kindergartens of the New York Kindergarten Association aim at a high standard; and good kindergarten work is done in some of our private and mission kindergartens, Christian and Jewish. The New York City Board of Education has recently resolved to adopt the system.

ages of four and six. In the kindergarten age the child needs a symbolic education for his best nourishment. In the primary age the child has begun to feel the desire for learning the conventional instruments invented by the race for communicating and preserving human experience. He learns letters and numbers to great advantage in the primary stage. But if these are given him in the kindergarten age, it results often in producing arrested development.

W. T. Harris,
Commissioner of Education of the United States.

The Possibilities of the Kindergarten.

HOW to save the children, and how to reach the homes of "the other half," are the two questions most prominent before the philanthropists of the present time. A careful consideration of the means at hand for the accomplishment of these two inclusive purposes discloses the fact that there is no other available agency that in the least compares with the kindergarten. Apart from its philanthropic aspects, it is also recognized as an educational institution, and the idea of introducing it into our public-school systems has for some time been gaining ground.

It is true that the kindergarten has possibilities which ally it to the school, and it is claimed by some that when public kindergartens shall have been established there will be no further need of those whose object is purely philanthropic. However, a consideration of the methods employed in the attempt to adapt the system to the schools leads to the conclusion that they fail fully to appreciate the requirements of the true kindergarten, and that, under their administration, society will not realize its fullest possibilities.

One reason for this conclusion is that the school regards the kindergarten as a mere preliminary to the established course of school work, whereas a view of the present state of society must convince the careful observer that what is needed is not merely more school, but something different from the school.

In proportion to the population, the number of criminals in this country is greater now than it was twenty-five years ago, and, furthermore, statistics show that the average age of criminals is decreasing, each succeeding year adding a list younger than any of the preceding years. The cause of this alarming state of affairs may, to a great extent, be traced to the neglect of childhood.

It must be conceded that the public schools fail in not making character-building their primal duty, as, theoretically, the chief reason for their existence is to make good citizens. Their failure to do this necessitates, in many instances, the establishment of juvenile asylums and reformatory prisons, the object of which is to reclaim a dangerous class, who, had they been properly trained in early childhood, would have required no reclaiming.

An important failure of the schools in their adoption of the kindergarten is in not utilizing the two years between three and five; for if the kindergarten were to be merely preliminary to the school, with its present standard of purely intellectual training, it would be a mistake to overlook these years in which the child develops intellectually more than in any subsequent two years of his life, and to which the kindergarten is perfectly adapted. Before the development of the kindergarten there was no systematic course of intellectual training available for children below five years of age, the infant schools of two generations ago, with their forcing processes, having been abandoned as entirely impracticable. Important as these years are for intellectual training, the kindergarten values them especially as a time for moral and spiritual nurture—an opportunity for doing both preventive and upbuilding work.

Even should the public school take the child at three years of age, these social possibilities of the kindergarten, which are important factors in philanthropic work, would not be realized, for the public-school teacher is not required to know, and seldom does know, anything of the home life of her pupils. Indeed, her long hours and many pupils render this impossible. In all philanthropic kindergartens, however, visiting in the homes of the children is an essential part of the work, and the kindergarten is frequently a welcome visitor where no city missionary would be admitted, often supplying what is most needed, namely, a friend.

The true kindergarten regards not merely the intellect, but aims to cultivate the heart and to train the hand. It has a purpose entirely distinct from that which is practically recognized in the schools. It seeks to make children joyous, pure, trustful, docile, reverent, and unselfish, while it is conceded that the effect of school influences is often the very opposite.

Many of the faults of the schools are traceable to the fact that so many pupils are assigned to one teacher that she cannot give them attention individually, and the same conditions are found in most of the public kindergartens thus far established. The true kindergarten idea is to develop the highest possibilities of each individual child, and at the same time so to cultivate the social feeling that the individual will be subordinate to the good of the community. To promote these ends, the kindergarten must be in sympathetic relations with each of the children, and, therefore, the number must not be too great.

Angeline Brooks.

NEW YORK COLLEGE FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The Philanthropic Side of Kindergarten Work.

WITH the tide of immigration setting so steadily in the direction of this country, a certain quarter of a large city often becomes densely populated with people from some foreign land, who occupy it almost to the exclusion of every other nationality. They possess little or no power of affiliation with other people, and retain to a great extent their own customs and language, until they belong neither to the country which they have left nor to the one to which they have come. They are so crowded together in tenement-houses that evils which they do not bring with them are soon engendered and acquired by the dreadful conditions under which they live. It is in such places as these that the kindergarten may expect to accomplish much. But if we concentrate our energies to working among the older people, we are destined to see most of our efforts turn out to be fruitless. It is plainly taking things up by the wrong end, for it is with the children of these people that the great opportunity lies. It is an easy thing to guide in the right direction the heart and mind of the little child who is as yet unwarped by prejudice and distrust, not bound

by habits of long duration, and comparatively untouched by his surroundings. The writer recalls a little boy four years old, in one of the kindergartens, who used so many "swear words" that for the good of the other children he had to sit by himself. He was perfectly willing to use other words, but until he came to the kindergarten he did n't know there were any just as good. His mother kept a boarding-house for mechanics, and his home surroundings were of the coarsest and roughest kind. The kindergarten was the opening of a new world to him; he was very much interested in everything that happened, and seemed particularly fond of the flowers which were often brought to the kindergartner by friends. The morning after Decoration Day he came with a bunch of faded clover, which he gave to the kindergartner. She asked him where he found it, and the answer brought to light a touching little story. He had been thinking of one of the kindergarten songs, and the thought of dewy meadows, with white daisies and clover-tops really growing there, had touched his imagination; so after kindergarten was over he found some older boy to go with him, and they started on the elevated road to find the country. Just where they went no one knows, but he found some clover, and brought a large bunch back with him. On his way home he stopped at the kindergarten, but as it was late in the afternoon, and there was no one there, he went home, still holding tightly the beloved bunch of flowers, which he kept all the next day, while the kindergarten was closed. The following morning he started bright and early, and brought Miss B—— the clover, which by this time had all withered. He told her he had tried to bring some buttercups too, but "they all broke." It is no small thing to secure the heart and imagination of these neglected children. A wise man has said, "To fill the imagination with beautiful images is the best thing that can be done to educate little children." The mind imagines what the heart loves. At the end of the year this little boy's mother sent Miss B—— an envelop. When it was opened it was found to contain, as an expression of her gratitude for all that had been done for her little boy, two hard-earned dollars.

Mary Katharine Young.

The Eye and the Ear at Chicago.

A PRACTICAL SUGGESTION FOR NEXT MAY.

THE great assembly gathered on the opening day in the largest of the noble buildings appropriated to the Columbian Exposition in Chicago learned a lesson that was not set down upon the program. The lesson was this: that the ear is not as receptive as the eye; or, to use the terms Lord Kelvin applied to the senses, that the ear-gate to the mind is narrower than the eye-gate. And this is the way that the lesson was learned.

Never before in modern times, except in dreamland, has there been such an array of grand, varied, harmonious, well-proportioned, well-decorated structures as those that are standing on the shores of the lake, the lagoon, the canal, and the water-court of Jackson Park. The eye was delighted with their beauty and fitness. The most cultivated observers, and those who were uneducated, were alike enthusiastic in their admiration. For the first time, on a great scale, they saw the fine arts enlisted in the service of the useful and the liberal arts. Architecture, sculpture, painting, and landscape-gardening had been employed in preparing homes for manufactures, transportation, agriculture, horticulture, machinery, electricity, as well as for science, literature, education, charity, and for the pictorial and plastic arts. The mind instantly received a vivid and enduring impression from the sight of these examples of the master-builder's skill. The hospitable eye welcomed many new ideas.

All this was in remarkable contrast to that which followed. Within a vast assembly hall, perhaps one hundred thousand people—some say one hundred and fifty thousand—were gathered on October 21. There was here no effort to gratify the sight. Arrays of black coats and plain dresses grow less interesting as they increase in number. Over the platform hung a few flags, and a few plants stood upon the staging. That was all the decoration. But everything that could interest the ear was provided in profusion. The military bands played while the cannon roared. An orchestra and chorus, said to number five thousand musicians, performed a new composition; but the notes of it were only faintly heard on the speakers' stand half-way across the building. A Methodist bishop and a Catholic cardinal, not unused to vast assemblies, offered up prayers, which we may hope were heard in heaven, but were not heard by most of the audience. The penetrating voice of a lady accustomed to public reading carried a musical note to a distance, but it was only a note and not a word. The Vice-President of the United States read an address, but his hearers might have been deaf for all the pleasure they received. Two orators of distinction spoke in succession,—men who are wont to appear upon the hustings,—but in the gallery directly opposite the platform their eloquence was that of the dumb appealing by gesture and attitude. The ear-gate was closed to those inspiring influences which the eye-gate received so freely.

Is it worth while to offer a suggestion for the next vast assembly in Chicago—that of May, for example? Is it worth while to set the American people thinking about the difference between what appeals to the eye, and what to the ear? If it be, let the value of a pageant be considered. Let us imagine a vast room, or a great space in the open air, with a dais, on which the colors should be effective and harmonious. Let there be standards and floral decorations in abundance, arranged by some artistic hand. When the few chief dignities have been received, let other representative people be brought forward in groups bearing emblems or symbols which indicate their claims to consideration. Let delegations of the various professions and arts, in their appropriate robes, uniforms, or traditional dresses, be introduced. Let the workmen in every craft—the workers in wood, iron, brick, stone, the architects, sculptors, painters, decorators, manufacturers, engineers, carriers,—all who have been concerned in making the Exposition a success,—send their representatives to participate in the opening ceremony. A simple act, the bestowal of medals, wreaths, flags, would give point to the assembly. A sentence from the mouth of some high official, a collect, and a doxology would express all that language need say on such an occasion.

In another place, at another hour, let there be oratory, poetry, song, addressed to audiences who will enjoy listening if they can only hope to hear.

Daniel C. Gilman.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, MD.

American Artists Series.

ALICE D. KELLOGG.

MISS ALICE D. KELLOGG has been fortunate in her instructors. Going abroad in 1887, she came successively under the influence of Boulanger and Lefebvre at the Académie Julian, Courtois and Rixen at the Carlorossa School, Dagnan-Bouveret, and that very successful American teacher in Paris, Charles Lasar. Before leaving her native city she had proved her ability by winning, during her first year of study at what was then the Academy of Fine Arts,— now that noble monument to the growth of art taste in the West, the Chicago Art Institute,— a scholarship, and one year later was appointed an assistant teacher.

During her residence abroad she was twice an exhibitor in the Salon, and in the American section of the Paris International Exhibition a portrait of her sister, painted by her, was given a good place. The picture which forms the frontispiece of this number of the magazine was painted during her last year in France. Since her return to America she has produced many portraits, among others that of John C. Coonley, for the Union League of Chicago.

It is perhaps a pity that so large a proportion of Miss Kellogg's time is given over to teaching, for she draws well, possesses sentiment, and is a fair colorist; and though her works are unfortunately few, it is possible that as an enthusiastic and successful teacher, a charter member of the Bohemian, and president of the Palette Club, she may exert a strong influence on the art of Chicago.

W. Lewis Fraser.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

An Unconscious Diplomat.

MRS. PIPER stood near the gate, waiting for the westward-bound stage. It was a cold November day, and she was enveloped in a comfortable gray woolen shawl and numerous smaller wrappings. The stage came through from Cherryfield, and was due in Skillings Village at about half-past two. It was now two o'clock, and although the driver had been spoken to the day before on his way east, and was to be again cautioned at the post-office not to forget to call for Mrs. Piper, the old lady felt it was best to be on the safe side, and was waiting patiently.

Mrs. Stone, her nearest neighbor, had come over to bid Mrs. Piper good-by, and stood beside her under the large willow-tree which shaded the gate.

"You don't mean to tell me, Mrs. Piper, that you 're goin' to Ellsworth with only one shawl? Land! you 'll freeze to death a-crossin' that ferry. I never could bring myself to go 'cross that ferry, noways. The current sets master strong there jest above the falls. Seems if that ferry was a sort of temptin' Providence," and Mrs. Stone shivered apprehensively.

"Well, I dunno; 't ain't ever worried me none to speak of," responded Mrs. Piper. "I always try to occupy my mind someways jest before we get to it. Though when the wind 's fresh, and Mr. Atkins gets up a sail, I own to it I don't feel as if I had much purchase on life."

"Now don't you worry 'bout Mr. Piper one mite. You jest have a good visit; I 'll kinder keep an eye on him," said Mrs. Stone, amiably. "I often wish 't was so I was free to go as you be, but I seem to be tied hand an' foot, one way an' another."

The stage was now in sight, and in a short time the mud-bespattered wagon, drawn by two raw-boned horses, came to a gradual pause before the gate, and the substantial figure of Mrs. Piper was hoisted into the back seat. The driver arranged the worn buffalo-robes, and started his horses into a mild and dispirited trot.

"Terrible rough goin'," ventured Mr. Hall, looking over his shoulder toward his passenger. "Yesterday, jest as I was a-comin' down that rough place by the ferry, one of the fore wheels give way; let the whole fore part of the wagon right down. I fixed it up 's well as I could, but this cart 's seen its best days. 'T ain't what I call safe."

"Well, Mr. Hall, travelin' is always more or less risky. I 've always said stage-drivin' must be dreadful tryin'. Still, I s'pose you find a good deal to divert you," responded Mrs. Piper.

"Yes, 'm; I see considerable, but it gets tiresome. I was a-thinkin' of that willer-tree of yours as I come along to-day," continued Mr. Hall, after a brief pause. "It makes such a shady spot in summer that I always sort of slow up the horses 'long there."

"I set a good deal by that tree," replied Mrs. Piper, briefly. "This wagon ain't over comfortable," she continued; "I declare to it, I thought I should go out over backward when you was a-goin' up that steep hill."

"Goin' to stop long in Ellsworth?" questioned Mr. Hall, ignoring his passenger's complaint.

"I 'm a-calculatin' on stoppin' a week; I 've been a-thinkin' of goin' fer some time, an' gettin' it off my mind before winter set in. I expected William would object to my goin'; but he seemed real pleased; said he guessed the change would do me good."

Mr. Hall received these remarks in ruminative silence.

MR. PIPER had finished the chores, and cleared away the remains of his lonely supper. He now took down a candlestick from the high mantelpiece in the kitchen.

"I sha'n't fool round with no kerosene-lamps," he muttered. "They ain't safe, an' I ain't goin' to begin at my time of life experimentin' with 'em."

He lighted the candle carefully, and put it on a small pine table which he drew near the fire, and, after rubbing his glasses, unfolded the "Eastern Argus," and tried to read. But the feeble, flickering light made reading too hard a task, and Mr. Piper put the paper away.

no stops, and no waiting for trains, and no danger from collisions or from jumping the track. At the fair passengers landing or departing by boat can utilize the movable sidewalk, as can also the patrons of the restaurant which is to dispense ordinary cheer and lake air at the end of the pier.

I have hinted only at a few of the exhibits of curious character to be made by foreigners and by Americans. Krupp alone will spend half a million dollars on his exhibit of engines of war, thanks to the interest of Emperor William in having this German industry prominent at the fair. He will send the largest gun ever made, which will weigh 122 tons. It will leave Essen on a car constructed to carry it to the seaboard; it will be landed at Sparrow's Point near Baltimore, where the Maryland Steel Company will undertake to lift it from the ship to a specially constructed car of the Baltimore and Ohio road. There is a track in the grounds which will carry it to the door of Krupp's special building on the lake shore, east of the Agricultural Building. It is fate at the fair, just as in the larger field of the world, that peace and war are nearest neighbors,— that this temple of Mars will be only a few feet from the reproduction of the Convent of La Rabida where Columbus, despairing of government aid, was finding refuge when his luck changed. If the managers have confidence in the walls of the fair, and Herr Krupp has confidence in his pet monster, it would be a good idea to make amends by firing a salute from this gun in honor of the Columbian victory of peace.

A salvo of addresses in honor of peace will be delivered every day at the Art Institute, especially erected in Lake-Front Park for the World's Congress Auxiliary. Here all the ideas and isms of the age will be on oral exhibition, and great will be the endurance of the attending intelligences that survive.

Relaxation of a remarkable kind is to be provided in the " Spectatorium," a theater of gigantic proportions invented by Steele Mackaye, which will stand on the lake shore contiguous to the Exposition grounds. Spectacles, like the Columbian voyage with real winds and waves, ships, rain and rainbows, have been projected on an unheard-of scale, with novel effects and a concord of serious music and art.

Large as is the covered area of the fair, neither foreign exhibitors nor our own people may have much more than half the space that they have wanted. In the interest of quality rather than quantity, it is just as well that this is so; for, if any fault is to be found with this Columbian Exposition, it will be on account of the inability of the human mind to compass and appreciate it. There can be no fault found with Columbus, or with Chicago, or with foreign governments who have been most considerate, or with American energy and ambition. But assuredly, after a few exhausting days of such music as will be provided, such exhibits of mental audacity and ingenuity, such art, such architecture, such a glory of bunting, such a blaze of electricity, the American sightseer, with all his stamina and flexibility, will retreat to his quiet walk in life, and, emerging under the immortal stars, will reflect that there is a glory not made with hands— and will rest his soul.

C. C. Buel.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

A Word from Russia.

THE CENTURY has from time to time published criticisms of certain internal affairs of the Russian empire, but surely with no ill will for the country which showed its friendship for our own at a time of national peril. Much has been said in these columns concerning the Siberian exile system, and on the treatment of the Jews in Russia. It will be remembered that on the latter subject opposing views were printed here some years ago by Madame Ragozin and the late Emma Lazarus.

We now ask a fair hearing for "the other side," in the paper printed in this number of THE CENTURY by a member of the Russian Legation at Washington. If any statement of the Russian governmental view has ever before been put forth with any color of authority, in an American periodical, we do not know of it. Whatever may be thought of this view, as here briefly presented by Mr. Botkine, it will surely be regarded as a fact of deep significance that an official of the Russian government has been permitted to break through the reserve of his position in order to make an explanation to the American people of the situation at home, as he himself understands it.

Responsibility for the Spoils System.

THE President-elect has recently given forth some vigorous expressions of opinion unfavorable to that view of government which makes of it simply a scramble for and dispensation of the salaries of the bluebook. He seems to be determined to check the tendency to regard the Executive Mansion as little more than a National Employment Bureau, rather than the center of the executive branch of the Government, with all its varied functions. The more strenuously he adheres to this determination, the closer will the entire Government be held to its proper uses, the better the nation will be served, and the better the good people of the country will be pleased.

But are the executive branches of our National, State,

and municipal government alone to blame for the spoils system? And in the general community are the bad people solely to blame for it? In fact does not a considerable part of the blame and the disgrace rest upon those who are classed among the "good"? Do or do not these same good people, or a large part of them, whenever there is a chase after a petty office in their neighborhood, join in the hue and cry — if not in their own behalf, then, in a friendly way, in behalf of some needy neighbor who wants their names to his petition or their influence in his enterprise?

When every citizen who at heart despises the spoils system shall live up to his despisal, and set his face resolutely against the indecent and cruel scramble for other people's bread and butter — then it will be easier for Presidents, and all others in authority, to carry out their own best intentions; then the present laws in relation to the subject will be executed in their full content and intent; and the merit system will be extended to all that part of the public service to which, in reason and in justice, it should be applied.

Efficiency of Ballot Reform.

AFTER the supreme test of the Australian ballot system of voting which was made in the last Presidential election, there can be no further question of its efficiency. It was tried for the first time in a national election in no fewer than thirty-five States, and in all of them it worked so smoothly and satisfactorily that no serious complaints were made. It was noticeable that the most successful of the laws were those which are the most thoroughgoing applications of the system, and which follow the example of the pioneer Massachusetts law in having the names of all candidates printed upon a single or blanket ballot. Few complaints were heard about the working of these laws, but those which, like the New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and California laws, are applications of the system which never met the approval of ballot-reformers gave rise to many expressions of dissatisfaction which ought to lead to the adoption of new and better laws in their stead.

The great results gained in all the States were quiet and orderly elections, an absence of intimidators, vote-peddlers, and vote-buyers from the polling-places, and the opportunity for every citizen to cast his ballot in absolute secrecy. It was demonstrated that the new system went a long way toward abolishing bribery from our elections. The professional corruptionists of all parties confessed frankly that in no previous election had money produced so slight an effect, chiefly because the bribers took the money paid them for their votes, and then failed to keep their bargains. This demonstration is of great value, for no man will waste money in buying votes which he is not certain will be delivered. There have been differences of opinion as to the degree of immorality in the business of vote-buying, but never any about the unwisdom of paying money for votes about the deposit of which there is any uncertainty. A man who will sell his vote cannot be trusted to keep his bargain when he is left to execute it in secret. This claim was made by the advocates of the Australian system at the outset of their agitation for its adoption, and the recent election has shown that it was well founded.

In saying this for the new system, we do not wish to be understood as declaring that no further legislation against the illicit use of money in elections is necessary. On the contrary, such legislation is imperatively needed, for there are forms of using money other than in direct bribery. It is entirely probable, also, that familiarity with the new voting system will enable the corruptionists to circumvent its provisions. This has been done in some States in elections which were not national in character, and in time it might be done in national elections. The great point has been gained of checking wholesale bribery of voters; we ought not to stop until bribery is abolished, by having the use of money forbidden under such stringent laws as shall make its use without detection and punishment impossible.

Next to the partial abolition of bribery, the most noteworthy triumph of the new system was the immunity from espionage, intimidation, and undue influence of all kinds which it secured to every voter. As time goes on we believe that this secret ballot, which is in reality the only absolutely free and fair ballot, will be recognized as the most invaluable feature of the Australian system. It permits every citizen to vote as his conscience dictates without fear of consequences.

The complete success of the reform system in so large a proportion of the States makes certain its speedy adoption in the remaining States. At the beginning of the present year the only States still without it were Kansas and Idaho in the North, and Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia in the South. All these ought to have it embodied in their statutes before the next Presidential election comes around, and the chances are that all of them will do so. In no part of the country is the reform more urgent, or more salutary in its results, than in the South. It subjects the negro voters to the same test of intelligence which is imposed in the North, and thus removes all ground of complaint in case a portion of such voters are not able to exercise their rights of suffrage. It is estimated by the leaders of Tammany Hall in New York City that the new system deprives them of from 8000 to 10,000 votes in every election because of the inability of the most ignorant voters to cope with the requirements of the law. The exclusion from the polls of voters so densely ignorant as this, whether they be in the North or in the South, or whether they be black or white, is far from being a public misfortune, and is also far from constituting a defect in the new voting method.

Reform in Contested Election Cases.

IT was most unfortunate that the constitutional amendment in New York State, taking from the two houses of the legislature their power to decide contested election cases, and transferring it to the courts, should have been submitted to popular vote for approval in a Presidential election. A very small vote was cast in its favor, and a comparatively small, but yet larger, one was cast against it. The simple fact was that the people were so absorbed in the great issues of the Presidential contest that they paid little or no attention to questions of minor importance. In addition to this fact, the judicial transfer amendment was associated with two others, both desirable, but both

adding to the complications of the situation, since they increased the popular tendency, always observable in such cases, to vote against measures the purport of which is not fully comprehended. Not having either time or disposition to inform themselves as to the meaning and wisdom of the three amendments, the people either declined to vote on them or voted in the main against them.

This is no new development of American proclivities, and it is not by any means a deplorable trait of national character. The result in this instance is deplorable, but it is not irrevocable. It was due to the unfortunate circumstance that the amendments were submitted to the people in an election which was the one most unsuitable for an intelligent and deliberate verdict upon them. The figures of the returns show that only a very small proportion of the voters of the State expressed any opinion whatever upon them. There cannot be said, therefore, to have been any popular verdict rendered as to their merits; least of all can it be said that a verdict has been rendered against them. The people have simply declined to express a favorable or unfavorable opinion until they can do so intelligently.

This view of the matter ought to be given great weight by the approaching constitutional convention, the delegates to which are to be chosen by the people of New York within a short time. Among the various changes in the State's organic law which that body will be called upon to consider, none is of greater importance than this of a change of power from the legislature to the courts. We discussed this subject fully, shortly after Senator Saxton's joint resolution embodying it as an amendment passed the legislature for the first time in March, 1891.[1] We showed at that time that the reform proposed had been adopted in England in 1868, and though it was regarded as of doubtful wisdom by many high authorities, including the judges to whom the power was transferred, it had worked with such perfect success that no complaints had ever been made in regard to it, and no suggestion had ever been heard for a change to the former method. We were in error in saying at that time that no American State had adopted the reform, for it was embodied in the constitution of Pennsylvania in 1874, and has worked as satisfactorily in that State during the subsequent eighteen years as it has in England. Commenting upon it recently, the Philadelphia "Press" said:

> Pennsylvania already enjoys this wholesome reform. It is incorporated in the Constitution of 1874, and since its adoption the time of the legislature has not been wasted in considering contested election cases. What is of more importance, party interests have not determined the decisions in these cases. A court can be, and usually is, non-partizan, though the judges are chosen by a party vote. A legislature can never be non-partizan when the party control of the legislature turns on its decision on a contested seat. In such cases argument and the taking of evidence are a waste of time. The verdict can be forecast with certainty from the beginning by noting the relative party strength in the chamber.

The "Press" characterizes the old method which is still in vogue in all other States as "absurd and vicious," and its language is no more emphatic than that which has been used by other commentators who have studied its effects not merely in State legislatures, but in Congress. Ex-Speaker Reed of the Fifty-first Congress, a body in which the majority was increased from seven to twenty-four by partizan decisions, has said of the method now in use that "it is unsatisfactory in results, unjust to members and contestants, and fails to secure the representation which the people have chosen." He has also said, as confirming the view that partizan considerations invariably control the decisions, that "probably there is not a single instance on record where the minority was increased by the decision of contested cases." The Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge, who has advocated the transfer to the courts by Congress of its power over contested cases, is no less pronounced in his views, saying, as we quoted him in June, 1891, that the "House is rarely thoroughly and violently partizan, except when it sits in a judicial capacity to try an election case."

So far as New York State is concerned, its citizens had a very forcible illustration of the evil possibilities of the present system in the performances which occurred in Albany in January, 1892. The subsequent decisions of the Court of Appeals have left no doubt that in the contested cases of that period the Democrats secured a majority in the Senate by methods which would not have been possible of successful employment had final decision rested with the courts. No one who has the welfare of his country at heart, and who desires popular government to attain its best and most beneficent estate, will wish to see a practice continued which is capable of such abuses as this. The New York constitutional convention, we are confident, will realize that it has a duty to perform in this matter, and will take the ground that the people should be given another opportunity to pass deliberate and intelligent judgment upon what investigation is certain to convince them is a salutary and most urgent reform.

[1] See "Judicial Control of Contested Election Cases," in "Topics of the Time" in THE CENTURY for June, 1891.

Free Art a National Necessity.

REPRESENTATIVE ANDREW of Massachusetts has done a public service in resuming, in the present Congress, the agitation for free art. On this question the artists of the country have taken an enlightened and honorable position. The arguments for an unrestricted interchange of paintings and sculpture between the United States and other countries have been rehearsed in these columns and elsewhere to the point of fatigue. Miss Kate Field has been especially serviceable to the cause in setting these arguments clearly before Congress and the public. Any one who is interested in the question knows that the present duty of 15 per cent. on art is not defensible on any theory of protection; that the revenue product is comparatively insignificant in the mass, while exceedingly annoying and exacting in the item, and that at least 95 per cent. of those who are "protected" by the duty are daily crying out against a protection which does not — and in its nature cannot — protect. These considerations are made more significant by the fact that in 1890, under the leadership of Mr. McKinley, free art passed the House of Representatives — a body of protection proclivities — in the first draft of the present tariff law.

What argument then remains to support this barrier in the way of American national progress in art? Simply the delusion that art is a luxury, and must be taxed accordingly.

In the spring of 1890, at a dinner party in Washington, a prominent Senator in a gale of jest agreed to escort to the World's Fair the two ladies between whom he was seated. Six months later, the McKinley bill having passed the House, the Senator was reported in the newspapers as expressing a doubt as to the concurrence of the Senate in the removal of the duty on art. "For," said he, "how can we go to our constituents and stand up for the tax on sugar, which is a necessity, and defend its removal from art, which is a luxury?" Meantime, the interview having come to the eye of one of the ladies, she wrote, in effect, the following note:

MY DEAR SENATOR: I think it proper to say to you that I could under no circumstances consent to go to the World's Fair with Mrs. —— in the company of a Senator who thinks sugar a necessity and art a luxury; for while you would be longing to go to the candy counter, we should be wild to visit the picture-galleries, and, you see, there would be discord at once.

Sorrowfully yours, —— —— ——.

However novel this view of art as a necessity may be to some legislators, it is not a novel view to the vast majority of cultivated people of this country. There may be some excuse for thinking that in the early colonial period gunpowder was more necessary than statuary. But the luxuries of one generation are the necessities of the next. The time was when ice was a luxury; now it is a necessity. In this era of sated material prosperity, good is no longer, in the definition of the English statesman, simply "good to eat." Public sentiment clearly perceives that what we need to cultivate and encourage are the graces and refinements of life, pure learning, the best music, the beautiful arts, the progress of civilization being measured by the conversion of luxuries into necessities.

It ought not to be difficult in this year of grace and art—the year of the artistic miracle by the side of Lake Michigan—to convince even the most material mind of the practical utility of beauty and of the good policy of giving the freest circulation to artistic products. European nations know the commercial value in pounds or francs of a liberal patronage of the arts. There is hardly an article of modern dress or household furniture that is not ultimately affected for the better by the spread of true ideas of art. By making the interchange with European centers difficult, we simply delay the day of our ultimate glory as an artistic nation—a destiny to which the genius of our people points, and which must reach its accomplishment through the education and growth of popular taste.

In the last Congress a great step was taken in civilization when, against the bitterest prejudices and the most alarmed entreaties, a large measure of justice was done to intellectual property by the passage of the International Copyright Bill. The new law has already justified the claims of its friends, and shown the groundlessness of the fears of its enemies. It was not asked for as a matter of favor, but of right; and it is on this ground, and in the same spirit of self-respect, that American artists and their allies ask for the justice that lies in free opportunity. To provide this is the first duty of government. No man is a beggar who asks for it; no good citizen will be content with less. And as no public investment is so valuable to a government as its investment in the respect of its own citizens, it is to be hoped that before the close of the present session, this barbarous tax upon intelligence will be removed, so that Americans may be able to look frankly in the face the representatives of those great nations—great in nothing more enduring than their art—to which our own artists are indebted for the most constant and generous opportunity, instruction, and inspiration.

OPEN LETTERS.

How Pianists May be Different and yet Each be Great.

MUSICIANS have long agreed that there is something amiss in the modern piano-concert. An undertow of dissent sets back from the popularity of our greatest artists. The instant loss of artistic prestige that follows an attempt to settle in America shows how much more public interest arises from novelty than from appreciation of musical genius. We have no pianists who possess a tithe of the hold upon public regard that is enjoyed by a very large number of favorite actors. This is partly because the stage has an immense advantage in the attitude of its patrons toward it. We go to the theater to enjoy the acting; we go to a concert to decide how nearly a pianist playing a familiar program is able to come up to our ideas. An actor is free to choose his own special line of art. Robson is not expected to play *Hamlet*, nor Salvini *Solon Shingle;* neither of them is obliged to be a scene-painter. The fine arts offer similar freedom; a man may select landscape or figure; may excel in color or line; may be classic, realistic, or impressionist, as suits him best. But the pianist is supposed to be everything or nothing, although no art contains possibilities more various and incompatible than those inherent in music. In its tissue of pleasing sounds it affects the ear just as color affects the eye, and accordingly possesses a school of art the musicians of which are as truly colorists as if they handled a brush. It is also a language, and as such numbers in its ranks not only writers, but orators, critics, and dramatic artists. Furthermore, being dependent on muscular agility, it offers a field for the phenomenal development of virtuosity. Among all these obligatory requirements an artist finds himself, like Issachar, an overloaded ass, stooping between his burdens; and his artistic purpose becomes hopelessly confused. This is more unfortunate from the fact that the normal attitude of the artist toward his art is not the same in men of different temperaments. Given a musical ear, any one of several powerful instincts may impel an artist to his art, and in the direction of this impulse will be his greatest strength. What a liberty of perfection, what an exorcism of commonplace, would follow if we were broad enough to recog-

nize the point where the struggle for symmetrical artistic development should cease, and if we were sympathetic enough to urge each genius onward in its normal bent! The natural bent of an artist's instinct is his vein of ore in the great mine of art. He will dig to very little purpose at right angles to it.

That, indeed, would be a unique artist who so well understood his own genius that he was always consistent; and exceptional artists have many active instincts, which prompt as many developments. This paper seeks to define these instincts, and by no means to limit the powers of the artists cited. We will, for the purpose, consider a few common types of art in general, and piano-playing in particular.

Musicians separate instrumentalists into two broad classes, those who work by feeling, and those who work by conscious intellectual effort. The artistic productions of these two classes are easily recognized as different, not in degree, but in kind. The first are said to be "subjective," the second "objective." These metaphysical terms are extremely misleading. However, if we use them as a rough classification of clearly opposing types, we can make it plainer why musicians may be different, and yet each be great. Thus the critic and the virtuoso are certainly objective, while the rhapsodist, the colorist, the composer, and the idealist are subjective. Perhaps the impressionist occupies a middle ground.

THE RHAPSODIST AND THE PLAYING CRITIC.

LET us consider the rhapsodist — the man who reproduces classic art forms with an enthusiasm that often carries him past interpretation into improvisation. The type is as old and familiar as art itself. "One may dare to *break all bounds* only in his own compositions," sighs Rubinstein, who can never keep within bounds. The musician who unconsciously creates in the very act of interpretation is the artist with the instinct of an orator. Daudet drew the type in "Numa Roumestan." It is the freshness and spontaneity that one enjoys most in the flights of such a genius. Critical interpretation is its negative pole. The enthusiasm of the artist and the audience create the result between them. So normal is the artistic manifestation that the comparatively unmusical public is able to understand and revel in it. If such an artist pauses in his flight to reason and analyze, his wings drop off.

A tendency to improvise was one of the most marked features of Liszt's genius. Hiller, who disliked him, said Liszt played best at sight, because if he went through a piece a second time he altered it to suit himself. The artists who play Liszt's own music as he played it do so by ear, for he seldom kept to the text he furnished the public. The inspiration of the occasion provoked many of the great Hungarian's finest utterances. But such artistic freedom is the rarest condition of a modern pianist. How many tender rhapsodists have we cut down to the standards of the excellent Cotta edition of classic works — although the interpretation of the genuine rhapsodist is always happiest in moments of greatest abandon! The initial impulse of an artist like Bülow, on the other hand, is frankly analytic. He clamors for truth and fidelity to subject-matter as loudly as Ruskin. He scorns to consider the result of his music upon the audience he despises. He enters literature as tractarian, not as composer. Even as pianist he avowedly neither creates nor composes his musical picture. He is a critic of musical literature who embodies his opinion in musical form. Bülow, the greatest, clearest-sighted critic of German music that we possess, presents exactly the traits which we are accustomed to seek in critics of *belles-lettres*.

Here we have the insight, the discrimination, the caustic wit, the cool dissection of the subject, and the fervent opinion thereon. We listen to Bülow on Beethoven as we study Colenso on the Pentateuch. Perhaps one clearly understands Beethoven's sonatas only after hearing Bülow play his "Commentary on Beethoven." Bülow's life work has been of inestimable value to the student. Without him how dim would be our intelligence, how meager our culture! But his bitter gibes have scorched the freshness and spontaneity out of his pupils. Thanks to him, all Germany has turned critic, and it is idle to ask of critics the abandon, the naïve instinct for beauty or impersonation that still exist in non-Teutonic peoples. For these things we begin to look to nations who are romantic rather than sentimental. But if we do not insist on tone-color, or invention, or passion, we must demand that the critic have and express ideas upon his subject matter, and that his music be reasonable, coherent, intelligent, and limpidly clear. Criticism is not interpretation, and still less impersonation; but a music without its playing critics would be a music without a literature.

THE CONSTRUCTIVE ARTIST.

To the analysis of the critic let us oppose the constructive instinct of which Poe is the literary exponent. The artistic genus whose methods Poe discusses in the "Philosophy of Composition" numbers some of our most brilliant names in literature, music, painting, and acting. In exposing the processes by which he created "The Raven," "I prefer," said Poe, "to begin with an *effect*." Artists of this particular temperament may then be supposed to concern themselves with producing effects where others may seek to *reproduce* their ideas, opinions, or impressions. "The old masters," writes Hamerton, "troubled themselves very little about the nobility of their subject, but were generally careful to see that the material they painted would come as they wanted it, in form, color, light, and shade." He avers that the true artist is always calculating the effect of his work upon his public, and gives an account of the successive steps in which a picture is composed and painted. Now the materials of rhetoric in musical composition, and of declamation and elocution in audible music, may be combined and worked up just as Meissonier painted a picture. But if this, the normal instinct and method of the painter, is very strong in the musician, a pictorial quality appears in his work that is absent from the productions of other musical types. For many of the strongest musical instincts begin and end with the necessity for expression, and are careless of effect. These artists are unconscious of the details of their musical outpourings, and very often ignorant of the artistic laws which they fulfil. They share the instinct of song-birds. Some one asked Paderewski to write down the cadenza of his own minuet as he actually plays it, and it came out that he did not know how he did it himself. If you criticize such a musician, he says, "But I felt so." This is not the standpoint of the constructive artist. There are

musicians of whom you instinctively say that they "composed a tone-picture" or they "built a climax."

The finest representative of this school of pianists that we have heard on this side of the Atlantic is Eugen d'Albert. From first to last he is intent on crescendo, contrast, suspense, surprise, and climax. He plies his hearers with every variety of touch and technic, master of all. He subjects his musical matter to every mode of treatment. By turns picturesque, impetuous, caressing, awesome, and merry, he is unfailingly interesting. Mr. Richard Mansfield offers an example of the same instinct in dramatic art. He tells us that he concocted the entire play of "Beau Brummel" to bring out the scene where the Beau, poor and forgotten, talks to the phantoms of his old companions. He seized, not a passion, but a picturesque and pathetic situation. His transformation scene in "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde" is worked out on the same principles of suspense and climax that D'Albert applies to a similar musical situation. We all remember the Bach fugue which furnished to D'Albert the text of his magnificent illustration of a grand climax, and the series of neatly contrasted technical studies into which he resolved the Bach suite in D minor. These were not the opinions of the playing critic. They were effects — the brilliant result of a constructive process in which artistic instinct and intellectual effort acted together. Such art possesses a development and flavor altogether different from that of any other type. Its existence is legitimate, and its artists as versatile as they are enthusiastic and sincere. But it is impossible to estimate them by the same criterions that we apply to Chopin, who found the twilight of a boudoir more congenial than the glare of the footlights, and, as a concert player, failed with the public.

THE COMPOSER THAT ALSO PLAYS.

CHOPIN was a literary man, the idol of his friends, and worked comparatively unseen by his public. Just as Dickens and Cable have read their books better than anybody else can read them, so no one has ever played the music of Chopin as he played it. To Chopin music was a form of speech, the easiest way of expressing his feelings. His originality was unconscious and unpremeditated. In him appear musicianly qualities unknown to any of the types of music we have considered, but not less precious or effectual. Too refined and sensitive to be comprehended by the general public, those objective particulars which that public could grasp — his touch of velvet, his flexible rhythm, his treatment of passages and embellishments — generated a new school of music.

THE COLORIST.

JUST as painting numbers artists who are supremely great because of their love of color, in and for itself, so music possesses players whose love of beautiful tone is their guiding impulse. Mr. Joseffy, another instance of an artist who works independently of his public, both in ideal and in elaboration, is an example of this type. He is not always calculating the effect of his work upon his hearers, for in spite of his great popularity it is almost impossible for him to persuade himself to undertake a concert. Yet each reappearance brings the surprise of a new artistic departure, which, however, sacrifices no familiar charm. As a young artist, the exquisite grace and delicate beauty of his playing revolutionized the popular conception of piano-music throughout America. His was a revelation of what beautiful tone meant; it placed him among the great colorists just as emphatically as if he had rivaled Ziem's Venetian scenes.

Mr. Joseffy has offered us the pleasure (rare in our new world) of watching the lifelong development of an artist — a healthy growth in breadth and power, always harmonious with the sensitive feeling for beauty, especially beauty of tone, that is its generative impulse. It is curious that the same indifference to drawing that the genuine colorist exhibits in painting is paralleled by the disinclination for strongly marked phrasing and accent in his musical counterpart. De Pachmann is another instance in point. Art is a choice between opposing possibilities. It is obvious that the creations of a colorist will differ from those of a constructive artist from every standpoint of good criticism. The colorist will seldom sacrifice beauty of tone to effective accent. He will often prefer elegance to energy. His surprises will not be dramatic effects, but new discoveries of beauty. He charms where the composition and delivery of a constructive musician compel admiration. The history of the art of music proves that it sprang from more than one germ, and the question in hearing it should be, What is the player's instinct and aim? and then, Does he reach the aim? Is he true to the instinct?

THE IMPRESSIONIST.

TURNER was a genuine impressionist. This is the school that "seizes the most striking feature of its object, and seeks to reproduce that feature in the most vivid possible way" — the school which reproduces "not truths of fact, but truths of imagination."

We possess its entire parallel in music. Rubinstein is the prince of impressionists. He has gathered up in memory just such a treasury of natural sounds and motions as attracted Turner in color and form, and he uses them with similar genius and technic. It is a crudity to ask Rubinstein to be clear. We do not need to have him clear — we need to have him moving.

THE VIRTUOSO.

THE bravura player is a bird of another feather. Bravura is inseparable from virtuosity, by which musicians mean extraordinary technical skill, resource, and endurance. Bravura is the use of these abilities — first, to produce a grand artistic climax; second, on account of their value as gymnastic feats with which to delight the hearing and seeing audience.

The virtuoso is not to be reckoned with in matters of beauty, discrimination, or oratory. Not that he is necessarily indifferent to them, but his preparation is that of any other gymnast, and his standpoint the question of possibilities for flesh and blood. Bravura playing is often the first instinct of a genius that awakens later to higher aims. But it has its independent value. Without such men as Rosenthal, who in feats like the "Don Juan" fantasie are continually enlarging the limits of execution, piano-playing would come to a standstill. What Rosenthal does to-day, the world will do tomorrow. If we can brook no limit to our latent power, it is he and his rivals who make our impossible the world's actual. The art of painting possesses exactly the same phase of genius — men who bless difficulties

for the chance of overcoming them. The gymnastic feats of the acrobat on one hand, and the technical successes of pictures like Whistler's "White Lady" on the other, fairly represent the lowest and highest achievements of the bravura player.

THE DRAMATIC IDEALIST.

THERE is still another group of artists whose standpoint differs utterly from all those heretofore considered. For want of a better name, I am inclined to call them the "dramatic idealists," because they develop their artistic product from an inner ideal of human nature.

On the stage Jefferson and Modjeska are examples of two great artists who work from this same standpoint. Jefferson's definition of an actor is "a player who, *solus*, with neither scenery nor stage properties, is able to run through the gamut of human emotion, and never fail to touch a responsive chord in the audience," and such are those artists who, conscious of the power of music as a language, not only make it the vehicle for the utterance of their personal feelings, but are able to express in music that progress and play of emotions which we call mood. We see at a glance that here is something different in origin, aim, and use of material from any previous type.

The artistic material of such artists is less the dramatic situation than the character they impersonate. Jefferson *is Rip Van Winkle;* he does not play him. Paderewski has the same power. Their strongest appeal is to the imagination and feeling of their hearers. It is characteristic of the idealist that his appeal is at once noble and stimulating.

The exquisite ideal of womanly tenderness which Modjeska expresses when she, as *Portia*, abandoning all stage traditions, obeys the divine impulse of pity, steals toward *Shylock*, and gently touches his arm as she tells him "the quality of mercy is not strained," is a beautiful instance of dramatic idealism.

From the exercise of the same gift arose the touching scene in Carnegie Hall, when an audience, loath to leave their artist or to let him go, went away hushed and sorrowful from the presence of a man who had won them solely by the music of a piano.

The peculiarity and charm of this, perhaps the rarest, type of art, is that it sometimes seems to pass the borders of artistic production and to enter those of inspiration.

NATIONAL TEMPERAMENT.

THE artist who is able thus to impersonate a character, and to express its feelings, does so in the mold of his own nature and nationality. There is no more essential property of music than its national flavor. We demand this flavor in literature, as in the fine arts. We resent the cumbrous Germanism of a Scotch Carlyle. Although we go to Scotland with Sir Walter Scott, we do not ask Hawthorne to become an Italian in Rome. We expect to see every school of painting embody its highest ideals in its national type of feature. Rubens, Da Vinci, Bonnat, and Munkaczy have respectively produced a Dutch, Italian, French, and Hungarian Christus. We would not dream of demanding a denationalized Christus. It would be weak. Ristori, Janauschek, and Modjeska have played the same character —*Maria Stuart*. The national temperament of each of these great artists was perfectly obvious in her conception.

And so must be the nationality of the pianist. The greatest artist is he who, like Liszt, uses his national instinct to the highest artistic purpose. Paderewski gives us a Polish Chopin. Some of us enjoy it because the Polish temperament, especially in its romantic quality, is strongly akin to the American. But next week comes De Pachmann, who offers Chopin the Frenchman. Let us who prefer Chopin the Pole remember that to a musician of Parisian instincts De Pachmann's Chopin is the speaking truth of nation and taste. If we do not find it true, may it not be because we are not in sympathy with French character? We hear a dozen Teutonic pianists play Beethoven with the utmost breadth of tone and grandeur of crescendo. Two others of different nationality and temperament follow. The one offers us a Beethoven of physical beauty and grace, the other of chivalrous feeling and action. Now and then appears a philosopher, a poet, a musician whose philosophy is broad enough, whose sympathies are strong enough, whose utterance is direct enough, to make him the mouthpiece of the world. Such were Shakspere and Beethoven. Even Schiller in *Maria Stuart* created a world's type of suffering. Dare we affirm that a symmetrical and consistent art creation falls below our standard because it shows how a French, Italian, Russian, or Polish temperament deals with the chain of moods which forms the dramatic material of a sonata?

How inartistic would be a *Macbeth* played with the Scotch bur proper to the smaller art form of the *Man o' Airlie!* The larger the artistic creation, the less essential are its outside details, and the more easily it runs in the mold of any and every nation, and rises from the particular instance to the universal type.

ARTISTIC SCHOOL AND PERSONALITY.

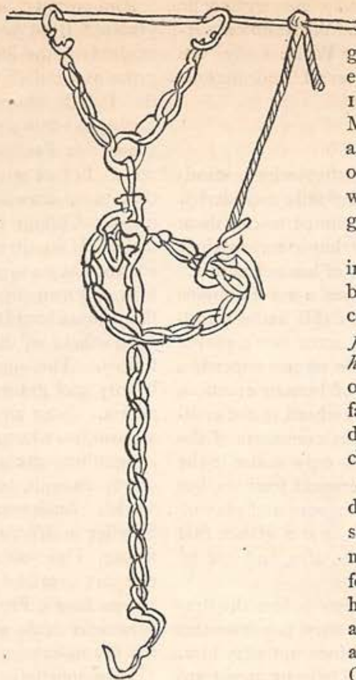
IF we take into account the artistic value of a musician's nationality, we must also recognize that of master and school. If Union Seminary or Princeton sets her mark on a theologian; if Paris, Munich, or Spain effectually qualifies a painter's method and ideal, so Paris, Berlin, or Vienna alters the development of the growing pianist. A pupil of Liszt, Kullak, or Leschetizky cannot be mistaken. Moreover, the culture, the nature, the social habit of the artist, must be considered. These will not counteract his genius, but they will work conclusively upon his taste, his sense of propriety, and upon the moods of which he is able to form a conception. They will largely go to make the personal quality which is the crowning charm of all artistic work.

Fanny Morris Smith.

Columbus Relics — The Question of Genuineness.

IN this year, when all the world is concurring to celebrate adequately the memory of Columbus, everything bearing upon him is of interest. We hear therefore on all sides of biographies that have appeared or are about to appear, of fêtes to be held in his honor, of relics pertaining to the great explorer. Of these relics a great number are to be lent by the various owners to the Exposition of Chicago, to be publicly exhibited in the section devoted to Columbian memorials. It is much to be hoped that all such mementos may prove really genuine, that no frauds, conscious

or unconscious, be committed upon the good faith of the public. That there exists great danger in this respect is beyond question.



THE SO-CALLED COLUMBUS FETTERS.

We learn that Don Cesareo Fernandez Duro, captain of the Spanish Navy, announces that there has been consigned for the purpose of exhibition, to Mr. Robert Stritter, the sword said to have been unsheathed by the great Genoese at the taking of Guanahani, and which is now in the possession of the Museum of Salzburg. Speaking of this relic, truly precious if genuine, the same gentleman declares that there are those who boast of having found the fetters and manacles with which Bobadilla tortured the navigator. Is it possible that we are really dealing here with those chains which Columbus desired should never leave him, as a sort of *memento mori*, and which, it is asserted, he willed should be buried with him?

Let us examine the matter a little in detail, availing ourselves for that purpose of an erudite and searching article published by Fernandez Duro in the "Ilustracion Española y Americana" of February 22, 1892, as well as of the biography of Columbus written by Justin Winsor, and thus try to solve the probabilities regarding the genuineness of these fetters.

Signor Michelangiolo Maria Mizzi of Malta has published a pamphlet in which he narrates that the chains of the admiral are at present in the possession of Signor Giuseppe Baldi of Genoa, who guards them jealously in his house, together with other memorials of his great fellow-townsman. The fetters are preserved in a magnificent casket inlaid with ivory and ebony and lined throughout with white and red satin; they weigh about seven English pounds, and can be detached into separate pieces for the hands, legs, and waist. The writer of this pamphlet declares that the authenticity of these fetters has been attested by expert and learned antiquarians and archæologists, whose names, however, he omits to mention, and that on the two manacles and on a ring-belt are to be read three inscriptions, of which we give facsimiles. These inscriptions are cryptogramic, composed of abbreviations and designs which reduce themselves into three rebuses. The author avers — the burden of the proof lies with him — that it was needful to have recourse to this method in order to gain space, and that, moreover, this strange system was the one commonly adopted in the fifteenth century for writing inscriptions. In order to avoid mistakes, let us give the Spanish reading of the hieroglyphics.

"La flecha de la calumnia diò estos yerros a Don Cristobal Colón paloma de la buena nueva, ciudadano de Genova muerto en mi casa posada Valladolid," of which the English version runs: "The arrow of calumny gave these irons to Cristobal Colon, dove [*i. e.*, messenger] of the good tidings, citizen of Genoa, who died in my house in Valladolid." On the second manacle: "Mayo quinientos seis en la paz de Cristo F.co. M.ro hizo grabar en secreto este recuerdo in eterno." In English: "In May, 1506, in the peace of our Lord, F.co M.ro secretly ordered this engraving as a remembrance forever." On one of the rings of the belt is the well-known signature of the navigator, and the date 1499.

Now we must bear in mind that in old Castilian, as it was employed before the fifteenth century, the word corresponding to iron was written *ferro*, later it assumed the form *hierro*, but never was it written, as on the pretended relic, *yerro*. This fault in orthography casts the first doubt on the authenticity of the chains.

The host of Columbus at Valladolid has not thought proper to inscribe his own name, but has remained satisfied with his initials followed by the last syllable of his cognomen. This circumstance arouses suspicion. Messrs. Mizzi and Baldi say that the chains of Columbus resemble those which the angels, according to the legend, loosened from the apostle St. Peter, and which are adored to this day by the faithful in the church of St. Pietro in Vincoli at Rome, but, as Fernandez Duro justly observes, the reputed chains of the saint are not of the same model as those in use since time immemorial in Spain for the securing of prisoners. Here we are face to face with the third argument in favor of our theory, which doubts the genuineness of these pretended relics.

INSCRIPTIONS ON FETTERS AND BELT.

It now behooves us to see how far the carefully pondered facts put forward by Justin Winsor support or destroy our arguments. Winsor narrates that when Bobadilla sent to St. Domingo to recall Columbus, who was at Concepcion, the 23d of August, 1500, the admiral obeyed the summons. He was then arrested at Bobadilla's orders, laid in chains, and imprisoned in a tower, which is still to be seen in the southeastern portion of the city. Las Casas in his history tells us that Espinosa, the cook of Columbus, was the person chosen to rivet the fetters. Now Las Casas knew Espinosa personally, and is a trustworthy witness. The act of riveting (in Spanish *remachar*) does not fitly describe chains such as those possessed by Baldi, and illustrated by Mizzi.

It is well known that in the life of the admiral attributed to Don Fernando Colon, his natural son, are to be read the following words, which for the sake of brevity we translate into English from the Italian text of the first edition, which was published to the world in the city of Venice in the year 1571:

> The admiral had decided to keep these fetters as relics and memorials of the first of his many good services, and this he did, for I always saw in his room those irons, which he willed to be buried with his bones.

Now the supposed host of Columbus, if we are to accept the testimony of these inscriptions, was a certain Francisco Mesonero, *anglicè*, Francis the innkeeper. But when Columbus died on May 20, 1506, in the house marked as Number 7 in the Calle de Colon in Valladolid, a house still extant, he could not have been lodged in a hotel, but in a private residence, and therefore there could be no question of an innkeeper. And this because one of the provisions of the most Catholic King in favor of his good servant Christopher Columbus was that each and every time that the admiral viceroy should remove himself from one city to another he should not only be lodged at the public expense but recommended to the care of the notables of the city, and that no such host was to permit himself to be paid even a farthing by this great man under penalty of a fine of the heavy sum of 2000 maravedis. Further, the royal decrees bearing the dates May 24, 1493 Barcelona, and that of April 23, 1497, Burgos, declare that to the admiral and his suite should be given over gratuitously the best houses, such as are not *mesoners*— that is to say, inns. Consequently, Columbus could not have died in an inn, but in a private house.

Let us proceed yet further. The last will and testament of Columbus is very diffuse and detailed, and that there is no doubt as to its authenticity is well ascertained. A great part of it is occupied with the question of his rights, and he complains bitterly regarding the ill treatment he had received. Of the chains there is not one word. Now, is it likely that the heir of the great admiral, Don Diego Colombus, should not have religiously preserved these chains, which would have served as such sentimental arguments in order to continue the famous lawsuit of the Columbus family against the crown of Spain? And even if Don Diego should not have so done, Don Fernando, who had the custody of his father's papers and books, and who founded the Columbian library of Seville, is certain to have preserved them. Hence, either Fernando Colombus is the author of the life of his father, known under the name of "Historie," or he is not. If he is, he must have felt an interest in these chains, which the writer of this biography asserts that he saw, as mentioned in the quotation already given.

In 1509 the body of Christopher Columbus was disinterred at Valladolid, where it had until then rested, and was transported to the Certosa Convent of Seville, called Las Cuevas. Although the body was identified, the fetters were nowhere to be found in the coffin, and they were diligently sought for, since legend had already promulgated the tale that such fetters would be discovered together with the body of Columbus, rumor having it that these famous chains had been buried with his bones. It is, therefore, more than probable that the chains, if they were so buried, had vanished long before the removal of the body, and hence Messrs. Mizzi and Baldi must be deceived as to the authenticity of the relics which the one owns and the other writes about, for we hesitate to believe that they can voluntarily be palming off a fraud upon the public.

It is notorious to all who collect antiquities how easy it is to falsify objects made, for example, in iron. It is an art which in Florence is practised with an ability such as to deceive every one who is not a thorough expert. May it not, therefore, well have happened that some such skilful forger of things ancient played the part of deceiver to Signor Giuseppe Baldi? And is not this theory all the more probable when we add that no traces of the chains were found in the coffin of Columbus on the two subsequent translocations of the admiral's body, when it was taken to the cathedral of San Domingo, and, afterward, when it was removed to Havana?

Here, too, is what Justin Winsor says concerning the chains:

> It is the statement of the "Historie" that Columbus preserved the chains in which he had come home from his third voyage, and that he had them buried with him, or intended to do so. The story is often repeated, but it has no other authority than the somewhat dubious one of that book, and it finds no confirmation in Las Casas, Peter Martyr, Bernaldez, or Oviedo. Humboldt says that he made subtle inquiry of those who assisted at the reinterment at Havana, if there were any traces of these fetters or oxide of iron in the coffin. In the account of the recent discovery of remains at Santo Domingo it is said that there are equally no traces of fetters in the casket.

The question as to the authenticity of these chains, which it is proposed to exhibit at Chicago, may therefore be considered to be solved. And what about the sword? Is not that also an antiquary's fraud? Surely this too would have remained in the hands of Don Diego Colombus, and at his death have passed to the heir, Don Luis Colombus, with whom ended the direct male line of the admiral. Would the son who so carefully preserved all documents bearing on his father have parted with his sword? There cannot even be put forward the plea of poverty to justify such an action. Don Diego made a great marriage: he wedded Maria de Toledo, niece of the Duke of Alba, and hence became cousin to King Ferdinand V. It might, of course, be that Don Diego bestowed the paternal sword upon the royal family, from whose hands it passed into those of Charles V., who may have carried it to Salzburg; but these are mere conjectures, and in a question of such value conjectures do not suffice, and definite proofs are required. It is much to be desired and hoped that this question as to the authenticity of the sword may also

be thoroughly sifted, so that America may not incur the reproach of exhibiting to the crowds that will rush to Chicago relics which are worthy to be classed only with the wooden nutmegs of evil repute.

X. Y. Z.

The First Account of the Grand Falls of Labrador.

THE pleasure of reading Mr. Henry G. Bryant's interesting article on the Labrador Falls, which appeared in THE CENTURY for September, is, I think, somewhat marred by reason of the very brief reference made by Mr. Bryant to the circumstances of the discovery of the falls, and the impression thereby conveyed to the public that there is no record of McLean's visit to the falls, except the traditionary story known to the Hudson's Bay Company; whereas the discoverer, John McLean (not McLane), in his book entitled "Notes of a Twenty-five Years' Service in the Hudson's Bay Territory," gives the following description of the scene as it appeared to him when he first saw the locality in August, 1839:

About six miles above the falls the river suddenly contracts from a width of from four hundred to six hundred yards, to about one hundred yards, then, rushing along in a continuous foaming rapid, finally contracts to a breadth of about fifty yards ere it precipitates itself over the rock which forms the fall, when still roaring and foaming it continues its maddened course for about a distance of thirty miles, pent up between walls of rock that sometimes rise to the height of three hundred feet on either side. This stupendous fall exceeds in height the Falls of Niagara, but bears no comparison to that sublime object in any other respect, being nearly hidden from the view by the abrupt angle which the rocks form immediately beneath it. If not seen, however, it is felt. Such is the extraordinary force with which it tumbles into the abyss beneath that we felt the solid rock shake under our feet, as we stood two hundred feet above the gulf. A dense cloud of vapour, which can be seen at a great distance in clear weather, hangs over the spot. From the fall to the foot of the rapid, a distance of about thirty miles, the zigzag course of the river presents such sharp angles that you see nothing of it until within a few yards of its banks. Might not this circumstance lead the geologist to the conclusion that the fall had receded this distance? The mind shrinks from the contemplation of a subject that carries it back to a period of time so remote; for if the rock (syenite) always possessed its present solidity and hardness, the action of the water alone might require millions of years to produce such a result.

Thus it will be seen that we have reliable information regarding McLean's discovery, not mere tradition.

A. H. Whitcher.

William Thorne.

PERHAPS the one great advantage which the Académie Julian possesses over its rival, the Beaux Arts, is its eclecticism, although that eclecticism is possibly not complete, for impressionism as exemplified in the work of Monet would hardly find favor with the Julian professors. What I mean is, that while the traditions of the Académie are nobly upheld by Le Febvre and Laurens, the modern spirit in art is fairly well represented by Doucet. It is but natural, however, that an earnest and conscientious student, venerating, as he must, the skill and knowledge of Le Febvre and Laurens, should be disposed to yield to their overmastering influence, much as he may be attracted by the light and joyousness of the modern movement. It is as well that it should be so, for there are few greater masters of the human form than they, certainly no better workmen; and I have little faith in the originality or individuality of the artist under thirty. The history of art teaches that style and individuality are the ripe fruit of years of following a stronger and more "knowledgeable" master or masters.

In Mr. Thorne's "Purity," printed on page 560, one sees an honest following of the traditions of the Académie, together with a reaching out toward the more modern. The picture has much of the quality of Le Febvre, much of his excellent drawing and workman-like putting on of paint; it shows also that impulse toward tenderness, sentiment, and light which is affecting all the younger painters.

Mr. Thorne has but lately returned from Paris, where he has studied since 1889 in the Julian school under Le Febvre, Constant, Doucet, and Laurens. He won an honorable mention at the Salon of 1891, and was an exhibitor in the Champs Elysées Salon in 1890. He was born in Delavan, Wisconsin, in 1863. His first instruction in art was at the National Academy of Design in New York, where he received a first medal for drawing.

W. Lewis Fraser.

Abraham Lincoln's Last Hours.

FROM THE NOTE-BOOK OF AN ARMY SURGEON PRESENT AT THE ASSASSINATION, DEATH, AND AUTOPSY.

THE notes from which this article is written were made the day succeeding Mr. Lincoln's death, and immediately after the official examination of the body. They were made, by direction of Secretary Stanton, for the purpose of preserving an official account of the circumstances attending the assassination, in connection with the medical aspects of the case.

On the fourth anniversary of the fall of Fort Sumter, the beloved President, his great heart filled with peaceful thoughts and charity for all, entered Ford's Theater amid the acclamations of the loyal multitude assembled to greet him. Mr. Lincoln sat in a high-backed upholstered chair in the corner of his box nearest the audience, and only his left profile was visible to most of the audience; but from where I sat, almost under the box, in the front row of orchestra chairs, I could see him plainly. Mrs. Lincoln rested her hand on his knee much of the time, and often called his attention to some humorous situation on the stage. She seemed to take great pleasure in witnessing his enjoyment.

All went on pleasantly until half-past ten o'clock, when, during the second scene of the third act, the sharp report of a pistol rang through the house. The report seemed to proceed from behind the scenes on the right of the stage, and behind the President's box. While it startled every one in the audience, it was evidently accepted by all as an introductory effect preceding some new situation in the play, several of which had been introduced in the earlier part of the performance. A moment afterward a hatless and white-faced man leaped from the front of the President's box down, twelve feet, to the stage. As he jumped, one of the spurs on his riding-boots caught in the folds of the flag draped over the front, and caused him to fall partly on his hands and knees as he struck the stage. Springing quickly to his feet with the suppleness of an athlete, he faced the audience for a moment as he brandished in his right hand a long knife, and shouted,

"*Sic semper tyrannis!*" Then, with a rapid stage stride, he crossed the stage, and disappeared from view. A piercing shriek from the President's box, a repeated call for "Water! water!" and "A surgeon!" in quick succession, conveyed the truth to the almost paralyzed audience. A most terrible scene of excitement followed. With loud shouts of "Kill him!" "Lynch him!" part of the audience stampeded toward the entrance and some to the stage.

I leaped from the top of the orchestra railing in front of me upon the stage, and, announcing myself as an army surgeon, was immediately lifted up to the President's box by several gentlemen who had collected beneath. I happened to be in uniform, having passed the entire day in attending to my duties at the Signal Camp of Instruction in Georgetown, and not having had an opportunity to change my dress. The cape of a military overcoat fastened around my neck became detached in clambering into the box, and fell upon the stage. It was taken to police headquarters, together with the assassin's cap, spur, and derringer, which had also been picked up, under the supposition that it belonged to him. It was recovered, weeks afterward, with much difficulty.

When I entered the box, the President was lying upon the floor surrounded by his wailing wife and several gentlemen who had entered from the private stairway and dress-circle. Assistant Surgeon Charles A. Leale, U. S. V., was in the box, and had caused the coat and waistcoat to be cut off in searching for the wound. Dr. A. F. A. King of Washington was also present, and assisted in the examination. The carriage had been ordered to remove the President to the White House, but the surgeons countermanded the order, and he was removed to a bed in a house opposite the theater. The wound in the head had been found before leaving the box, but at that time there was no blood oozing from it. When the dying President was laid upon the bed in a small but neatly furnished room opposite the theater, it was found necessary to arrange his great length diagonally upon it. The room having become speedily filled to suffocation, the officer in command of the provost guard at the theater was directed to clear it of all except the surgeons. This officer guarded the door until relieved later in the evening by General M. C. Meigs, who took charge of it the rest of the night, by direction of Mr. Stanton.

A hospital steward from Lincoln Hospital did efficient service in speedily procuring the stimulants and sinapisms ordered. The wound was then examined. A tablespoonful of diluted brandy was placed between the President's lips, but it was swallowed with much difficulty. The respiration now became labored; pulse 44, feeble; the left pupil much contracted, the right widely dilated; total insensibility to light in both. Mr. Lincoln was divested of all clothing, and mustard-plasters were placed on every inch of the anterior surface of the body from the neck to the toes. At this time the President's eyes were closed, and the lids and surrounding parts so injected with blood as to present the appearance of having been bruised. He was totally unconscious, and was breathing regularly but heavily, an occasional sigh escaping with the breath. There was scarcely a dry eye in the room, and it was the saddest and most pathetic death-bed scene I ever witnessed. Captain Robert Lincoln, of General Grant's staff, entered the room and stood at the headboard, leaning over his dying father. At first his terrible grief overpowered him, but, soon recovering himself, he leaned his head on the shoulder of Senator Charles Sumner, and remained in silent grief during the long, terrible night.

About twenty-five minutes after the President was laid upon the bed, Surgeon-General Barnes and Dr. Robert King Stone, the family physician, arrived and took charge of the case. It was owing to Dr. Leale's quick judgment in instantly placing the almost moribund President in a recumbent position the moment he saw him in the box, that Mr. Lincoln did not expire in the theater within ten minutes from fatal syncope. At Dr. Stone's suggestion, I placed another teaspoonful of diluted brandy between the President's lips, to determine whether it could be swallowed; but as it was not, no further attempt was made.

Some difference of opinion existed as to the exact position of the ball, but the autopsy confirmed the correctness of the diagnosis upon first exploration. No further attempt was made to explore the wound. The injury was pronounced mortal. After the cessation of the bleeding, the respiration was stertorous up to the last breath, which was drawn at twenty-one minutes and fifty-five seconds past seven; the heart did not cease to beat until twenty-two minutes and ten seconds after seven. My hand was upon the President's heart, and my eye on the watch of the surgeon-general, who was standing by my side, with his finger upon the carotid. The respiration during the last thirty minutes was characterized by occasional intermissions; no respiration being made for nearly a minute, but by a convulsive effort air would gain admission to the lungs, when regular, though stertorous, respiration would go on for some seconds, followed by another period of perfect repose. The cabinet ministers and others were surrounding the death-bed, watching with suspended breath the last feeble inspiration; and as the unbroken quiet would seem to prove that life had fled, they would turn their eyes to their watches; then, as the struggling life within would force another fluttering respiration, they would heave deep sighs of relief, and fix their eyes once more upon the face of their chief.

The vitality exhibited by Mr. Lincoln was remarkable. It was the opinion of the surgeons in attendance that most patients would have died within two hours from the reception of such an injury; yet Mr. Lincoln lingered from 10:30 P. M. until 7:22 A. M.

Mrs. Lincoln (with Miss Harris, who was one of the theater party, a few other ladies, and the Rev. Dr. Gurley, Mrs. Lincoln's pastor) remained during the night in the front parlor of the house, occasionally visiting her dying husband. Whenever she sat down at the bedside, clean napkins were laid over the crimson stains on the pillow. Her last visit was most painful. As she entered the chamber and saw how the beloved features were distorted, she fell fainting to the floor. Restoratives were applied, and she was supported to the bedside, where she frantically addressed the dying man. "Love," she exclaimed, "live but for one moment to speak to me once — to speak to our children!"

When it was announced that the great heart had ceased to beat, Mr. Stanton said in solemn tones, "He now belongs to the Ages." Shortly after death, finding that the eyes were not entirely closed, one of the

young surgeons reverently placed silver half-dollars upon them. The lower jaw fell slightly, and one of the medical men bound it up with his handkerchief. Secretary Stanton pulled down the window-shades, a guard was stationed outside the door, and the martyred President was left alone.

Immediately after death, the Rev. Dr. Gurley made a fervent prayer, inaudible, at times, from the sobs of those present. As the surgeons left the house, the clergyman was again praying in the front parlor. Poor Mrs. Lincoln's moans, which came through the half-open door, were distressing to hear. She was supported by her son Robert, and was soon after taken to her carriage. As she reached the front door she glanced at the theater opposite, and exclaimed several times, "Oh, that dreadful house! that dreadful house!"

Shortly after her departure, the body of the late President, surrounded by a guard of soldiers, was removed to the White House. A dismal rain was falling on a dense mass of horror-stricken people stretching from F street to Pennsylvania Avenue. As they made a passage for the hearse bearing the beloved dead, terrible execrations and mutterings were heard. A disparaging reference to the dead President was punished by instant death. One man who ventured a shout for Jeff. Davis was set upon and nearly torn to pieces by the infuriated crowd.

During the post-mortem examination Mrs. Lincoln sent in a messenger with a request for a lock of hair. Dr. Stone clipped one from the region of the wound, and sent it to her. I extended my hand to him in mute appeal, and received a lock stained with blood, and other surgeons present also received one.

It was my good fortune during the early part of the war to become acquainted with Mr. Lincoln. Busy as he was,—weary as he was,—with a burden of care and anxiety resting upon him such as no other President, before or since, has ever borne, he yet found time to visit the army hospitals. He came several times to the Church Hospital on H street, of which I had charge. He was always accompanied by Mrs. Lincoln. While she was distributing the flowers she had brought, Mr. Lincoln would accompany me on a tour of the ward. The convalescents stood "at attention" by their cots. He asked the name of every soldier, his State and regiment, and had a kindly and encouraging word for each one. If he came to a soldier who was above the average height, he would laughingly ask him to measure heights, back to back. He never found one there who overtopped him. Mrs. Lincoln always brought, in addition to a quantity of flowers from the White House conservatory, bottles of wine and jellies. She was a kind-hearted and sympathetic woman, and a devoted wife and mother. A gold-and-onyx initial sleeve-button that I took out of Mr. Lincoln's cuff when his shirt was hastily removed in searching for the wound, was subsequently presented to me by Mrs. Lincoln, and is still in my possession.

Charles Sabin Taft, M. D.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

The General Opinion.

A NUMBER of men were lounging in the "Seminole Land Exchange Office," when Mr. Ferris and Colonel Morris came in. Mr. Ferris was from the North, and had been out with Colonel Morris to look at land. The two gentlemen seated themselves.

"Mr. Ferris 's been a-speaking to me about tarantulas," said Colonel Morris, with a smile. "He 's heard that tarantulas are the chief product of this part of the country; that there 's more deaths by being bit with 'em than from all kinds of sickness. And"—here the Colonel made an impressive pause, and looked up toward the ceiling—"I 've been telling him that I never have known a single case where a tarantula-bite caused death. And"—here another pause—"I don't believe one of you gentlemen, who have lived here all your lives, can name an instance. You never knew of one, did you, Mr. Creeny?"

"Well, no, I can't say as ever I saw a person *die* of a tarantula-bite," responded Mr. Creeny; "but there was my wife's brother, he was a land surveyor; when he was laying out the northern part of this town he got bit, and spite of everything he died. You must have heard of it, Colonel, at the time. 'T was some six years ago. They tried whisky and all kinds of remedies, but he died."

"Oh, well—one case, you see, in six years. Nothing more than might happen anywhere. He might have been killed some other way. There 's just how little there is to such stories. I don't suppose there 's been any other case like that in this county," said the Colonel, with a triumphant look at Mr. Ferris.

"There was my niece's youngest child," ventured an elderly man who was sitting near the door; "he was out playing round the dooryard one day last spring, and one of the pesky critters bit him; and he died 'fore we really sensed what was the matter. The doctor said, soon as he got there, that there wa'n't no use trying to do anything; that 't was a tarantula-bite."

"Well, yes, an occasional case like that, you see; and after all, it might not have been a tarantula," said the Colonel, hopefully. "Now, you see, only two cases, and one of them doubtful. You ne'er had any trouble from 'em, did you, Dunbar?"

"No," responded Mr. Dunbar—"no; we never 've

thus raised in the cities would become national?" persisted the carpenter. "Is not the nationalization of certain industries—railroads, telegraphs, telephones, mines, and so forth (those which, according to your own definition, are natural monopolies)—quite likely to be the burning question before many years? Is not this question of the extent to which industries can be profitably nationalized the one which this country has got to face pretty soon? Do we not find in the nation as well as in the city the necessity of drawing the line between State action and private enterprise? Might we not have two national parties, divided by this line, whose discussions and contests would have tenfold more significance than those of the existing political parties? And is it not possible that the municipal parties whose advent Judge Hamlin predicts will gradually become national parties, swallowing up 'the ancient forms of party strife,' and leading in the issues of a new political dispensation?"

"It is not only possible, my friend," replied the judge, rising and taking the carpenter by the hand, "it is in every way desirable. I hope that you and I will both live long enough to see your prophecy fulfilled."

Washington Gladden.

THE END.

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

How Can We Secure Better United States Senators?

THE need of some change in the method of electing members of the United States Senate has been attracting steadily increasing attention for many years. So long ago as 1875 the State of Nebraska recognized it formally by incorporating in its constitution a provision allowing electors, while voting for members of the legislature, to "express by ballot their preference for some person for the office of United States Senator." In 1881 a joint resolution was introduced in Congress for an amendment to the Federal Constitution, removing the power to choose senators from the legislatures and providing for their election by popular vote. In 1890 the Democrats of Illinois, at their State convention, nominated General John M. Palmer as their candidate for United States Senator, and put a plank in their platform declaring in favor of the "election of United States Senators by direct vote of the people." They made their campaign with General Palmer on the stump in advocacy of his own election, and he was subsequently chosen by the legislature. In the election of November, 1892, the voters of California were invited by the legislature to give at the polls an expression of their opinion upon the question of electing senators by popular vote, and they responded by a verdict of twelve to one in favor of the proposition.

These are a few of the more notable indications that the public mind is interested in this question, and that there is wide-spread dissatisfaction with the results of the present system. It no longer works to produce a body which is at once a conserving and strengthening force in our system of government, as was the case for fifty years and more after its adoption. As is well known to students of political history, the system as adopted by the convention which framed the Constitution was the outcome of long discussion and compromise, and was entirely different from any of the several plans for the composition of the Senate that were originally proposed, one of which was election by popular vote. The convention drifted into the plan finally agreed upon, and was forced to adopt it by the stubborn refusal of the smaller States to accept anything less than equal representation, though the larger States fought hard and long for proportional representation. The smaller States feared that with anything less than equal representation they would be overborne by the larger States. In practice this equal representation has in notable instances worked against the public good. It was a powerful barrier for many years against the antislavery agitation, helping the Southern States to maintain their institution many years longer than would otherwise have been possible. In more recent times it has enabled the new States of the Northwest to commit the Senate to the most dangerous forms of free-silver coinage legislation.

No plan for a change in the election of senators can succeed, however, which does not preserve this equal representation. The smaller States will never consent to any diminution of their power, and as such diminution could be brought about only by a constitutional amendment, for the adoption of which a vote of three fourths of all the States would be necessary, they could defeat it easily. There were grave doubts in many minds whether three fourths of the States could be induced to consent to an amendment changing the election from the legislatures to the people, but these were removed by the action of the last House of Representatives in passing, without a dissenting vote, a joint resolution for an amendment to the Constitution providing for the popular election of senators. This showed that the popular sentiment of the country is strongly in favor of the change,—so strongly, in fact, that the Senate must yield to it at an early day.

But there are other ways of giving the people a voice in the election which can be put in operation without a constitutional amendment. The Illinois Democrats have set the example by introducing the custom of nominating candidates by State conventions. Of course there is nothing more binding than party practice in this method, but it would soon become an established rule, and would, by a few years' usage, acquire the force of law. No political party which had made a campaign for a particular candidate would venture to throw him over and elect another one when the legislature met. The plan was really originated in Illinois in the famous Lincoln-Douglas campaign of 1858. The country owes to that famous campaign the development of Lincoln into a statesman of national proportions. Surely a system that could call into the political

field men of his type would be a boon to the country, were it to be adopted in every State in the Union.

Another plan, which was proposed by Mr. Wendell P. Garrison in "The Atlantic Monthly" for August, 1891, is for the States to give to their voters the power of nominating, at the proper general election, candidates for the approaching senatorial vacancy. These nominations should be made under the provisions of the ballot-reform laws permitting nominations by petitions. The names of candidates thus nominated should be printed on the official ballots, and each voter could check the one of his choice. From the five or ten candidates receiving the highest popular vote the legislature should make its choice.

Either one of these plans would give the people a voice in the election, which would be certain to raise the general character of the candidates. That improvement is needed, no one can deny. The genuine statesmen of the Senate—all honor to them and to the States that have honored themselves in sending them — are in a conspicuous minority. The character of the Senate has been deteriorating steadily for many years, until it has become too much like "a rich man's club" with a sprinkling of political bosses among its membership. Instead of being the superior of the House intellectually, and a bulwark of conservatism and wisdom against hasty, ill-considered and ignorant legislation, the contrary is more often the case. It has happened many times in recent years that the House has acted as the bulwark against assaults that the Senate has made upon the national stability and welfare. The reasons for the deterioration in the Senate are easy of discovery. Rich men and political bosses have together concocted a system by which the virtual purchase or capture of a seat in the Senate is as certain as it is simple. They go together to the very foundations of the nominating and electing system of government, and poison it at its source. They go into primaries which are to nominate members of the legislature, pledge their men in advance of their nominations, buy them by promising to pay all their campaign and election expenses, often to pay their debts or mortgages as well, and when the legislature with these men composing it comes together, there is nothing to do but to complete the bargain. In this way it has come about that more than one great State is represented in the Senate by men whose wealth is their sole qualification for the place; that other great States are represented by men who are not only merely rich men, but are corrupt political bosses as well; that still other great States are represented by men whose sole distinction is their skill in political trickery, and who have elected themselves through their control over their own political machines. Many of these men would have been impossible candidates for the Senate twenty-five years ago, and would be impossible candidates now if they were obliged to go before the people for election. They succeed because the forces which work for their election are moved in secret, and because their candidacy is not announced to the public till the election has been made certain. The people have lost all voice in their selection.

This corrupting of the primaries and nominating conventions in the interest of a purchased or machine-controlled seat in the Senate has been one of the chief causes for the deterioration of our State legislatures, for it follows inevitably that a man who will sell his vote for senator, directly or indirectly, is not a fit person to be a legislator. It has come about, therefore, that the degradation in the character of the Senate has been accompanied by a corresponding degradation in that of our State legislatures. Both have passed out of the hands of the people into those of the machines and the rich men who buy offices of them, and both can be redeemed and brought back to their old estate of honor and usefulness in no way so surely as by restoring to the people the power which has been stolen away from them.

Direct Presidential Voting.

No one can examine the working of our antiquated and defective electoral-college system in the last presidential election without becoming convinced that we ought not to incur the risk of holding another national election under it. In an article upon "Presidential Voting Methods," published in this department of THE CENTURY for October, 1891, we pointed out many of the defects and dangerous possibilities which exist in the electoral-college plan, and urged the need of reform at an early day. It is not necessary to our present purpose to recall the arguments advanced at that time. All that we said about the defects of the law, and the dangers of conducting our most important election under a system which has outlived its time and in no wise fulfils the function for which it was created, has been more than justified by our latest experiment with it. Had the election been a close one, the decision resting upon a few electors in a single State, there would have been great confusion, a most dangerous condition of political excitement, and the probability of an outcome which would have been a perversion of the popular will.

There were mistakes of various kinds in many States, but in two they assumed large dimensions. In Ohio, owing to confusion which had been caused by an amendment to the new Australian-ballot law, which introduced a change in the manner of marking the ballots, one Cleveland elector, whose name stood at the head of the Democratic list, received a majority of the votes, while his twenty-two associates failed to do so. There was a difference of only a few hundred votes between his total and that of his associates, but it was enough to give Mr. Harrison twenty-two of the State's electoral votes and Mr. Cleveland only one. There was no doubt that the intention of the voters who gave the first Cleveland elector a majority was to give the entire electoral ticket their support; but their intent could not be considered in the count. In California, a similar result was obtained in another way. Owing to the unpopularity of one Cleveland elector and the unusual popularity of one Harrison elector, the State's electoral vote was divided, eight going to Mr. Cleveland and one to Mr. Harrison. There was another division in North Dakota on similar grounds, by which the State's three electoral votes were distributed among Cleveland, Harrison, and Weaver.

In all these cases the division would not have been made had the voting been direct for the presidential candidates. The Ohio voters would not have made their blunder had they been called upon to mark the names of presidential candidates rather than those of a list of electors. The California proceeding, which

is repeated in greater or less degree in nearly every State, was due entirely to the electoral-college system, and is one of its most curious products. Why a voter should allow himself to be cheated of his purpose to vote for the presidential candidate of his choice simply because he has a personal dislike for an elector who has merely a perfunctory duty to perform in the machinery of election, is a mystery. Yet in every election the names of electors on both tickets are "scratched" by hundreds and sometimes thousands of voters. In 1880 California divided her electoral vote as she did in 1892, giving one vote to Garfield and the others to Hancock. Personal feeling toward individual electors was the cause in both cases. In New York State, in 1892, Richard Croker, the boss of Tammany Hall, received a smaller number of votes as elector than any other man on the Cleveland electoral ticket. This was obviously due to dislike of Tammany Hall, without regard to the merits of presidential candidates. The North Dakota division was due to an error in the final count that was not rectified till after the result had been officially proclaimed by the governor, and could not be altered.

All these and kindred mistakes are due to the use of a system which is made to fulfil another purpose than that for which it was originally designed. When the electoral college was devised, it was for the purpose of having its members exercise individual choice in the election of President and Vice-President. They have long since ceased to do this. Political usage has so changed their function that if one of them were now, as he could do without fear of legal interference or punishment, to vote for some other candidate than the one for whom his party had delegated him to vote, he would be regarded as a betrayer of trust by the whole people. Their names on the ballots are, therefore, a clumsy, useless, and often misleading relic of a practically abandoned system. If they were to be replaced by the names of the presidential and vice-presidential candidates, for whom the people could vote directly, there would be none of the mistakes committed which occurred in the last election.

Several measures were presented to the last Congress looking to the abolition of the electoral college, but the one which found most favor was the simplest and least revolutionary. It provided simply that there should be no more electors, and that the States should vote directly for President and Vice-President, each State having the same number of electoral votes as at present, and the total electoral vote of each State going to the candidates for President and Vice-President having the largest popular vote. In this way it would be possible for a voter to exercise choice in voting for Vice-President, a privilege which is forbidden him under the present system. It might happen that a State would give its electoral vote to the presidential candidate of one party and the vice-presidential candidate of another. This possibility would have a most beneficial effect upon the selection of candidates for Vice-President, and in this respect would be a distinct public gain.

By leaving to the States the right to vote as separate entities, all that is worth preserving in the present electoral system would be retained. For this reason the plan of popular voting by States is certain to find more favor than that of popular voting by the whole country, the candidates having a plurality over all others in the grand total of all the States to be declared elected. The State plan, besides preserving State entity, which is a very popular idea, also insures an early knowledge of the result in an election, which is an important consideration. If the election were to be decided by popular vote of the whole country, there might be a considerable period, in case the contest were a close one, before the result would be known. This would be a serious source of confusion and uncertainty. In other respects, a vote by the whole people is unquestionably the fairest and most democratic possible. It would help to complete the work, already so well begun by the secret-ballot laws, of abolishing money and corruption from our elections. No man could foresee how such an election was going, or could find any spot in which it would be worth while to attempt to influence the result by the use of a corruption fund.

A General Free Library Movement.

FROM almost its first number this magazine has been in the habit of pointing out from time to time the great value of free public libraries as a means for spreading popular education. In an article in this department in THE CENTURY for June, 1882, we said:

> A library is of more use in an educational way than a high school. The taste for good reading is the true door to culture, and if the taste for good reading be once established in a young person, there is an absolute certainty of the attainment of a degree of culture which persevering years in school cannot give. It is not enough to have free schools. A widespread movement for libraries, which shall be either wholly free or exceedingly cheap, would be a most wholesome one. The abolition of the low-priced, pirated productions, which we hope to see brought about by copyright, would leave the field free for libraries, and libraries would render American as well as English literature of easy access to the humblest.

This hope about copyright is at last realized, and we are glad to see in many directions indications that its fulfilment has come at a very opportune moment so far as the growth of the free library movement is concerned.

It is most encouraging to learn that within the past few years there has been a steadily growing interest in this subject manifested in nearly all parts of the country. The chief reason of this has undoubtedly been the action of Massachusetts in creating a Free Public Library Commission, whose zealous, intelligent, and successful exertions have commanded the envy, and excited the ambition, of other States. The Massachusetts commission was authorized by a law which was passed in 1890. It is composed of five persons, appointed by the governor, who hold office for five years, but whose terms expire in different years, one new commissioner being appointed each year. They are authorized to expend, on the application of a board of library trustees of any town having no free library owned and controlled by the town, a sum not exceeding one hundred dollars for books to be used in establishing a free public library. The trustees who make the application must have been duly and regularly elected at a town-meeting. The law provides that towns establishing libraries under the act shall appropriate a certain sum each year, according to the assessed valuation of their property, for the use and maintenance of the library. The governor appointed as the first commission, Mr. C. B. Tillinghast of Bos-

ton, Mr. Samuel S. Green of Worcester, Mr. Henry S. Nourse of Lancaster, Miss E. P. Sohier of Beverly, and Miss Anna E. Ticknor of Boston.

When the commission entered upon its labors, 248 of the 351 cities and towns of Massachusetts had libraries in which the people had rights or free privileges, and in 175 of the 248 there were absolutely free public libraries under municipal control. All together these libraries contained about 2,500,000 volumes, or slightly more than the total population of the State. The gifts of individuals in money, not including gifts of books, for libraries and library buildings exceeded $5,500,000. Yet there were still 103 towns in the State which had no free public libraries. These were nearly all small towns, many of which contained a declining population. Upon these the commission bent its energies, and the results of its first year's labor were very gratifying. An appeal was issued to them to avail themselves of the State's offer of aid, and 37 of them accepted at the spring town-meetings of 1891. Several towns made appropriations in excess of the amount required by the statute. A cheering effect of the law was the voluntary offer by individuals of books to aid in the formation of new libraries, and the commissioners were able to distribute over fourteen hundred volumes in addition to those purchased by the State. In many instances associations turned over their collections of books as gifts to the town; others made appropriations from their treasuries to aid in establishing a library; and persons of wealth, sometimes permanent residents of the town, sometimes summer residents or visitors, made handsome gifts of money. The total of individual gifts during the time which has elapsed since the commission was appointed is over a half million dollars, and in the same period individuals have provided the funds for the erection of eleven new library buildings. During the past year several towns have received gifts, ranging from $25,000 to $50,000, to be used in building free public library structures. In fact the State is well sprinkled with handsome memorial library buildings, there being something like seventy-five of these in as many towns.

The impulse imparted to this most patriotic and worthy work of popular education has not been confined to Massachusetts. It has spread all over New England, and is felt perceptibly in many Western States. New Hampshire has created a similar commission, and other States are preparing to do the same in the near future. There are memorial library buildings going up in increasing numbers yearly in all parts of New England, and free public libraries are everywhere coming more and more to be a recognized branch of the educational machinery of every city and town. An imperfect report of the gifts and bequests to libraries in the United States of which record could be obtained, which was made to the Conference of Librarians in San Francisco in October, 1891, placed the total at nearly $24,000,000. The true total is undoubtedly far in excess of that, but this is a sufficiently large sum to give encouraging evidence that people of wealth realize the importance of the work which libraries are doing.

It is urged with great earnestness by the leaders in the free library movement that in order to perform perfectly their high and useful mission all public libraries should be absolutely free. The charging of a fee, however small, greatly diminishes the usefulness of any library. The testimony of statistics upon this point is conclusive. When the public library of Springfield, which had been charging a small annual fee, was made free in 1885, the number of card-holders increased during the year from 1100 to over 7000, and the circulation of books from 41,000 to 154,000. A similar change in the Otis Library of Norwich, Conn., made about a year ago, increased the number of books taken out during the following year from 500 to 3000.

OPEN LETTERS.

The Kindergarten Movement in Chicago.[1]

WHILE an extended interest in higher education has been awakened through the opening of our new university, and the establishment of many centers of the university extension work, another educational factor is affecting no less vitally the heads, hands, and hearts of the little children of our city.

There are here three strong kindergarten associations working out Froebel's idea, each one pushing forward in distinctly different methods, yet all working for the foundation of character-building, by the trend given to the child's thought, word, and work during the first seven years of his life.

Each association maintains a training-school, and year by year the standard for admission becomes higher; the course of study is broadened, not only by new insight into Froebel's philosophy, but by a clearer recognition of the relation of the kindergarten to the school and to life in all its phases.

The Froebel Association — or Froebel Society, as it was first called — was the outgrowth of a Mother's Study Class, organized in 1874 on a plan suggested by Miss Elizabeth Peabody in a circular letter to parents calling on them to investigate Froebel's philosophy and methods. This study culminated in the opening of the first kindergarten in the city, conducted by a regularly trained kindergartner.

In 1876, Mrs. E. W. Blatchford organized the first free kindergarten, in memory of a little child. Later, as the faith in these principles grew stronger, and the desire of others to enter into this work increased, a more definite organization seemed desirable, and several members of one society visited Mrs. Shaw's work in Boston, Mr. and Mrs. Kraus's in New York, and Miss Blow's in St. Louis, and gained much valuable information in regard to the practical workings of the system.

The Church of the Messiah (Unitarian) was the first religious body to recognize the place of the kindergarten in church work.

In October, 1880, a public meeting in the interest of free kindergartens was called in Farwell Hall. The meeting was well attended, and a committee was ap-

[1] See several articles on the kindergarten movement in THE CENTURY for January.

pointed to consult on a basis of organization for extended work among the poor, and the establishment of a free training-school for kindergartners. Through failure to agree upon a training-teacher and a general plan of work, there resulted two associations. One of them, largely composed of members of the study class before referred to, adopted the constitution and practically the name of the older society; the other became known as the Chicago Free Kindergarten Association.

The difference in the work of the two societies as they now stand is mainly this: The Froebel Association recognizes in the plays of the kindergarten, with its gifts and occupations, the fullest opportunity for planting in the child's heart a love of nature and a love of "thy neighbor" which shall be a basis for a higher spiritual life to be developed later, from *within;* looking upon the kindergarten as a place where, in Froebel's own words, "the child may learn to *act* according to the commands of God, before he can learn these prescriptions and commands as dogmas." Moreover, it has ever been the ultimate aim of this association to promote the adoption of the kindergarten as a part of the public-school system; all teaching, therefore, has been on a basis so broad that no objection need be raised by Protestant, Romanist, or Jew.

The training-school under this association is not entirely free, although the fee charged is very small. The course of study embraces, as does that of the two other training-schools, not only a knowledge of the principles and methods of Froebel, applied in the use of his material, but training in physical culture; music, as adapted to the needs of little children; elementary science lessons; special study in form and color; psychology and history of pedagogy.

"The Free Kindergarten Association" holds that clear and positive Bible and temperance lessons, thoroughly adapted to the child's needs, are a necessity in right education. Therefore a progressive series of Bible texts, beautifully illustrated with decorative designs to be wrought out by the child's own handiwork, forms a part of each day's work. Little "Letters" containing texts of Scripture are frequently sent to the homes, and an earnest effort is made to bring the parents into full sympathy with the teachings which the children receive. A free training-school yearly enrolls a large number of earnest students.

A third factor in the educational field, which has within a few years claimed a foremost position, is the Chicago Kindergarten College, Miss Elizabeth Harrison, principal. The work of this institution has become widely known through its "Literary School," which includes among its lecturers many of the ablest scholars in this country. The "Mothers' Department," for the initiation and training of mothers in Froebel's philosophy and in all educational growth, enrolls among its members many intelligent society women, as well as those whose one aim in life is an earnest seeking after those truths which shall make their children free. The "Philanthropic Department" is supported mainly by the money received from the "Literary School," all surplus over and above current expenses going to the extension of kindergartens in the poorer districts of the city.

A kindergarten club of some two hundred members — mothers, teachers of private and public schools, and kindergartners — meets for study every Saturday morning. The officers of the club are chosen from the three organizations already named, and it is, therefore, a common meeting-ground, and is really representative of the different schools. Another significant factor in kindergarten extension lies in the provision which the Board of the Cook County Normal School (Colonel Parker's) has made for bringing to the graduating class a series of weekly lectures in Froebel's principles, with such adaptation of the methods in form, number, color, etc., as may be advantageously used in primary grades. These lessons continue through the year, and certainly do a great deal toward promoting a living and sympathetic interest between school and kindergarten. Colonel Parker will allow none to enter the special training-class for kindergartners at his school who do not take the full normal course.

In September, 1892, the Board of Education adopted nine kindergartens which had been sustained for some years in the school buildings — six by the Froebel Association, three by the "Kindergarten College." We hope that this experiment may be as successful as it promises to be, in paving the way for such legislation as shall make it possible to have kindergartens in any school where they are wanted.

There are in all about one hundred kindergartens in Chicago. This includes those under the auspices of the Jewish Manual Training School, which reaches hundreds of Bohemians, Polish Jews, and other foreign neighborhoods, and the large kindergarten supported by Professor Swing's "Central Church." A German association also has been organized, but I know almost nothing of their plans for work.

If there were three hundred kindergartens to-day in this city, still there would not be room for those children who are being educated in the street. When will the public demand this training as a rational, practical foundation for the education of these children, and not leave it to the chance, voluntary effort of a few interested people?

CHICAGO. *Alice H. Putnam.*

The Kindergarten in Turkey.

WE are permitted to print the following from a private letter from a missionary of the American Board of Foreign Missions in Turkey:

"With my circle of girls and young brides in Cesarea, we started a kindergarten nearly two years ago. We secured a good teacher, and soon had nearly seventy little people. We had to get some one to help the teacher. Later, Miss Burrage, who had gone to America for rest and study, returned to us equipped for kindergarten work. She has trained several young girls,— graduates of our school here,— and with them to assist her she is doing a grand work. The children are improving greatly, and the parents are astonished at the work that can be done for little people. They are learning, too, how children should be treated, and they are delighted with the results.

"So far we have had no help from our Board for this kindergarten work. We are longing and praying for a building for the school, and hope the Board can help us to that. The Destderaz Circle, with the help of some personal friends, has carried on the work.

"*Carrie P. Farnsworth Fowle.*

"CESAREA, TURKEY IN ASIA."

"The Century's" American Artists Series.

EDMUND C. TARBELL.

IN England one often hears the phrase applied to a painter, "He is of the French school," but what the French school is, is never explained; nor, indeed, can it be, for there exists no such thing to-day as a French school in painting. What people mean is that when paint is applied to canvas in a workmanlike manner,— that is, when the artist knows as well how to handle his pigments as a house-painter does his — a striking contrast to the method, or rather the absence of method, in English painting,— he is associated in the British mind with the French school, which is but another way of saying that French artists have learned their trade.

I am not belittling English art; to me the most interesting display in the fine arts section of the French Exposition (Universal) was the English exhibit. From the very fact of absence of method, there was a certain freshness, if not originality, a certain naïveté, in the handling of paint in the attempt to express an idea (and in English pictures there is always an idea) that separated it from the work of Americans and Continentals, for in these it was quite plain that the French method was followed. What good putting on of paint is,— in other words, what good technic is,— is open to question. It may be that the bravura of painting, as in Franz Hals, Velasquez, and Sargent, is right, or it may be that the unseen and unchallenging technic of Raphael and Le Febvre is better. But it can be said without contradiction that French painting, as practised by the younger artists, and as a consequence by the American student, in Paris, has for the last ten years been of the bravura order — that technic which cries aloud for admiration. Happily, we are about done with the extreme of this, and are reaching a place where critics no longer laud a painting solely for its "painter quality" or its "vigorous technic." But it goes without saying that the best idea may be marred by imperfect technic, and that as a knowledge of the structure of language is necessary for literary expression, so a knowledge of the proper methods of using paint must be a part, an important part, of the artist's equipment. Happy, then, the painter who, having an idea, is able to express it with ease and grace. This ability Edmund C. Tarbell has in an exceptional degree. His pictures look like the work of a man who has no difficulties with, no struggles over, his materials. In some of them, perhaps, this is felt a trifle too strongly; but it is difficult to make up one's mind to quarrel with so expert a workman, the more that his skilful putting-on of paint is quickly lost sight of in his quality of color, for his color is always good and pleasant, and sometimes remarkable. One feels in Mr. Tarbell's work, too, perhaps, that he is not quite emancipated from the influence of Léon Doucet; but he is a young man yet, and has staying power, and has reached the age when his observation of the Old Masters, of whom he has been a diligent student, will do him good service in broadening his power of discrimination.

Edmund C. Tarbell was born in West Groton, Mass., in 1862. He was a student at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and, later, a pupil of the Académie Julian, under Boulanger and Le Febvre. He is at present instructor of painting at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts and a member of the Society of American Artists; he also holds the Thomas B. Clarke prize for painting.

W. Lewis Fraser.

The Frontispiece Portrait of Napoleon.

THIS engraving is made from a bas-relief by Boizot, which is thus referred to in Joseph Bonaparte's will, dated June 14, 1840: "To Mr. Joseph Hopkinson, a round bas-relief of marble, representing General Bonaparte, First Consul. It is now in my house at Point Breeze."

Joseph Bonaparte's secretary (Adolphe Mailliard) and Joseph Hopkinson (author of "Hail Columbia") were named as his executors. The bas-relief passed into the hands of Hopkinson's daughter, who died in 1891, at the age of ninety, and, with other portraits, etc., it has since been turned over by her brother, Oliver Hopkinson of Philadelphia, to the Historical Society of that city. It was engraved for THE CENTURY by J. W. Evans, and the decoration surrounding it was designed by H. B. Sherwin.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

The United States Poetry Company (Limited).

WHILE walking home one windy winter's day,—
I walked because each car that ran my way
Held twice the number it was built to hold,
Plus one small red-hot stove to kill the cold,—
A great surprise
Did greet my eyes —
They grew, in fact, to thrice their usual size —
As they perceived afar a swinging sign
Whose gilded letters brilliantly did shine,
And which, in brief, was put up there to show
That who should go
Two flights or so
Up wooden stairs would find the company
Of several gifted wights, by no means slow,
Who dealt in poetry.

Now some folks say that I at times indite
A line or two that William Shakspere might
Have liked to write;
And so it seemed to me
I 'd better see
Just what these clever fellows had in view.
This course was due
My family.
This is an age, as you perhaps have heard,
Of corporations, some of them absurd;
They have no souls — at least they don't reveal
Those that they have, although we often feel
The corporation's heel,
Or say we do,
Amounting to the same if 't is n't true.
Now corporate ambition, I am told,
Is simply to corral the yellow gold;

TOPICS OF THE TIME.

Words are Deeds, and May be Crimes.

THE CENTURY has never undertaken any duty with more serious consideration, and under a greater sense of responsibility, than the publication, in the present number, of Judge Gary's account of the trial and condemnation of the Chicago Anarchists. We believe that a better knowledge of that momentous event will be beneficial to civilization and conducive to good order throughout the world. The solemn statement of Judge Gary is prepared not only for the profession of the law: it is submitted not merely to the judgment of experts, but to the opinion of mankind — and, as Lowell says, "All free governments, whatever their name, are in reality governments by public opinion, and it is on the quality of this public opinion that their prosperity depends."

A study of the testimony and finding shows that not only philosophically, but legally, words are deeds, and that for words leading to crime a man must suffer the extreme penalty of the law. We are willing to give up pages of the magazine to the partly fanatical and partly purely vicious ravings of the anarchists, not merely with a view to showing the nature of the evidence on which they were convicted, but also in order that the minds of men may be familiarized with these phrases; so that wherever they are heard it may be understood that this sort of language is likely to be but the spluttering of the end of a fuse, or the signal for the throwing of a yet more deadly bomb of dynamite.

But perhaps the most important part of the paper is the appeal of the writer (himself trained in manual labor) to working-men everywhere to avoid being led by professional lawbreakers and anarchists into a position of antagonism to the community. In a free country, where the people make their own laws, and where public sympathy is on the side of justice in every labor contest, so long as that side remains untainted by crime — in such a country the quickest way to reform is not the way of violence and cowardly cruelty, and destruction of government, but the path of honor, patriotism, and common sense.

There is nothing so radical as justice. It is the one safe cure for all social and political evils.

A Memorable Advance in Forest-Preservation.

THE people of the United States in general, and of the State of California in particular, owe Secretary John W. Noble, of the Harrison administration, an eternal debt of gratitude for his intelligent, zealous, and invaluable services to the cause of forest-preservation. We have had occasion more than once to express our hearty appreciation of his efforts in this direction, and we rejoice at a fresh opportunity to do so which comes in the establishment of a memorable series of forest reservations, performed on the eve of his departure from office.

By this policy, accomplished by President Harrison's proclamation in accordance with the powers conferred upon him by Congress in 1891, there has been made, first of all, a new reservation south of and adjoining the Yosemite National Park by the addition of over four million acres, comprising that portion of the Sierra Nevada which is at once the most mountainous and most grandly beautiful in the United States. It contains over six thousand square miles, with an altitude ranging from 3000 to 15,000 feet, composed almost entirely of lofty mountains and great cañons, and reaching the highest elevation in the Union, outside of Alaska. It includes the wonderful King's River Cañon, called by Mr. John Muir "a rival of the Yosemite," in his article with that title in THE CENTURY for November, 1891, and by him there suggested as a national reservation. This is, however, but a fraction of Secretary Noble's far-reaching reserve, which includes nearly if not quite all the big-tree (*Sequoia gigantea*) forests not before reserved, and has in addition the finest forests of sugar-pine, cedar, and other valuable trees known to the world. In addition to all these attractions and treasures, it is the source of the water-supply of the San Joaquin Valley, and as such the reservoir of the new wealth which irrigation has developed in the arid lands of that now beautiful region. Mr. Cleveland's administration will probably continue this policy by making another reserve of the northern sierra, from the Yosemite National Park to Mount Shasta.

But this is not all. Three other extensive mountain reserves on the Pacific slope have been created by the same wise policy,— one extending from Los Angeles to San Bernardino, one thence eastward to the San Gargonia Pass, and the third, in the State of Washington, embracing Mount Rainier,— the three aggregating about 2,500,000 acres. Hardly less important is the reservation of the territory contiguous to the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, which has also been effected by Secretary Noble's forethought. The record thus made by the late administration, like the accomplishment of International Copyright, will reflect credit upon it when other seemingly more important features are dimmed by time.

The chief gain is, primarily, to California. By this series of official acts President Harrison and Secretary Noble have completed the reservation of a chain of forest uplands that now includes all the elevated region which furnishes the water-supply for the productive regions of California south of San Francisco. The value of this great preserve, extending almost continuously for nearly the entire length of the State, and comprising in all between six and seven millions of acres, cannot be estimated. Californians who have seen what they had supposed to be barren and utterly worthless lands transformed into bounteous acres under the magic touch of irrigation, know that the value to the State of having its water-supply secured for all time against destruction or impairment is incomputable.

The establishment of these reservations will add strength to the movement now in progress at Sacramento to recede the Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Big Tree Grove to the United States. The necessity of more securely guarding these two great treasures ought now to be more apparent than ever to the people of California. They ought to see the wisdom of allowing control of the entire tract to be consolidated in the hands of the General Government. In this way alone can it be secured for all time against the ravages of ignorance, the greed of "rings," and the onslaughts of vandalism. If the effort to procure voluntary recession shall fail, it will be the duty of Congress to repeal the grant of 1864. For this course it is certain that a congressional inquiry will reveal only too substantial grounds. Once the valley is in the hands of the Government, the services of Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted should be secured to lay down the principles on which it should be treated. Meantime he should be selected to act as adviser to the bureau in charge of which the scenic portions of the new parks shall be placed.

That the vandals are always on the watch was shown anew by the attack which was made upon the Yellowstone National Park in the late Congress. Cooke City, a small mining-camp situated on the northeast corner of this park, had two bills before Congress which ought to have been embodied in a single measure, and entitled "An act to mutilate the Yellowstone National Park, rob it of its most beautiful natural scenery, and ruin it as a game-preserve." One of the bills gave Cooke City the right to build a railway across the Park, and the other, in order to evade the technical objection to a railway within the Park, proposed to cut off all that portion of the Park including and lying outside the line of railway, restoring it to the public by making the railway line the new boundary. In exchange for the tract thus cut from the park it was proposed to add another tract, somewhat larger, but which is an inaccessible mountain region, which tourists could never visit, and which heavy winter snows render incapable of supporting game. It was proposed by the Cooke City vandals to substitute this practically valueless region for what is undoubtedly the most beautiful portion of the Park, to run a railway along the route which is destined by nature as the great scenic route of the Park, and to drive all game away from the best pasturage by putting a railway through the center of it. The only defense of this outrageous proposal was that the Cooke City mines are in need of a railway outlet. Granting the paramount importance of this need, the proposal to ruin the Park in its behalf is disposed of by the fact that a railway outlet can be secured in several other directions, outside the Park. There is, in fact, no possible excuse for this vandalism, and no Congress ought to listen to its advocates for a moment.

The policy set on foot by the Harrison administration should also be of use in the establishment or management of State reserves. In regard to the preservation of the Adirondack forest in New York State, a very great advance was made in 1892, when the legislature passed an act creating the Adirondack Park. This was the final result of a long and discouraging struggle. Originally the Adirondack wilderness comprised 12,000 square miles, but this area has been reduced by clearings, till it now contains only about 5600 square miles, or about 3,700,000 acres. Of these 3,700,000 acres, about 900,000 are owned by the State, but not in an unbroken tract. In fact fully one half of the State's lands were, at the time the Park was authorized, situated in detached places around the borders of the wilderness. Under the Park Act the commissioners have power to sell some portions, and with the money thus obtained buy new ones, and thus create a solid tract which shall be owned by the State, and, in the language of the act, "be forever reserved, maintained, and cared for as ground open for the free use of all the people for their health or pleasure, and as forest lands necessary to the preservation of the head waters of the chief rivers of the State, and a future timber supply." By this act the State, it is believed by the commissioners, will be able to increase its acreage, and, by consolidating its holdings, will be able to adopt and carry out a rational system of forestry, which will preserve and protect the forests, and make them a blessing to all its people. About 8000 acres have already been purchased under the act.

What the National Government has done for the Pacific Slope, and what New York has done for the Adirondacks, New Hampshire is called upon to do for the White Mountains. A loud cry of alarm in their behalf has been sent forth during the past few months, and, unless it be heeded before the present year rolls away, the chief natural glory of New England may have been ruined forever. The danger lies in the fact that the White Mountains are owned by private persons, Mount Washington itself being to-day private property. Experience everywhere has shown that private ownership cannot be depended on to preserve natural beauty in scenery which has a high market value. Year by year the lumbermen have been cutting their way into the White Mountain region till now they threaten to destroy those tracts which are its greatest glory, and which constitute the chief charm for the thousands of visitors who resort thither year after year from all quarters of the land. Contracts were made several months ago under which the Pemigewasset wilderness, that magnificent stretch of pathless forest, was to be invaded by the destroyer with his gangs of cutters and his steam sawmill. Another assault was also planned upon the region about the Flume, and still another upon Albany Intervale. These attacks, if carried out, would completely strip the mountains of their magnificent and imposing vesture, depriving the region of its glory and beauty, and taking from the rivers of the State their supply of water. Small wonder that the threat of such appalling devastation — nay more, such desecration — aroused the whole country, and that appeals were sent from all quarters of the land to have the hand of the destroyer stayed.

The alarm was first sounded by Mr. J. B. Harrison of Franklin Falls, N. H., the leader in the successful movement by which Niagara Falls was made a State reservation. He has done a great deal to arouse the people of the country to the danger, and to induce them to bring pressure upon the people of New Hampshire to act at once, and save from annihilation their greatest treasure, not merely in its natural beauty, but in its power to attract visitors and money to the State. He started a fund which received contributions from public-spirited persons everywhere, and expressions of warm sympathy which have done a great deal to arouse the astonishingly lethargic public opinion of New

Hampshire to the need of action. Professor Charles Eliot Norton, of Harvard University, was one of the first to respond with a contribution to the fund, saying of its object:

> The saving of the forests of New Hampshire is not a mere local interest. It is of national concern,—nay, it is more than this,—it is a patriotic duty. Each generation is a trustee of the natural wealth and beauty of its native land for the generations to come. We are not owners in fee, and we have no right to squander the inheritance which belongs to others equally with ourselves.

That might well be applied to every movement for forest-preservation, and it ought to be made the text for missionary work in all parts of the land, for there appears to be no quarter in which the destroyer is not at work. Simultaneously with the plea for the White Mountains one was heard for aid to save the beautiful forests in Southern Kentucky and Tennessee, in the vicinity of Cumberland Gap. A tanning company is working for the ruin of this region by removing the bark from thousands of trees, leaving their trunks to rot upon the ground, and making great rents in the forests thousands of acres in extent.

This wide-spread raid upon American forests ought to have the effect of greatly arousing public sentiment throughout the country to the need of national concentration of effort for forest-preservation. It ought to result in the creation of active interest in the work which the American Forestry Association is seeking to accomplish—that is, the "advancement of educational, legislative, or other measures" tending to the promotion of an interest in the preservation, renewal, and management of our forests. A great deal has been accomplished by this association, but a great deal more will be accomplished if all persons interested in its useful and most genuinely patriotic work will become members of it, and give it all the aid in their power. Public sentiment is visibly aroused, but it is only by unity and systematic direction of effort that results can be achieved.

Parks in and near Large Cities.

AN act was passed by the Massachusetts legislature of 1892 which ought to be imitated by the legislature of every other State which contains one or more large cities. It provides for the appointment by the governor of three men, to constitute a board of metropolitan park commissioners, whose duty it shall be to "consider the advisability of laying out ample open spaces, for the use of the public, in the towns and cities in the vicinity of Boston," and to make a report, accompanied by maps and plans, to the next session of the legislature. Governor Russell appointed Charles Francis Adams of Quincy, Philip A. Chase of Lynn, and William de las Casas of Malden as members of the commission, and they proceeded immediately to a vigorous prosecution of the work assigned them.

It is the intention of the commission to ascertain first what is the present public holding of every community within twelve miles of the State House. The next step will be to inquire what more is needed. All public beaches near Boston will be examined with a view to seeing what rights the public already has in them, and what additional rights and improvements are desirable. River borders, like those of the Charles River, will be examined with a view to ascertaining if the river can be made a pleasure waterway with public rights upon its banks. Finally, the question of making a State reservation of about four thousand acres of Blue Hills, the highest tract of land near Boston, will be considered, and a recommendation made.

It is easy to see at a glance what a public-spirited movement this is, and what important and far-reaching results may be the outcome. It is a very necessary movement for Massachusetts to make, for the most desirable portions of the waterways and beaches about Boston are being so rapidly absorbed for private dwellings and summer residences, that the public is in a fair way to be shut out entirely from enjoyment of them. It is the purpose of the commission to evolve a comprehensive plan for saving open places here and there in all directions about the city, to be set apart for public uses and pleasure-grounds for all time, and to urge its adoption by the legislature.

At the same time, the interior needs of Boston itself ought not to be neglected. In this direction a good example has been set by New York, which all other cities would do well to follow. Not only have large tracts in the upper and newer sections of New York been acquired and set apart for park usage, but liberal provision has been made for constructing in the most densely populated districts of the older city an indefinite number of small parks, which will bring the benefits of light and air to the inhabitants of the crowded tenement-houses. Under an act of the legislature passed in 1887, one million dollars a year is available for this purpose, the city being authorized to issue bonds to that amount annually for an indefinite period. In accordance with the terms of this act, work is at present in progress on two small parks, and proceedings have been instituted for the acquisition by the city of the land necessary for the construction of four others, all situated in portions of the city in which their advent will be an inestimable blessing to thousands of poor people, old and young, to whom the large and remote parks of the city are virtually inaccessible because of the time and money required in reaching them. No more worthy or humane use of public money could be devised than such expenditure of it as this. It beautifies the city, and at the same time adds immeasurably to the happiness and health of the most helpless portion of its inhabitants.

What the commission is doing for Boston and its suburbs another organization, called the Trustees of Public Reservations, is seeking to do for the whole State of Massachusetts. It has issued a public appeal in which the scope of its work is defined as follows:

> TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:
>
> In your part of Massachusetts are there any beautiful beaches, bluffs, hilltops, ravines, groves, river-banks, or roadsides?
>
> Would it not be well to secure for the public the most interesting of these places before their beauty is destroyed, or they become fenced in for private gain or pleasure?
>
> Owners of such places, by giving them into the keeping of the Trustees of Public Reservations, will enhance the value of adjacent real estate. Neighbors of such places, by giving them into the charge of the trustees, may profitably increase the attractiveness of their district. Men and women of Massachusetts who have gained wealth within or without her borders, can find no more acceptable way of benefiting their native land than by dedicating one or more of her places of beauty to the enjoyment of all, forever.

It would be difficult to conceive of projects more deserving approval than these we have mentioned. We have urged many times, in this and other departments of THE CENTURY, the great public value of park-creation and -preservation. Every city in the country ought to have a commission like that of Boston appointed to secure park-preserves in its suburbs. The time to secure such preserves is before the suburbs are closely built up and before the land becomes too valuable to be spared for such use. There are suburbs within the vicinity of New York and other large cities which have been allowed to be built up solidly without leaving a single large open space for public uses. This is a blunder which will be seen to be more and more grievous as time goes on. Other cities ought to see to it that so far as they are concerned the blunder shall not be committed.

In regard to the preservation of spots of great natural beauty in the States at large,— that is, in parts remote from large cities,— the matter of public ownership and public preservation is comparatively a simple one. The actual value of such places is usually not great, and the cost of acquiring them for public use would not be high. The value of their acquisition and preservation as a means for cultivating the esthetic sense of the people cannot be overestimated. Every picturesque hillside, rocky bluff, tumbling waterfall, shady ravine, cool grove, or sandy beach set aside for public enjoyment would be a constant object-lesson in natural beauty to all beholders — an object-lesson which local pride would be constantly enforcing. Aside from its esthetic usefulness, by enhancing the attractiveness of a community possessing it, it would add greatly to the marketable value of all adjoining property. There is scarcely a village in the land which has not within its borders at least one spot of this kind whose natural beauty well entitles it to preservation. What an immeasurable gain it would be to us as a people, if all these spots could be spared destruction, and set apart forever for public use and enjoyment! Why should not the example of Massachusetts be followed by that of every other State in the Union? The obvious advantages of the proposal are so great that if a few zealous persons take up the work of advocacy, there can be no doubt of speedy and hearty public approval.

The World's Fair and Landscape-Gardening.

THE most remarkable point about the Chicago Fair is its beauty as a whole. Its great artistic success has been achieved because, at the very outset, before any of its buildings was planned, Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted was commissioned to lay out the site, and determine their positions and the character of the means of access to them.

This fact, we think, is now fully understood, not only by artists, but by a large part of the public. It cannot fail to be recognized by every intelligent person who visits Chicago this summer; and it will undoubtedly do more than anything else has ever done, or than any achievement of another kind possibly could do, to make Americans understand that the art which, for want of a more broadly inclusive term, we call the art of gardening (or landscape-gardening, although this word is quite as inadequate) deserves to rank with architecture, painting, and sculpture as a genuine fine art — as an art of design in a very noble sense. The Fair will do this; it will show how important the assistance of the artist in gardening may be to the architect, and also that his help should be secured before the architect goes to work, and not, as is our common practice when we employ him at all, to "touch up" architectural results after they are finished.

Thus the Fair will be of great advantage to American art; or would be, but for a most unfortunate state of things. The Fair will stimulate our desire to employ landscape-architects; but unfortunately landscape-architects at all deserving of the name are very difficult to find. One can count on the fingers of a single hand the trained and tasteful workers in this department whom the United States possess. This was recently proved by the way in which the untimely death of Mr. Codman, Mr. Olmsted's young partner, was lamented as a public calamity. In any branch of art the death of so capable and energetic a man would have been a serious loss; but in his branch it has left a blank as great as though a score of our prominent painters or architects had died.

Probably more young Americans do not enter this profession because we have no regular schools of landscape-design, and it is consequently hard to determine how one may secure the best training. Therefore, in pointing out the probability that, for once, our demand for good artistic work may exceed the available supply, we hope to attract the serious attention not only of young men about to engage in their life's work, but also of the directors of our educational institutions, and of liberal citizens anxious to work for the public good. The establishment of a department of gardening art in connection with one of our universities or great technical schools would be both a novel and an extremely useful way of investing money for the benefit of the American people. It might best be established, perhaps, in Boston or Cambridge, owing to the neighborhood of the Arnold Arboretum, and to the fact that a more intelligent popular interest in such matters can be noted here than elsewhere in America — doubtless because of the influence of Mr. Olmsted and Professor Sargent, and of the late H. H. Richardson, who was the first among our architects practically to recognize the inestimable advantage of a brotherly accord between his profession and that of the landscape-architect. But in any place where facilities for acquiring at least the rudiments of architectural, engineering, and botanical knowledge already exist, a school of landscape-design would be of very great public benefit.

Arbor Day.

THE CENTURY needs to make no apology for devoting a considerable space in the present number to a day which, to the credit of our people, is coming to be celebrated more and more throughout the country. Mr. Bunner's poem and Mrs. Robbins's account of that unique institution the Arnold Arboretum, though bearing more directly, do not bear more importantly upon Arbor Day than the editorials in this department dealing with other phases of the subject, such as forest-reservation, landscape-gardening, and the establishment of city and suburban parks; for it would be but saving at the spigot and wasting at the bung to direct the energies of our people through laborious national organizations to the observation of Arbor Day, even with its

countless rows of newly planted saplings, if at the same time we were to neglect as a nation the agencies already at hand to preserve against greed and vandalism the magnificent endowments which nature has committed to our care.

Therefore too much stress cannot be laid upon the far-reaching influence of the policy inaugurated by Secretary Noble, with President Harrison's cordial approval, whereby are saved for all time the chief of those great natural monuments which remain the property of the Government. The work of the Massachusetts Metropolitan Park Commission and of the Trustees of Public Reservations, as above set forth, comes more nearly home to every citizen or villager, and finds a corollary in the crying need of professional instruction in the care of natural scenery—a subject to which we call attention, and which may well commend itself to our universities. The massing of these topics makes a comprehensive showing of some of the intelligent and patriotic efforts now on foot for the conservation of natural scenery, and, we hope, will serve to stimulate those who see in these movements another step forward in the prosperity of our people, both as local communities and as a nation.

Since the above was written the cause of forestry has met with new encouragement in the appointment, as Secretary of Agriculture, of Mr. J. Sterling Morton, of Nebraska, whose connection with Arbor Day is well known.

OPEN LETTERS.

Governmental Care for Working-men.

I. OHIO'S FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

ON the first Monday in January of each year, simultaneously with the gathering of the State legislature, the Ohio Trades and Labor Assembly meets in annual session at Columbus.

The delegates have for their constituency the entire trades-union element of Ohio. Their deliberations, which continue throughout the week, are devoted chiefly to the discussion of labor legislation. Measures looking to the improvement of the wage-worker's condition are formulated into bills, and existing or proposed laws judged inimical to his interests are condemned. The time and place of meeting are fixed by the Assembly with the design of bringing its proceedings prominently to the notice of the law-making powers of the State. But lest the impression made should prove too transitory for any practical results, a lobbying committee is appointed, whose duty it is to remain at the capital during the session of the legislature, and urge consideration of the reforms that have been decided upon by the organization.

A number of meritorious enactments owe their places on the statute-books to this influence. These consist mostly of measures throwing safeguards about employees whose occupations endanger life and limb, improving the sanitary condition of factories, and regulating child labor.

A noteworthy departure was made, however, from the ordinary line of labor legislation in 1890, when the trades-union element secured the passage of a law creating free public employment offices, to be operated under State auspices. This experiment, being without precedent and involving great possibilities, has attracted wide-spread interest on the part of labor reformers and students of social problems. Over two years of history have now been made by these institutions—sufficient to determine their practicability.

The agitation of this question dates from 1889. During the Paris Exposition, through the liberality of the Scripps League of newspapers,[1] a delegation of American working-men was given an opportunity of studying the wage question abroad. Among the party was Honorable W. T. Lewis, at present Commissioner of the Ohio Bureau of Labor Statistics, but at that time a national officer in the coal-miners' organization of the United States. While in Paris, Mr. Lewis became deeply interested in the Free Intelligence Office of that city, and made it the object of close observation. Upon returning to his home in Ohio, he brought the matter to the attention of the trades-unions of the State, which espoused the idea of giving the system a local application.

The Free Intelligence Office of Paris is supported jointly by the government and the municipality. It consists of a department, presided over by a secretary, for each of the principal trades, and one for unclassified trades and minor occupations, collectively. Branch offices in all the principal centers of industry throughout the country coöperate with headquarters, thus forming a complete system of labor intelligence.

To come within the most liberal provisions that could be expected of a State legislature, it was necessary to modify this plan until little but the bare principle remained. The Ohio law, as passed, was very simple. The offices were attached to the Labor Commissioner's department, and that official proceeded to appoint a superintendent and a clerk, the latter a female, for each of the five cities whose municipal grade brought them within the requirements of the statutes, namely, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, Toledo, and Dayton. The State was to defray all expenses except the salaries of the superintendents and clerks, which were to be fixed and paid by the several cities. A delay was experienced in each instance in getting the matter through the municipal board; but as soon as possible quarters were opened in the business center of each city, and the work of receiving applications began. The names, addresses, and occupations of those seeking work were registered in a book, and a separate record was made of the wants of employers. The superintendent was forbidden to accept from applicants remuneration in any form. On the other hand, though required to exercise an intelligent discrimination in the discharge of his duties, he assumed no responsibility as to the character of applicants or the payment of wages. No one was guaranteed a situation. Those

[1] The "Cincinnati Post," the "Detroit News," and the "St. Louis Chronicle," published by E. W. Scripps.

registering for employment were sent merely as available persons to vacancies in their particular lines of work. This, in brief, is the manner in which the public employment system was inaugurated. Practically there has been no change in the method of operation.

A statement of the work accomplished at the outset by each office, from the date of opening in 1890 to January 1, 1891, is herewith given:

The Toledo office, in 27 weeks, registered 7021 applications, of which 3053 were from employees, and 3968 from employers; positions were secured for 1826 persons.

The Dayton office, in 26 weeks, registered 6289 applications, of which 4027 were from employees, and 2262 from employers; positions were secured for 817 persons.

The Cleveland office, in 25 weeks, registered 8220 applications, of which 3800 were from employees, and 4420 from employers; positions were secured for 2180 persons.

The Cincinnati office, in 23 weeks, registered 12,171 applications, of which 6581 were from employees, and 5590 from employers; positions were secured for 2956 persons.

The Columbus office, in 17 weeks, registered 4589 applications, of which 2675 were from employees, and 1914 from employers; positions were secured for 1209 persons.

In all, 20,136 applicants were registered, 18,154 calls were received from employers, and 8988 persons were furnished employment.

During the year 1891, there were 57,579 applications filed with the five offices, 34,371 by employees, and 23,208 by employers; 15,525 persons were furnished employment. In 1892 there were 49,159 applications filed, 26,957 by employees and 22,202 by employers; 13,845 persons were furnished employment. The falling off in 1892 was confined to the fore part of the year, and was due to certain contingencies in the management of the offices for which proper provision had not been made. From the date of the opening of the first office, June 26, 1890, to January 1, 1893, a total of 81,464 applicants registered for situations, 54,507 being males and 26,957 females; 63,564 calls for help were made by employers, 29,395 being for males, and 34,169 for females; 38,358 persons were placed in positions, 18,529 being males, and 19,829 females. Of the total number of applicants for situations 47 per cent. have been furnished employment, and of the total number of wants of both employees and employers 52.8 per cent. have been supplied. Eliminating from the list of applicants for work a transient class, who after registering never call again, and giving the offices credit for those who procure situations through intelligence received from these sources at second hand, a much better showing would be made. The proportion of common labor and domestic help to the total number of situations procured has steadily decreased, while the trades and other skilled occupations have shown a constant gain.

The figures given represent a vast saving of individual effort. The wants of capital and labor have been in a measure concentrated and fitted together, resulting in economy of time and energy to both industrial factors. From a practical business point of view, the usefulness of the public employment system has been demonstrated in the extensive and continuous use made of it by the general public.

On the humane side of the question, also, the most gratifying results are seen. According to a conservative estimate, $100,000 are annually saved to the working people of the State by forcing the private intelligence bureaus from the field. Though always in disrepute, an investigation of this evil disclosed a state of affairs much worse than had been credited. Through systematic misrepresentation money was taken from the pockets of those who could least afford to spare it, and but little, if anything, was given in return. These institutions have entirely disappeared in three of the cities where the free offices are in operation, and must eventually go out of existence altogether. Working people have been quick to perceive in the public employment office something that has a tendency to do away with the humiliation of seeking the means of livelihood from door to door. They appreciate the independence of being able to meet the employer on common ground. The paths to industry are made more accessible. Under stress of circumstances, applicants of high education and abilities often eagerly accept some menial work which they would shrink from personally soliciting.

The employment office is a democratic institution, embracing among its patrons all classes of people. Being a public office, operated by the State, there is no atmosphere of charity surrounding it. The superintendent, whose duties consist, in part, in gathering information for the annual report of the department with which he is connected, is afforded peculiar opportunities for studying the labor question. He is in constant touch with all branches of wage-workers, and gains a knowledge of their conditions of life which could be learned in no other way. The five free public employment offices of Ohio cost less than $10,000 a year, including the salaries of superintendents and clerks, paid by the cities. The hindrances incident to any new departure having been to a large extent overcome, much greater results for this outlay will be realized in the future.

Labor organizations all over the country have watched the progress of the Ohio experiment with deep solicitude. Much interest has also been manifested by charitable organizations in various cities. Letters of inquiry come from nearly every part of the United States and Canada, many of them bearing the signatures of prominent officials, including representatives of foreign governments.

Now that the experimental stage has been passed, action is being taken to introduce the system in other States. A year ago Governor Boies, of Iowa, in his annual message to the legislature, recommended its adoption. The labor commissioners of all the principal States of the Union, assembled in national convention at Denver, Colorado, last May, passed resolutions urging the general establishing of free public employment offices. Other organizations have since then expressed themselves to the same effect. The most advanced sentiment appears in Pennsylvania and Missouri, but from present indications a number of State legislatures will be called upon to consider the question in the near future.

C. C. Johnston.

II. AN EXAMPLE FROM GERMANY.

FOR the care and protection of work-people in Germany, effort is being made in two different directions: by many employers of labor spontaneously, and by the government under a very thorough system of inspection.

And first, certain employers have sought to improve the condition of their working-men in a very practical way. The necessaries of life are purchased wholesale, and are sold to the employees at actual cost, sometimes even below it. From government reports for 1890, just published, the following details are taken.

In the district of Düsseldorf large quantities of bread were provided and sold at cost. Forty-two firms are named who purchased between five and six million pounds of potatoes, and fifty-nine firms who purchased over twelve thousand tons of coal, all of which was resold at cost. The great Baden Aniline and Soda Manufacturing Company has established stores for selling provisions at low rates, which are maintained at an annual loss of 30,000 marks (over seven thousand dollars). The Mansfeld Copper Works in 1890 employed 17,687 workmen, and sold to them over nine million pounds of rye-meal at a rate amounting to 107,000 marks ($26,000) less than cost. A similar system is carried out by Krupp, who also for the better housing of his workmen has built at Essen 3677 family dwellings and five barracks, the latter with accommodation for from 2000 to 3000 workmen. The Baden company above mentioned has established a sanitarium in the country, to which those of their workmen whose health requires it are sent for a time in the summer.

The arrangement above mentioned for supplying work-people with the necessaries of life at wholesale cash prices much deserves to be imitated, especially in this country, where the difference between wholesale and retail prices is excessive. And when this system is compared with the companies' stores in the coal and iron regions, carried on upon the well-known "pluck-me-store" system, the contrast is very striking.

This voluntary action on the part of employers in one direction has been supplemented in another by a complete system of government inspection.

It happens unfortunately that many branches of industry are attended with more or less danger to the health and life of the work-people employed in them. Protection against such dangers cannot be safely left to the employer. All precautionary measures involve expense, and the employer who will not use them can produce his wares more cheaply and compete favorably with those who do. Consequently, the matter is one that belongs properly to government direction.

The first step taken in Germany was to appoint commissions, which investigated all the dangerous trades, and reported very fully on the evils found, and their remedies. The entire empire was then divided into fifty-one districts, for each of which a competent inspector was appointed. These inspectors have a right to examine every part of all the factories and work-shops, and to require the establishment of all such reforms as they judge necessary. They confer not only with the employer, but with the workmen. A few instances will serve to show the beneficial effects which have resulted from this system.

In the district of Alsace-Lorraine 663 factories were inspected, out of which 286 were reported as having insufficient ventilation. Out of these 286 factories 209 were for textile industries. Much improvement was being made by the adoption of the system of ventilating with warm and moist air. The introduction of electrical lighting has done much to improve the atmosphere of the work-rooms.

In the manufacture of mirrors great improvement in the health of the work-people has been brought about by the use of silver instead of mercury for coating glass. In the town of Fürth the mirror factory is reported as using silver exclusively for the mirrors sent to North America, and for about two thirds of its entire product. At this factory the number of days of illness caused by mercurial poisoning in 1885 was 4074; in 1889 it was 1003. In 1890 this was reduced to 148, and since May, 1890, there have been no cases at all. When the serious nature of mercurial poisoning is considered, the great improvement brought about, partly by the use of a less poisonous metal and partly by better methods, can be understood.

In the district of Cassel-Wiesbaden the manufacture of chrome gave rise to sickness among the work-people. By improved methods the number of sick days was reduced in one year from 2865 to 899, so that at present the time lost by sickness by those actually engaged in the factory barely exceeds the proportion of loss among the outdoor workmen, masons, carpenters, laborers, etc.

In the great lead-works at Tarnowitz in the district of Oppeln, efforts have been made to check the malignant lead-poisoning caused by the escape of lead fumes. This has been done by connecting all the different furnaces with a powerful ventilator, which draws out the fumes by exhaustion and forces them into a tall chimney. Arrangements are also made for purifying the gases from the lead which they contain. The effect of these changes on the health of the work-people has been very remarkable. The number of sick days has been reduced to *one sixth* of what it was formerly.

In the manufacture of phosphorus matches, the cases of constitutional injury by phosphorus poisoning have been very greatly reduced in number.

The manufacture of mineral fertilizers is attended with danger in all cases where the phosphate rock contains fluor-spar. Such rock when treated with sulphuric acid disengages vapors of hydrofluoric acid which are very injurious to the lungs and also destructive to vegetation. At a factory in the district of Breslau-Liegnitz this danger is completely overcome, and even a profit is made, by bringing the hydrofluoric vapors into combination, and thus obtaining artificial cryolite.

The fouling of streams by the drainage of factories is in all manufacturing districts a source of much trouble. The chemicals used are for the most part injurious to the water in every way, rendering it unfit for drinking, and tending to destroy all animal life contained in it. As a single example it may be mentioned that it has been ascertained by actual trial that one part of burnt lime introduced into 100,000 parts of water in a river is sufficient to kill all the fish contained in it. Stringent measures have been taken in Germany to diminish this evil, though in some cases, and particularly in the manufacture of beet-sugar, it has proved very difficult to find effectual means. But by the use of chemicals it

can be accomplished. The Ströbnitz factory, which works up 70,000 tons of beets each season, and whose waste water amounts to over 1000 gallons per minute, purifies this so thoroughly that a specimen taken by the inspector remained three weeks in a warm room odorless. In some cases it has proved that waste waters containing organic matter which were very injurious to streams by reason of the fermentation which they set up, were found on the other hand very useful to fertilization by means of irrigation. For example, a starch factory on the river Werra caused much damage by fouling the water with the waste products of the manufacture. But when these products were carried to the neighboring farms their fertilizing qualities proved so valuable that the demand for them could hardly be met.

These facts, all derived from official sources (the reports of the inspectors epitomized in the "Chemiker Zeitung"), serve to show what valuable reforms can be effected through the agency of intelligent inspection. The need for such reforms is fully as great here as it was in Germany. The work that meets the eye of the general public is for the most part very healthy. Masons, bricklayers, and carpenters, and generally all mechanics connected with the building trades, have nothing to complain of. Laboring work in cities and in the country is healthy. Where there is unhealthy work and dangerous, it generally goes on in factories and buildings of which the public know little, and to which visitors would not be welcome. In this country, as well as in Germany, there are more persons wanting work than there is work to be done, and consequently there are always people willing and ready to accept any employment, however dangerous. Nor can the humanity of employers always be trusted to supply safeguards, however simple. One or two instances that have come under my observation may serve to illustrate this. There is a factory at which farmers' forks are made in large quantity. These forks require to be ground: this grinding fills the air with small particles of iron, which are inhaled by the workmen, and cause what is known as grinder's consumption. Several of the workmen have died in consequence, leaving families to be cared for by charitable neighbors. The neighbors have urged the owner to introduce a simple and inexpensive contrivance for arresting the particles of iron by means of a magnet, a device in successful use elsewhere—for example, at the Yale Lock Works. The owner refused, although it was shown to him that at the establishment just named the iron saved very nearly paid for the very small cost of the arrangement, and he continues to expose his work-people to this danger.

Some time ago I had occasion to visit a factory at which a chemical is made, the production of which is accompanied by the escape of very poisonous vapors. The work was too dangerous to be carried on in any closed space. It was therefore done out of doors, but no chimney had been built to carry the vapors into the upper air, and they were allowed to spread freely through the inhabited neighborhood. Various accidents had happened; a man who attended to the machine for a short time found his lungs destroyed. The foreman said to me that he had not been able to get anybody to take his place, and was running the machine himself. A few days previous some one venturing into its neighborhood at night did not come back. Search was made for him, and he was found on the ground insensible. Besides this, from what I noticed respecting other poisonous exhalations, I was surprised that any one could work there and survive.

In many textile factories ventilation is purposely excluded, because the work is found to be more perfect when executed in a hot and damp atmosphere. In this way the air becomes so tainted and oppressive that a person not accustomed to it is soon overcome. In some factories the system of introducing a constant supply of air which is warm and damp, but at least fresh and pure, has been adopted. It should be general.

In all these cases those who entirely refuse to adopt precautionary measures can, as already remarked, of course, work a little more cheaply than those who do, thus obtaining a most undeserved advantage. This is one of the many reasons which make the intervention of government a necessity.

It is unfortunately true that in our country the difficulties are exceptionally great. The matter does not fall within the province of the National Government, but must be dealt with by a great number of separate States. Uniformity as it exists in Germany is hardly obtainable. Moreover, manufacturers can always make themselves heard, and are likely to declare that if strict rules are made in any one State, they will establish themselves in some other State where the system is more lax. The working people, whose voice should be heard in this matter emphatically, are often prevented from accomplishing anything by the incapacity of those whom they have selected as leaders.

It is therefore the intelligent people throughout the country who must be made, if possible, to see the importance of this matter, and the injustice of a system under which a workman is tempted, through the stress of necessity, to accept, more or less ignorantly, work which endangers his health and may destroy his ability for self-support. The hope for better things lies in an enlightened public opinion, such as will constrain our State governments to adopt a general system of inspection.

M. Carey Lea.

American Artists Series.

GEORGE INNESS.

WHILE it is doubtless true that we have not yet a distinctive national art,—that is, an art which is spontaneous and indigenous,—it is also true that we have among our artists several who, though not without having profited by the world's best art, are American in the fact that their art is peculiarly their own, and uninfluenced by special schools and fads of Europe.

The man among American painters who is preëminent in this respect is George Inness. His art is entirely his own, and does not contain a hint of the succession of landscape-painters. It is reminiscent of nothing but nature, of which it represents every mood, every season, and every time of day. So rich is his treasury of nature's secrets, so poetic and fertile his brain, so great his power of execution, that although his output is probably as large as that of any other living artist, he never repeats himself, never paints twice just the same mood of nature, the same atmosphere or envelop. Surely, if Alfred Stevens is correct that "art is nature seen through the prism of emotion," then Inness can properly claim to be ranked

among the world's great artists. For each of his canvases gives out some new thought, some freshly distilled essence, some transmutation of the nature of common eyesight into the refined, poetic, and prismatic.

George Inness was born in Newburgh, N.Y., in 1825. He was elected an Associate of the National Academy of Design in 1853, and a full Academician in 1868.

Mr. Inness's art, as was to be expected from a man of his originality, has gone through many phases, and there is a wide difference between his early work and that of the last few years.

DANIEL CHESTER FRENCH.

WE may justly be proud of our little band of sculptors, and we can with good reason lay claim to a rank second to that of France in the picturesque quality of our sculpture, that is, in a certain quality akin to color, —a warmth, a fire, in modeling. Of course our sculpture is largely influenced by that of France. Why should it not be? For French sculpture, although often marred by fleshliness, partakes very largely of the best characteristics of both the Greek and the Renaissance, with a modernness all its own. It is more difficult to recognize individuality in sculpture than in painting, for it has more — many more — limitations, and the sculptor is often hampered by his conditions.

Daniel Chester French is a sculptor who can claim a fair amount of individualism. He has been little influenced by modern foreign work, although he has profited by the quality of modernness in French sculpture. Like George Inness, his art education has been in the main acquired in his own country. Born in Exeter, N. H., in 1850, he studied under Dr. Rimmer for a short period, under J. Q. A. Ward in the same town in 1870, and did not go abroad until his style was formed, and he had seen one of his works (the statue of the "Minute Man") erected at Concord Bridge in 1875. In fact, the whole period of his foreign art-study is covered by the two years spent in the studio of Thomas Ball in Florence, and one year in Paris.

Mr. French's best-known works are the "Minute Man," modeled in 1874, "John Hancock" in 1883, "Dr. Gallaudet and his First Deaf-mute Pupil" in 1888, "Lewis Cass" in 1887 (now at the Capitol at Washington), "Thomas Starr King," the Milmore Memorial in 1891, for which he gained a medal of the third class in the Paris Salon, and his colossal statue of "The Republic" for the World's Fair.

Mr. French's work is characterized by sensitiveness and tenderness. Like a good deal of the work of the Renaissance, its modeling is earnest, delicate, and unchallenging, and, as is shown in the beautiful Milmore Memorial engraved in this magazine, it possesses true poetic feeling.

W. Lewis Fraser.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

"One White May Morning."

ONE white May morning odorous as June
  I wandered with my dearest, dreaming bliss
  Incomparable, if only I might kiss
Her peaceful brow as lightly as the moon
Doth kiss the lilies of a calm lagoon
  When early evening first begins to miss
  Its yellow sunshine; so I told her this,
Timid amid the still, serene forenoon.

Then she made answer, with a tender smile
(A soft wild rosebud, such as might beguile
  The heart of Love himself, could he but see
How winning-sweet her eyelids drooped, the while
  The rosebud blossomed swiftly, blushingly),
  "Am I not better than a kiss? Take me!"

Charles Winfred Douglas.

Not a Boston Girl.

I SEAL the letter, write her name,—
  It 's very dear to me,—
And then I add, beneath the same,
  Two letters — M and D.

I see you smile in quick disdain.
  You think of glasses, too,
And little curls. It 's very plain
  What "M.D." means to you.

But she is neither stern nor cold,
  As you perhaps may think.
She 's young and fair, not grim and old,
  Nor does she scatter ink

On notes of lessons that are said
  Before a learned class;
And from her dainty lips of red
  No long orations pass.

The only studies that she reads
  Are letters that I write;
The only lectures that she heeds
  Are those that I indite.

You wonder how it all may be,
  And do not understand?
She lives in Baltimore. "Md."
  Means, simply,— "Maryland."

James G. Burnett.

The Singer's Excuse.

I READ our sweetest singers' words,
  I hear the music of their voices;
The century 's a cage of birds,
  The multiplying flock rejoices.
"Too many far," the critics scold,
  "Too many," the faint-hearted falter;
Remonstrance, haughty-browed and cold,
  The swelling chorus cannot alter.

What vibrant string forgets to ring
  When kindred sounds are near it throbbing?
Thou canst not scorn, Apollo, king!
  The lowliest reed thy breath sets sobbing.
The molten feeling in us lies,—
  The heart to word and rhyme must coin it.
Ah! who can hear the anthem rise
  Without a throat that aches to join it?

Oh, some may sing for all the years,
  And some for but the fleeting minute,
But singing keeps at bay our fears,
  And each and all have comfort in it!