

## THE BURDEN OF AGE.

"Ah, how the years exile us into dreams!"—WALTER CAREY.

THERE is a dancing in the morning beams,  
There is a rainbow sown amid the dew,  
There is a glint of gold shot through the sands,  
A molten sapphire in the mountains' hue,  
And Hope down comes with all her singing bands.  
Nay, nay, it is not so; 't was long ago!  
There *was* a dancing in the morning beams:  
*Ah, how the years exile us into dreams!*

There is a glamour in the moon's white gleams,  
There is the touch that charmed Endymion's eyes,  
A spirit mounting from the clod and stone,  
A spirit bending from the bending skies—  
And Love in midst of all sets up his throne!  
Nay, nay, it is not so; 't was long ago!  
There *was* a glamour in the moon's white gleams:  
*Ah, how the years exile us into dreams!*

There is a wonder-light on woodland streams,  
A murmur in the green o'erhanging boughs,  
A rustle in the fronded ranks of fern—  
And, lo! the Muse with rapt enwreathèd brows,  
And eyes that seen and unseen things discern!  
Nay, nay, it is not so; 't was long ago!  
There *was* a wonder-light on woodland streams:  
*Ah, how the years exile us into dreams!*

Some other world, perchance, our loss redeems,—  
Light to dead eyes and speech to lips all dumb  
Brings back,—brings us and ours from banishment!  
So may our dreams a living joy become;  
But here all things that are, with doubt are blent,  
Within the mists that blow from long ago!  
Some other world, not this, our loss redeems:  
*Ah, how the years exile us into dreams!*

*Edith M. Thomas.*

## TOPICS OF THE TIME.

### Lowell's Last Gift to Literature.

THAT Lowell could keep in his portfolio unused such literary material as that which Professor Norton has been willing to give to the public through the pages of THE CENTURY, is a new and signal proof of the abounding genius of the man. Such prodigality of wit and learning, invention and illustration, such insight along with such luminous expressiveness, and such sane and wholesome vitality, have belonged in equal measure to no other English writer of our day. It must be that these precious posthumous fragments will

deepen the impression made by Lowell upon the mind of this generation; and they cannot fail to serve as an index, wherever one may be needed, to the splendid store of his already published works.

### Buying and Selling Votes.

WE publish among our "Open Letters" a somewhat startling account by Mr. J. B. Harrison of the extent to which debauchment of the suffrage has been carried in New Hampshire. He estimates the number of purchasable votes in the State at 10 per cent. of the whole,

which is the estimate that the Providence "Journal" made a year or more ago in regard to the same class of votes in Rhode Island. Professor J. J. McCook, writing in the "Forum" for September, 1892, placed the number of venal voters in Connecticut at more than 15 per cent. of the whole number. Our readers have not forgotten the remarkable article which Professor Jeremiah W. Jenks contributed to *THE CENTURY* for October, 1892, in which he showed that in many localities in New York State the percentage of venal voters ranged from 10 to 35 per cent., that in Michigan about 5 per cent. is said to be the average number, and that in other Western States the percentage goes much higher in exciting elections.

It cannot be said, therefore, that Mr. Harrison's figures for New Hampshire are too high to be accepted without question. The saddest part of his statement is that declaring that "a large proportion of the whole number of purchasable votes in the State are those of native New-Englanders." Professor McCook's estimates for Connecticut showed over one half to be Americans. Professor Jenks made no estimate of nationalities, but he cited many cases showing that among those most ready to sell their votes were many native-born Americans.

There is one other point upon which all these students of the problem agree, and that is as to the condition of public sentiment toward the venality. While nobody openly sustains vote-buying, in the heat of campaigns upright members of both parties contribute money which they know will be used for that purpose, and justify their conduct in so doing by such arguments as Mr. Harrison cites. They all deprecate the practice, despise and refuse to trust the men whose votes they buy, but shut their eyes to the immorality of their own conduct in supplying the purchase-money. It must be admitted, too, in deep humiliation, that virtually the whole of the purchase-money is contributed by native Americans. By a kind of moral strabismus these American citizens, in the ordinary walks of life upright and honorable men, persuade themselves that the political cause with which they are allied is so sacred, so essential to the well-being of the country, that its success must be secured at any cost, even that of bribery. "If we do not buy all the votes we can," they say, "our opponents will buy enough to carry the election, and that will never do. We must defeat their corruption with greater corruption, because our cause is so much purer and nobler and more patriotic than theirs." Of course what Mr. Harrison calls the "spirit of the game" is also a powerful influence. Men do not like to be on the losing side, and are willing to pay handsomely for the joys of victory.

In the periods between campaigns there is a strong public sentiment against this corruption of the franchise. We have seen the effects of this in the adoption of the Australian system of voting by nearly all the States, and of corrupt-practice laws in seven of them. The laws which Mr. Harrison refers to in New Hampshire were merely for the adoption of the Australian system, and were not aimed specifically at corruption, though they were, like similar laws in other States, expected to act as a salutary check upon it. Perhaps too much was expected of them in this way, for their practical use in New Hampshire and some other States has shown that their authors left defects in them which

prevented that absolute secrecy in voting which is essential to make any such laws a barrier to bribery. The most intelligent advocates of the Australian system never claimed for it that it would abolish all corruption from elections, but maintained from the outset of their agitation in its favor that it must be supplemented by corrupt-practice laws of the most stringent character. Half-way measures, like the laws of New York, Massachusetts, Michigan, and a few other States, cannot be expected to do more than diminish the evils at which they are aimed. We must have thoroughgoing statutes, like those of Missouri and California, and we must have also a vigilant and determined public opinion to secure their enforcement. We must not merely prohibit bribery and all other forms of corruption, but we must limit the amount of money each candidate can spend, we must enforce a strict public accounting for every penny received and disbursed, and we must deprive of office and of citizenship every candidate or other person who violates the law. Then we shall abolish corruption from our elections as utterly as it has been abolished from English elections. Bribery and corruption in England, previous to the enactment of the Corrupt Practices Law there in 1883, were far more general and more varied in form than they have ever been in this country. So successful was the law from its first trial, that public opinion in England enforces it as one man in every election, the whole people acting as a detective agency to watch candidates and their agents and to bring them to justice if they dare defy the law.

We must arouse ourselves to similar vigilance here, and must do so soon, for popular institutions cannot long stand the strain which such performances as those which Mr. Harrison and others have revealed put upon them in every election. When each great political party stands on guard over the other to prevent it from buying votes, instead of standing, as at present, as a rival bidder, the nefarious business will come to an end. We are confident that this point will be reached in the near future; for in addition to the growth of a healthier public sentiment on the subject, the steadily increasing size of the corruption funds, each succeeding campaign calling for a larger one, is convincing many of the professional politicians themselves that a change must be made.

#### Establish Trade Schools!

IN bringing to a close the series of articles which have appeared in this place during the past year, on the need of trade instruction for American boys, we shall accede to the wish of the late Colonel Auchmuty, expressed on his dying bed, and put what we have to say into the form of a plea for the establishment of trade schools. Our readers have followed the series to slight purpose if they have not been by the evidence adduced that the trade school is the only remedy for the present situation. The passing of the apprentice system, and the control of the American labor field by foreigners, have forced this country to adopt as a remedy the same expedient which the nations of Europe, as we showed in our preceding article, adopted under similar conditions.

Colonel Auchmuty was the pioneer in America in this field of public usefulness, and his New York Trade Schools furnish the model upon which the American system of trade instruction should be erected. When

he established his schools in 1881, trade instruction was almost unknown in this country. It exists at present here in its most perfect form in his schools, which cover nearly an acre of ground, are magnificently equipped, and are placed on a sure and lasting foundation by the munificent endowment fund of half a million dollars presented by Mr. Pierpont Morgan. Their founder's idea, successfully carried out in practice, was to teach thoroughly the science and practice of certain trades, leaving speed of execution to be acquired in real work after leaving the schools. Scientific instruction is given by means of lectures, by hand-books arranged with questions and answers, and by diagrams not only illustrating how work should be done, but showing the difference between good and poor work. Skilled mechanics are employed to give instruction in manual labor, who show the pupil how to hold his tools, how to stand, how to do each kind of work, and even to compel him to do it properly. There are day and evening classes, and pupils desiring to learn a trade quickly may attend both, provided they are able to do so. The trades taught include carpentry, bricklaying, plumbing, plastering, painting, stone-cutting, type-setting, and tailoring. An ambitious boy can learn at these schools in three or four months a trade which under the old apprentice system he could not have acquired in as many years, and can learn it far more accurately and scientifically than he could in a shop, for he is taught the theory as well as the practice of it.

In regard to the quality of the work of the graduates of the Auchmuty schools, their founder wrote only a few days before he died:

The trade schools of New York city make no boast of what they are going to do. They simply point to the work which the graduates have done immediately after leaving the school and without intermediate practice. Brick buildings have been erected by them, the bricklaying of which a visiting committee from the Philadelphia Building Exchange pronounced to be equal to the best, the interior part of it which was not visible being equal to the exterior, which is not always the case with ordinary work. The skill of the graduates of the painters' class is so well known that it has created a wide-spread demand for their services. The plumbing graduates have been told more than once by critically inclined judges that if each plumbing-shop in New York sent a specimen of what its best workmen could do, the exhibit of the work of the graduates could not be excelled.

The attendance at the schools was at first small, beginning at 30, and was drawn mainly from the workshops. It consisted of young men who felt that they were learning little and that what they were learning would be of small use to them in life. These composed the evening classes. Then the day classes began to fill up with young men who had finished their studies in the public schools, who had no occupation in life, and who felt above the menial position of apprentice in a workshop. They were not ashamed to study a trade in a school, and they were quick to see that as scientific masters of a trade they had before them a future of employment at good wages, with a prospect of becoming master mechanics. Steadily the day and evening classes waxed larger, till the annual number reached into the hundreds, and the graduates numbered about 600 a year. They came to the schools from all parts of the United States and Canada, and all came with a genuine thirst for knowledge. The most striking proof of this was to be found in the distances

which many of the pupils of the night classes traveled daily. After working all day, and living so far out of the city that a journey by railway and ferry and street-cars was necessary in order to reach the schools, these would come, spend the evening in the schools, and return home afterward, reaching their beds between eleven o'clock and midnight. Colonel Auchmuty kept a record of these sturdy samples of American perseverance and pluck, and was wont to exhibit it with pride and pleasure as the strongest evidence of the popular craving for the instruction which he was supplying.

In course of time, as the fame of the schools spread over the land, philanthropic persons in other cities visited them and established similar institutions in their own communities. The Master Builders' Exchange in Philadelphia established the Mechanical Trade School, which has now been in successful operation for several years. The Chicago Polytechnic Institute opened a trade school under the supervision of the Chicago Builders and Traders' Exchange. At present trades are taught to beginners at the Pratt Institute in Brooklyn, at the Free Institute in Worcester, at Hampton Institute in Virginia, at Clark University in Georgia, to the Indians at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, and to young men in many asylums and reformatories. There are also in many parts of the land excellent manual-training schools, and the number of these is steadily increasing. Their function is to prepare pupils for the trade schools, and thus enable the latter to accomplish the best results. As Colonel Auchmuty said in one of his many public addresses on the subject:

The plan which seems best suited to American needs, is to let a lad remain at school until eighteen, develop him mentally, morally, and physically, and by the latter I mean to develop his body by gymnastics and his hand and eye by manual training. Then, when he is old enough to know for what sort of work he is suited, let him go, if he wants to be a mechanic, to a trade school to learn his trade, precisely as young men now go to the professional, the agricultural, or the business school. It is unreasonable to waste four or five years in learning what can be acquired in a very much shorter time, and it must also be remembered that machinery is constantly revolutionizing the old trades, and the skill upon the acquirement of which so much time may have been spent may not be needed.

In every great city of the land this idea ought to be put into practical operation by the establishment of at least one great trade school, and the multiplication in all directions of the number of manual-training schools. In what other way can an American do his country so high and necessary a service? Since the New York Trade Schools were established, over four thousand young men have passed through them and out into the world. In an address which Colonel Auchmuty delivered before the American Social Science Association a few years ago, he said of this contribution to sturdy American citizenship as its members passed over the bridge which he had constructed for them between enforced idleness and a life of honest industry:

I seem to see that long procession, full of youthful hope and the earnest desire to succeed in life. Some went over and were not heard from again, others, discouraged, came back, but many, very many, went on, and undaunted by insult or wrong, with true American grit, fought their way to independence and prosperity. Their names fill a good-sized volume, their letters are many in number. From them have come kind messages. "The New York Trade Schools were the making of me," is one that is often heard. And I can safely say that they, with their brave young

hearts, with their perseverance and their trust that right will in the end conquer wrong, have made the New York Trade Schools.

We are being confronted with the question whether within the American republic there is to be established another government of knights of federations and of supreme councils, self-constituted, sitting in secret, judging in secret, and issuing decrees that must be obeyed at the peril of life and property.

Trade-unions, all admit, are necessary for the protection of the wage-earner, but what is wanted are trade-unions controlled by Americans, and not, as at present, by foreigners. Barriers have been erected against the entrance of our countrymen into the trades, while the foreigner is made welcome. Let us have manhood enough, be brave enough, to throw these barriers down. It cannot be done easily, but the time has come to try to do it. Our young men, though graduates of our public schools, stand on every street corner, begging for the privilege of being allowed to work in the land of their birth. Fill the workshops with them. They will then control the trade organizations, and labor difficulties will disappear; for intelligent, well-educated American workmen while maintaining their own rights will respect the rights of others.

With that eloquent appeal from the founder of a system of instruction which we are confident will grow into national dimensions before many years shall have passed, we leave the subject for the present. There must surely be in this land of wealth and great private fortunes many men who will be glad to follow in the footsteps of Colonel Auchmuty, and, like that model citizen and true patriot, win the title of national benefactor.

#### Notes to the Apprentice Series.

WE have received many letters while the publication of the series of articles now brought to a close has been in progress, relating to various aspects of the subject, a few of which call for brief notice.

A manufacturer in Providence, Rhode Island, thinks mention should be made of the fact that the machine-shops and foundries throughout New England, in Philadelphia, and other parts of the East, are in the habit of taking apprentices. We were aware of that fact, but it seems to us to form merely an exception to the general rule—to show that in a few trades the old apprentice system still retains a foothold.

A letter from Port Huron, Michigan, contends that in saying that the trade-unions admit freely foreign laborers who come here during the busy season, returning to Europe at its close, we were in error so far as the International Union of Bricklayers and Masons is concerned, for under Article 13, Section 10 of that union's constitution, no person can join the union without first "declaring his intention of becoming a citizen of the United States or Canada." Our authority for the statement assailed is the report for 1885 of the New York Commissioner of Labor, Mr. Peck, which contains a separate chapter on the subject, giving the testimony of the laborers themselves. In a table summing up the results of his inquiries, Mr. Peck gives the number of bricklayers who come into New York from Europe annually during the busy season and return again at its close as 300. On page 489 of the report the testimony of John J. Donnelly, a bricklayer, is given, in which he places the number of men in his trade who "come over from Europe and work during the busy season, and then return," at 10 per cent. "Do they belong to your union?" Donnelly is asked, and his reply is: "Yes, they do. They join our organization. They can go home and come back again on the same card. Every

man who joins our union gets what we call a working-card; it is good for six months; very few run over six months: it is then out, and he has to pay his initiation fee over again."

It is plain from this testimony that the provision which our Port Huron correspondent cites is not enforced in New York. His citation of it shows that Canadian citizenship is regarded by the union on equal terms with American; and one of the working-men's grievances set forth in the testimony in Mr. Peck's report is that great numbers of Canadians come into this country with Europeans during the busy season.

We have received also a valued letter from the Rev. Frederick H. Wines, of the Census Bureau, correcting some unofficial figures which we quoted in the September number of *THE CENTURY* in regard to the number of penitentiaries, county jails, and their cost of maintenance, etc. Mr. Wines gives the official figures as follows: The number of penitentiaries and State prisons is 75; the number of county jails is 2600. The capacity of all the prisons does not exceed 100,000 or 125,000. The average cost of construction has not been more than \$1000 per capita, so that the total cost must have been somewhere between \$100,000,000 and \$150,000,000. The cost of maintenance at about \$200 per prison, which is a fair average allowance, involves in all our prisons and reformatories an annual outlay of about \$20,000,000, from which must be deducted the earnings, which are not large. Mr. Wines adds:

The cost of prisons is, however, but a small portion of the cost of crime. The police and the courts must also be taken into account, and the private and individual losses, as well as the expense involved for the support of criminals not actively engaged in the practice of their nefarious pursuits, while "looking for a job," outside of prison walls. It is misleading to base comparisons upon the census, and to say, as *THE CENTURY* does: "Since 1850, we have had an increase of 445 per cent. in criminals as compared with an increase of 170 per cent. in population." The increase in the criminal population has not been nearly so great as the census would make it appear.

Some of our readers have been unable to reconcile the conclusions drawn by Mr. Lodge in his article on "The Census and Immigration," in the September *CENTURY*, with those drawn in the editorial article on "Idleness and Crime" in the same number. There is really no conflict between the two. Mr. Lodge based his deductions on all white convicts in penitentiaries, county jails, and a few other penal institutions, while the deductions in the editorial were based upon the white male convicts in all penitentiaries, prisons, county jails, and reformatories. A glance at the totals used in the two articles will show that different sets of figures were used.

#### Lessons of the Silver Delusion.

THE first lesson which we trust this country has learned from its recent disastrous experience with depreciated silver money is a correct idea of what constitutes a standard or measure of value. Without such a standard there can be no trade, no commerce,—either domestic or foreign,—no industry, no civilization.

All nations from the dawn of civilization have been seeking by practical experiment and daily trial to find the best instrumentality for this purpose. One after another they have come to the conclusion that gold, more than any other thing known to men, best meets the

demand. What is wanted is a scale to which all commodities can be brought to have their value ascertained, or, in other words, a common denominator of values. It must have the highest attainable degree of stability in its own value; that is, must represent such an average amount of labor in its production from month to month and from year to year, that its value will vary only in an imperceptible degree as time advances. It must be so scarce that a small quantity of it will have a large value, in order that it may pass readily from hand to hand and be transported easily from place to place; so durable as to be impressionable and capable of division and subdivision and reunion without loss; and of a value so universally recognized as to be accepted without question at its face-value the world over.

In reaching the conclusion, after a hundred years of experiment, that gold, above all other commodities, best meets these requirements, the civilized nations of the earth have simply been profiting by human experience. They have found, one after another, experimenting separately, that gold is the best instrumentality for measuring values and effecting exchanges, and they have united to make it the money of account in the commercial world, and of all international trade. They have done this, not out of a sentimental regard for gold as gold, or out of a mysterious and inexplicable hostility to silver as silver, but because as a demonstrated fact gold performs, to quote the lucid language of Professor Taussig, "the functions of a measure of value and of a standard of value with as close an approach to perfection as there is any reasonable ground for expecting from any monetary system."

What we had been doing in this country from 1878 to the revolt against the silver-purchase act, was to ignore and defy this decision of civilized mankind, this fruit of human experience for hundreds of years, and to try to set up as our standard of value an instrumentality which had been abandoned by other nations after long trial, because it lacked the first requisite of a measure of value—stability. The mere threat of such conduct was sufficient to unsettle American credit the world over. In proportion as we advanced toward the accomplishment of the threat this alarm increased, until credit was entirely destroyed and the country was brought to the verge of financial, commercial, and industrial collapse. The entire trouble was due to a fear that we would repudiate the gold standard and gold values, and pay all our debts in the depreciated and unstable value of silver.

In no other country in the world could a threat of this remarkable kind have been made with more disastrous results. Our great need is more capital, especially for the South and West. The great source of supply for this is foreign countries, yet we made it impossible for them to send it here by casting a doubt upon the value of the money in which we would repay our loans. The consequence was that millions of money which would have come here naturally, had there been no doubt about our standard of value, were locked up in London and other foreign cities, its owners preferring to let it lie idle rather than to loan it on such uncertain security as we offered. Precisely the same effect was produced upon domestic capital lying in savings-banks

and elsewhere, and that, too, was withheld from trade. Here, too, doubts about the value of our money in the future led to general hoarding, and money was so scarce that it commanded a premium for use in the transaction of business. Industrial establishments were closed, and thousands of laborers were thrown out of employment. Banks were forced to suspend, business houses doing a legitimate trade upon borrowed capital were forced to fail, and the whole country fell into the most widespread and distressing period of business depression that it had ever known.

Behind the delusion for silver there lingered an idea that as a cheaper money it was to be desired by the debtor class—that gold was the money of the rich man and silver the money of the poor. We trust that this idea has been exploded forever in this country. Our readers will remember that we have maintained steadily in our articles in this department on "Cheap-Money Experiments," that the only money that the poor man wants is the best money, and that he is always the worst sufferer from cheap money. The worst sufferers from the recent depression were the poorer classes. As working-men, thousands of them were thrown out of employment. Through bank failures, many others, widows and orphans among them, lost a part or the whole of all they had in the world. Others, through the inability of banks and other concerns to pay dividends on their stock, because of the stagnation and suspension of business and loans, received no income upon their investments. The money-lenders of the world are not all rich men, as we have pointed out on former occasions, but people in moderate and even narrow circumstances who trust their little fortunes and earnings to capitalists and financiers to invest for them. The incomes of all these were cut off for a long period by this infatuation for silver and unreasoning hostility to gold.

Could anything be more preposterous than the denunciation, so common a few months ago, of gold as the "money of monarchs"? It is the money of the poor man the world over. He is a creditor for every day's work, and he wants his pay in the best and dearest money known to man. He wants to lend his savings with absolute certainty that he will get his loan back again, as well as his interest on it, in as good money as he loaned. He, like everybody else who either lends or borrows, wants the best and surest standard of value. In finding this, the experience of the human race is the only guide to follow. Other nations have found that in gaining a market for the surplus products of their labor they must employ the very best machinery of trade—railroads, steamships, the telegraph, money. We must do the same, or fall behind them in the march of civilization. There can be no nationality in standards of value. It is as absurd to attempt that in modern times, where the world's produce is sold in a common market, as to attempt in this country to have sectional standards, one for the East and another for the South and West. If we wish to trade with the world on the most favorable terms, we must adopt the world's medium of exchange and measure of value, for in that way alone can we deal with other nations on an equal footing.

## OPEN LETTERS.

### The Sale of Votes in New Hampshire.

THE number of votes in New Hampshire which are purchasable, and are sometimes purchased, is probably about 10 per cent. of the whole number of votes in the State. The men who have most acquaintance with the facts think this estimate too low. It appears to be certain that the number is increasing. Some of the purchasable voters are young French Canadians who have been here only a short time. They think it a sort of "lark" when they find they are to be paid something for their votes, and are apparently not aware of any serious wrong-doing in the transaction. Many of them afterward become good citizens and do not continue to sell their votes. Very few of the votes of our Irish citizens are purchasable. A large proportion of the whole number of purchasable votes in the State are those of native New-Englanders who, for any reason, have reached a "run-down" and "played-out" condition, have "lost their grip" and their chance, if they ever had any, and who have wounded and bruised their self-respect so often, and in so many ways, that it has lost most of its sensibility. Many of them are eager to find a purchaser, and some of them show business ability in playing off one offer against another, so as to obtain the best possible price for the only commodity they ever have for sale. These, of course, are entirely shameless, and as void of moral sense as hungry swine. There is also a considerable number of men, fairly good citizens in other respects, whose votes are purchasable. Some of them are poor, and the price tempts them. It seems an easy way of making a few dollars, and they see little harm in it. But these "pretty good men" are apt to deteriorate after they have a little experience in selling their votes.

It is not always possible to discover why a man sells his vote. The essential feature in the case is the fact that under existing conditions about such a proportion of men will, and do, sell their votes. There is no room for doubt, I think, that the number of purchasable votes is slowly increasing here, and an important proportion of this increase results from causes which are not accidental, superficial, or temporary, but which belong to the fundamental character and substance of our civilization.

When votes are sold they are, of course, also bought. The buyers of votes are the managers of the principal political parties. The actual processes of buying and paying for the votes are usually assigned to agents who are not candidates for office. These agents are well acquainted with the voters, have good memories, and some capacity for organizing and directing men.

Both the great political parties are engaged in the purchase of votes. It would not be much of a business if only one party engaged in it. Its very essence is the competition between the buyers, which runs up the price, and stimulates the sellers to vigorous effort to make the best possible bargain.

The number of votes which are purchasable, and are

purchased, would probably often decide our elections if all or nearly all of them could be secured for either of the two principal political parties; but these votes are usually so divided between the parties that the result is uncertain until the votes are all counted and the returns all in. Any considerable preponderance of the purchasable vote in favor of either party depends upon superior management and superior contributions of money for the purchase of votes. When either party has more money available for this purpose than usual, good generalship consists in concealing this fact from the other party, and in being ready everywhere, on the morning of election day, to handle the purchasable vote promptly and effectively before the leaders on the other side find out what is going on. When the business actually begins at any polling-place, the local managers on the other side are of course soon aware of the fact; but it is then too late, usually, to overcome the advantage possessed by the party having the most money.

What is called public sentiment is, in a qualified way, strong and decided in opposition to this traffic; but the opposition to it is qualified in a very important manner and degree in the minds of the members of each political party by the feeling that it is much better to obtain success by the purchase of votes than to allow their antagonists to succeed by the same means. They say, "The sale of votes is undoubtedly wrong, and a portentous evil, but we did not invent or begin it, and are not responsible for it. As it is certain to be practised to a great extent, and the election may very likely be decided by it, it is better for us to avail ourselves of this means of success than to allow the opposite party to come into power by the use of the same instrument." This qualification, of course, neutralizes the objection, and removes from the public sentiment which is opposed to the sale of votes about all of its vitality. It is not in any great degree efficient in opposition to the purchase of votes while this nefarious business is carried on to such an enormous extent by the opposite party. Contempt for those who sell votes is common; but the public sentiment, which is always, without wavering or compromise, opposed to the purchase of votes, and which with prompt and unalterable decision rejects all chances of partizan advantage which might be gained by this means, is not a vital or considerable influence in this State. Such a public sentiment is not, I think, predominant or very vigorous in a majority of the citizens of any State of our country. I am obliged to admit this conclusion after considerable observation in nearly all the States.

Some years ago I happened to be in an important city in another New England State, at a meeting of educators, moralists, clergymen, literary people, and others interested in social, moral, and national advancement and reform. It was the day after the October election in Indiana, and at the noon recess of the meeting many of us who were in attendance walked down to the railway station to meet the train bringing the daily papers, that we might obtain news of the result, which was be-

lieved to prefigure that of the national election to be held a few weeks later. The easy social talk in the company was on this topic, and as we neared the station and heard the coming train, one of the leading men remarked, "There is no room for doubt that the State has been carried by the use of money, and I only hope our side has used enough of it to win." Several said, "Yes; I hope so," and there was no dissent. I waited; but as there was no protest, I asked, "Is not that rather dangerous ground?" This brought out a thoroughgoing defense of the plan of "carrying a State" by the purchase of votes, "under the circumstances, mind you"; the justifying reason urged being the importance of the success of the right party. As it happened, about all of us were at the time members of the "right party," and nearly all the company joined in this argument or applauded it, but all said that it was a sad state of things when men would sell their votes.

I could not see, and do not now, how selling votes is worse than buying them; but this is not the common or popular way of looking at the matter. Those who buy this commodity often despise those who sell it to them. I know a man who owns considerable property, who, it is said, received twenty-five dollars for his vote not long ago. Soon afterward he applied for a loan at the bank in his own town, offering ample security. But the principal officer of the bank, who was the local leader of the party which had purchased the vote, said: "No; he sold us his vote the other day. He can have no accommodations at this bank."

But the men who buy votes in this State are for the most part not impelled to the practice by attachment to the principles or policy of their party. The main inspiring and controlling feeling of the purchasers of votes here is *the spirit of the game*, the same feeling that it will not do to be beaten which actuates those who engage in a race or any similar contest. The leaders of both parties in this State say they regret that vote-buying is a feature of political contests here, and would be glad to see it laid aside or abolished. But neither side can stop while the other goes on, and there is no means or agency to bring about the effective coöperation of the two parties for the suppression of the evil.

In 1891 our legislature enacted a very stringent law to insure the purity of elections, and the leaders of each party almost forgot their manners in the effort to be first and most clamorous in advocacy of the measure. Men who had grown old in vote-buying denounced the practice with fervid eloquence, and urged the enactment of the law, which, they affirmed, would render our elections absolutely pure, and make every vote "the untrammelled expression of a free-man's unpurchased will." The new law was highly complex, and its penalties were severe. It was very extensively and easily violated. Some of the men who helped to enact the law have since violated it while acting as election officers under its provisions. Our legislature enacted another new election law last winter, but there is no perceptible advance in public interest or sentiment regarding the traffic in votes; and as no law has much self-executing power, neither the new law nor any other is likely to have much deterrent effect. It is not likely that the evil will come to an end or be greatly diminished very soon, or as an effect of any causes now in operation.

I have said that there are enough purchasable votes in the State to decide our elections if they were all, or nearly all, cast on one side. In some of our State elections the decisive majority is so small, and the number of purchased votes is relatively so large, as to render it entirely uncertain which party has a majority of the legal, unpurchased votes. If either party should denounce vote-buying unequivocally, and should abstain from it entirely, it would probably be defeated in every election.

Nobody appears to be specially responsible for the evil. It is a feature and product of our collective character, and of the stage of civilization which we have reached in New Hampshire. Various undesirable conditions and influences unite to uphold and perpetuate it, and it reinforces these unfavorable elements in turn. We have comparatively little discussion of public questions or political subjects; the results esteemed desirable being more readily obtained, it is thought, by quiet management and personal arrangements. The system has complex relations, and it is likely to last long enough for the most thorough study or investigation by anybody who wishes to examine it, and for the testing of any remedy which students of civilization may think it worth while to suggest.

FRANKLIN FALLS, N. H.

J. B. Harrison.

#### The New School of Italian Opera.

It is probable that when Mascagni wrote "*Cavalleria Rusticana*" he builded better than he knew. The remarkable success of this short opera, and that of Leoncavallo's "*I Pagliacci*," can be attributed to nothing else so readily as to the unexpected answer to a public demand. It may be doubted whether the demand had a self-conscious existence, but the manner in which the Italians, Germans, English, and Americans have welcomed the short tragic operas is equivalent to a cry of "This is what we have desired." In a word, men and women of the day are not disposed to have their tragedies spun out to inordinate lengths. The three-volume novel has yielded to the story of forty or fifty thousand words. The epic poem has given way to the lyric in popular esteem. The electric telegraph has remodeled art as well as literature by creating a demand for speed in reaching the point; "Brevity is the soul of wit" has been written across every department of intellectual productiveness.

There was bound to be a reaction in the world of opera. It matters little where we discern the origin of the reaction. "*Cavalleria Rusticana*" was made known to the world as the winner of a prize offered for the best one-act opera. If, therefore, we hold that the reaction was the result of extraordinary shrewdness on the part of an Italian publisher seeking for some means of opposing the approaching supremacy of Teutonic works in his country, we do not modify the esthetic conditions leading to the change. For many years operas had been of too great length. So long as they were built on the Neapolitan lines, and consisted of disconnected arias dangled on a string of recitative, the length was not felt, because the attention was not constantly held. Nor did the Meyerbeer method, with its kaleidoscope of ballets, processions, quasi-dramatic ensembles, and

spectacular duos, weary the mind. These operas had their great moments and their insignificant half hours.

But when Wagner came with his closely knit scores, built on a system which appealed at once to the emotion and the intellect, and from beginning to end claimed unceasing attention, the listener found his powers somewhat overtaxed. Of course those who insisted on listening to the Wagner music-drama as they did to the Rossini opera grew weary with waiting for the aria that never came. But the earnest lover of art, who was not, like Glück's opponents, unwilling to "pay two florins to be passionately excited and thrilled instead of being amused," became aware when the curtain fell for the last time that he was weary. A recent biographer of Wagner declares that he could sit through one of the master's longest works twice without becoming tired. Some persons whom I know always feel after a performance of "Tristan," or "Die Götterdämmerung," as if they had been through a great emotional struggle, and they go home exhausted. The reign of these overwhelming, absorbing master-works was bound to bring about a reaction. I must not be misunderstood as intimating that Wagner's day is over. It has not yet reached its high noon. But

When went there by an age, since the great flood,  
But it was famed with more than with one man?

The action of *Sonzogno* in offering the prize brought the new men and the new style to the front a year or two earlier than they would otherwise have come. The enormous tragedies of Wagner will continue to hold the stage by reason of the opulence of genius displayed in them. The works of Mascagni and Leoncavallo may or may not live, for it is still an open question whether they have the essence of greatness. But they have shown how a powerful, absorbing music-drama may be constructed so as to occupy about two hours in performance, and send the hearer home, not with his emotional resources drained, but with every feeling quickened, and his whole spiritual being thrown into a glow by the rapidity of the tragic history revealed to him.

What methods have these new men adopted, and what are they worth? The general impression that they have produced a new, style is wholly erroneous. Their works are, without doubt, a direct outgrowth of an attempt to achieve conciseness without abandoning the contemporaneous Italian manner. Of that manner the master is Verdi, and his works are the models. Of course I do not mean his older operas, in which he himself was content to build after the Neapolitan pattern. I speak of his two later operas, "Aïda" and "Otello," in which he showed a determination to break away from the traditions which a long line of gifted men from Alessandro Scarlatti to Donizetti had fastened upon Italian opera. Verdi has been accused of imitating Wagner, or at any rate of yielding to his influence. The great Italian master undoubtedly did perceive that the Wagner theory, "The play's the thing," which so notable an artist must always have felt to be the true one, had got hold of the public mind. He certainly saw that the rigidity of the old operatic forms would have to give way before the dramatic idea. And he quite as surely discerned the necessity of abandoning the cut-and-dried dance-rhythms and timidly subservient accompaniments of Bellini and Donizetti. But it is beyond

question that he did not set up Wagner as his model. He found a more congenial example nearer home. In the French opera, from its inception to the present time distinguished for flexible, expressive melody, dramatic purpose, and employment of the instrumental force for the enrichment of its emotional utterance, Verdi must have seen a model more suitable to a Latin race than the rugged, sweeping, militant style of Wagner. The swan of Busseto was far too wise to try to make his countrymen accept him in his old age wearing a Teutonic wolf's hide.

"Aïda" and "Otello," but especially the former, are the works in which Mascagni and Leoncavallo found the patterns for their melody and harmony. They have striven to advance beyond Verdi in complexity of rhythm and freedom from cautious processes of modulation. Here, of course, those who are fond of attributing all that is progressive in contemporaneous musical art to the genius of Wagner may detect the influence of the Bayreuth master; and no doubt he did show how many of the fundamental principles of Bach's polyphony could be applied to modern harmony with beautiful results. In "Aïda," Verdi introduced into Italian opera a totally new set of rhythms and a novel restlessness of harmony. In "Otello" he went still further, some of his modulations being quite as abrupt as Wagner's famous step from A flat into A natural in the "death motive" of "Tristan und Isolde." Mascagni and Leoncavallo have gone still further, but the attempts are so forced as to expose the method. Some of their modulations are obviously made for the sake of oddity.

These peculiarities, however, cannot be regarded as the result of the desire to be brief, except in so far as abrupt transition avoids the circumlocutory processes of modulation for which Spohr was censured. Nor can the absence of the *aria da capo*, the central sun of the old operatic system, be counted to the credit of these younger Italians. Verdi and the Germans had already shown its worthlessness, and a repeat for the sake of formality was not to be thought of in music whose purpose it was to avoid points of repose except at the ends of dramatic episodes. The greatest achievement of these young men in their condensation is the development to a high, if not the highest possible, point of the beautiful *arioso* style of Italy—a style which combines most of the powerful expressiveness of the Teutonic declamation with all of the vocal elegance and essentially singable qualities of the Neapolitan manner. The old-fashioned recitative, which in the earlier operas formed the connecting-links between the set pieces, is now used only rarely and in moments of the most colloquial dialogue. It was used largely for such dialogue in the earlier works; but the new libretti, condensing every scene to its most terse expression, bring the periods of high emotion closer together, and keep the music, which aims to express the feelings of the text faithfully, constantly throbbing with eloquent melody.

The short melodic phrase, used to signify some particular feeling, is employed with taste, discrimination, and dramatic force by these new writers, but it is not made the backbone of a system as it is in Wagner's wonderful structures of *leit-motiven*. Here again Mascagni and Leoncavallo have shown judgment. The *leit-motif* is far more suitable to a work of large extent,



in which there is room for a free treatment of a number of fundamental melodic ideas, than to a short opera, in which the score, from too much compression, would lose flexibility if built wholly of fixed ideas. Bizet in "Carmen" and Verdi in "Otello" made use of this modification of the *leit-motif* system, but it is much more effective in a short work than in a long one.

It cannot be doubted that the present movement in Italian opera is beneficial. The elements of the old Italian works were admirable; it was the undramatic combination of them that was to be censured. Mascagni and Leoncavallo are not men of creative genius; but Scarlatti and Meyerbeer were not, and yet each set a fashion in operatic writing. The two young men of to-day have shown how to make the opera swift, direct, and irresistible in its effects. It will be strange if the public approval of their methods does not produce a school of followers.

W. J. Henderson.

#### A Memory of Whittier.

IT was about sunset one Friday that I went to see Mr. Whittier, in answer to his message. I found him lying on the sofa of a square, old-fashioned room the two front windows of which faced the setting sun. He insisted on leaving the reclining position, and showed all his old interest in life; indeed, the illness which had come to him seemed at first hardly more than an indisposition in one always delicate.

"I want thee to go out on the balcony," said Mr. Whittier, "and get my glimpse of the ocean."

It was a glimpse of broad meadows, with great elms, over the Hampton marshes, then a golden brown, to the strip of sea where the white sails were. When I stepped back to the room, Mr. Whittier said, "Now I want to tell thee all about myself, and to-morrow thee will come again."

The next morning, after a night of good rest, came a sudden change, and with it the speech was less free and clear for a few hours. Later, in spite of increasing weakness, there was a return of power to talk, and the few words he cared to say were perfectly clear to accustomed ears. With great sensitiveness to sights and sounds, he could bear only the presence needed to administer to his wants, and it was advised that none save those in immediate attendance should be admitted to his room. At times we thought he gained, but he knew better than we. Food and medicines were a weariness; yet, for the sake of those who longed to help him, he would try to take the offered nourishment.

Sunday was a serenely beautiful day. The wonted peace of the lovely little village seemed even more peaceful because of the dying poet. The smell of the sweet clover, the silence broken only by the rustle of the leaves, come back to me when I try to put in words the story of that time. There were no dramatic incidents in those last days; the quiet end was like the quiet life. With a full appreciation that it must be good-by, he said to his niece, "Love only—love—to—the—world"; and she answered "Yes, dear," and gently laid him back on the pillow.

As I held his hand I heard him say, more to him-

self than to me, "There are so many beyond;" and a little later, "It is all right."

The thought of immortality was never far from this sweet singer through his long, busy, active life; sometimes accompanied by a speculative inquiry into the unknown, more often with a trustful belief that "the dear Lord ordereth all things well." Shortly before this last illness he had said to an old friend, "As I grow older, a future life seems to me more certain, though I think less and less of definite details." Now, as I sat beside him, the last journey seemed the natural, simple thing; the other life seemed a present reality.

During that day and the two following, at intervals, we replaced one another, that he might never miss the human grasp for which he evidently cared. Monday came with little change, Tuesday was also a record of some pain and restlessness; but notwithstanding the weakness of body, he expressed in broken sentences gratitude for the offered help.

Tuesday evening he motioned an attendant to raise the curtain to admit the last rays of the setting sun. That night, when we had given up all hope of his recovery, the friends who were in the house assembled for the first time about the bedside. While the poet lay sleeping, that sleep from which he never awoke on earth, one with a saint-like face under the Friends' cap repeated in her beautiful voice Whittier's own words:

On my days of life the night is falling,  
And in the winds from unshaded spaces blown  
I hear far voices out of darkness calling  
My feet to paths unknown,

Thou who hast made my home of life so pleasant,  
Leave not its tenant when its walls decay;  
O Love divine, O Helper ever present,  
Be thou my strength and stay!

Be near me when all else is from me drifting,

The end seemed to us a translation. When the dawn came in at the balcony window, over the marshes and the meadows, the spirit had gone so gently that we listened for the breath, and it had ceased.

Sarah Ellen Palmer.

#### American Artists Series.

HORATIO WALKER.

HORATIO WALKER was born in Listowell, Canada, thirty-five years ago. His initial step in art was in miniature painting in the studio of J. A. Fraser. Later he came to New York, where by dint of inborn talent and careful and conscientious study of the best available examples of art, he has earned for himself a creditable position in the ranks of American artists.

He has a delicate color-sense, is a fair draftsman, and besides his own veracious observation of nature, possesses in a marked degree the power of assimilating the best in both foreign and native art.

The painting, an engraving of which appears on page 46, was exhibited in the rooms of the Society of American Artists in the spring of 1893.

W. Lewis Fraser.

## TOPICS OF THE TIME.

### A Christmas Thought.

IN the time of the year especially devoted to generous thoughts and deeds, why may not one nourish the patriotic hope that the strain of feeling which has lately shown itself between certain sections of the country on the financial question may be somewhat allayed? With our enormous extent of territory and variety of interests, such a strain is at any time possible. Fortunately the war for the Union did not settle merely the bitter and tormenting question of slavery. The permanent decision then made of the question of national unity was worth all the cost of that desperate struggle. It is for this reason that the martial threats of heated partizans nowadays appeal rather to the sense of humor than to that of fear.

In the great currency struggle which has of late been in progress there has surely been dogged selfishness, as well as a plentiful lack of wisdom. But there has at times been an attribution of bad faith when men were acting with absolute sincerity, on lines of conviction. (We speak now not of the obstructive Senate, but of the debate outside of the Senate.) Neither side has perhaps fully realized, or been willing to acknowledge, this view of an opponent's position. In the pause of the winter holidays, when "charity" is always so much in mind, every good American may well recall Lincoln's generous phrase, and apply it to the condition of things now existing, in "charity for all" and "malice toward none."

### Two Historical Portraits.

OF interest in connection with the diary of the voyage of Napoleon to St. Helena, printed in *THE CENTURY* for October and November, is the portrait of the Emperor shown on page 303. It is believed to be reproduced here for the first time, though portraits in a similar pose are extant. The original of our cut is a sketch of the Emperor made from life on board the *Bellerophon* in 1815 by Captain Marryat. It will be remembered that it was from this vessel that Napoleon was transferred to the *Northumberland* on the voyage to Elba. The original is a water-color, and is the property of the officers' mess at the United States Military Academy at West Point, to whom it was presented by the distinguished tragedian Henry Irving, having been given to him (as an inscription in his handwriting records) by Gilbert Farquhar, June 30, 1885. The probability that this attribution of the sketch to Captain Marryat is correct is strengthened by the facts that according to his daughter's memoir of him, Marryat was in England in 1815, and that he was a clever sketcher, as witness his well-known drawing of Napoleon made a few hours after the Emperor's death, Marryat being at this time in command of the *Beaver*, an English cruiser, at St. Helena.

The engraving of General Grant at Mount McGregor, printed on page 225, is of unique and historical interest, and its publication will revive in many a heart the touching experiences of the sad summer of 1885. It is here given by permission of Mrs. Grant.

### An Interesting Experiment in Municipal Reform.

A YEAR or more ago a somewhat novel experiment in the direction of better municipal government was started in a Western city of about 7000 inhabitants. The city was not suffering from public scandals at the time. It had among its officials many men who were prosperous and respected citizens, and its government was fairly well administered. Still, there was a feeling among many of its citizens that the interests of the city would be promoted, and the public welfare enhanced, if the community as a whole could be brought to take a lively interest in the conduct of its affairs. In other words, they set themselves about the task of fostering public spirit and local pride.

For this purpose they formed an association consisting of the ministers of such churches as could be induced to join the movement, and a certain number of prominent citizens representing all religious and political creeds. This association adopted as its constitution the following brief but comprehensive declaration of purposes and beliefs:

The object of this association shall be the promotion of municipal affairs in this city. It shall foster and encourage a good moral tone, uphold correct business principles, promote hygiene, and also interest itself in proper methods of education. It shall encourage the execution of the laws, uphold the officials in the performance of their duties, and recommend and urge the passage of such other ordinances, rules, and regulations as may be of public benefit.

We believe that as a rule better municipal government will be secured by proper encouragement of officials in the enforcement of laws than by distinctive organizations for that purpose. We believe also that municipal officials have received too little commendation for honest efforts in the past in the arduous performance of their duties, and we will to the extent of our ability give due regard to merit wherever it may be found, but will also faithfully examine into, report upon, and be governed by the facts where there has been dereliction in official duty.

We believe that municipal affairs should be conducted in accordance with honest business methods, keeping in mind also the health and morals of the citizens, and that national political issues, as such, should not control city elections.

Committees were appointed on several branches of municipal administration, with directions to collect and collate accurate information pertaining to the different departments, and to report to the association with such recommendations as they saw fit, all such reports and recommendations to be laid before public meetings, which were to be called from time to time for their consideration. When the first public meeting was called the attendance was very large, and so much interest was displayed in the reports presented that an adjourned meeting was held for the fuller consideration of them. The newspapers of all parties have sustained the movement from the outset, and its career promises to be one of great usefulness.

What this modest association is attempting to do in this little Western town is to develop what Professor James Bryce calls the "home side of patriotism," and which he defines as the willingness "to take trouble—

personal and even tedious trouble—for the well-governing of any public community one belongs to, be it a township or parish, a ward or a city, or the nation as a whole." The disinclination to "take trouble" about political matters is the chief cause of our evils of misgovernment. The average citizen exclaims, when his attention is called to the wretched way in which his municipal affairs are conducted, "Oh, I have no time to bother with politics!" and having said that, he gives no further thought to the subject. The idea that he owes a duty to the community in which he lives, which ought to compel him to take a personal interest in the management of its affairs, never occurs to him, or if it does occur to him, he waves it aside as the view of some visionary reformer. This is a state of mind which must be corrected if we are ever to have really good municipal government in this country, and we can conceive of no more effective method for correcting it than that of this Western town association. Everything that tends to create popular interest in public affairs is a step toward better government; for the people as a whole are always honest, are always in favor of intelligent and economic management of public affairs, and are always quick to respond to appeals to their local or public pride. They are as ready to commend a faithful public servant as they are to condemn an unfaithful one, but they must be actively interested in the doings of both before they can be depended upon to express judgment in either direction.

The task of following up the various city departments is much more difficult in a great city like New York, in which local pride is not as strong as it should be, and in which the struggle for existence is so strenuous that most men have little time or strength left for public affairs. Yet even in New York this method, as practised by a similar organization, has proved more effective than any other.

When once interest in public affairs has been aroused, the work of reform becomes easy. Then the intelligent body of citizens begin to realize how entirely a matter of good business management the conduct of a city's affairs ought to be; and if they become active partners in such management, they will see to it that the whole community enjoys the benefits which are certain to flow from honest, intelligent, and economic administration; for those are the qualities which are the essentials in the successful conduct of any business. Having realized this, they will perceive at once that the issues and divisions of national politics have no place in municipal politics, except to cause harm, and they will eliminate them speedily and completely. The great and all-controlling force is public spirit, or local pride, or civic duty, or, best name of all, the "home side of patriotism." Every community in this country needs more of this, and every movement which is calculated to foster and increase it is a movement of genuine patriotism.

What is the reader doing for his own community in the direction above indicated?

#### Free and Other Coinage.

WE are asked to give answers in simple terms to the following questions:

- (1) What is free coinage?
- (2) How does an ounce of silver or of gold get from the mines to the "pockets of the people" as money?
- (3) What have been the leading features of American coinage laws since the foundation of our Government?

In replying to these questions we can make our answers more logical by beginning with the last, or third. The Constitution of the United States vested in Congress the power to coin money, and to regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin; and soon after the formation of the General government an act was passed by Congress, approved April 2, 1792, establishing a national mint at Philadelphia, and authorizing a national coinage of gold and silver at the ratio of 1 to 15. Both were made a legal tender without limit, and the coinage was free to all persons depositing bullion at the mint. The bullion was weighed on receipt, in presence of the depositor, and a certificate of weight was given to him. It was then melted into a bar, and a piece was cut from this for assay, in order to ascertain its fineness and to determine its value. The depositor was then paid on this valuation, according to the weight after melting, the mint charges for parting, refining, and toughening—that is, fitting the bullion for coinage—being deducted.

No other charge was made for coinage of gold and silver from that time down to February 21, 1853, when a new act was passed which provided that in addition to the mint charges there should be a charge to the depositor of one half of one per cent. This applied to gold and silver bars, gold coin, and silver dollars. This act took effect July 1, 1853, and on March 3, 1854, the act was modified so far as gold bars were concerned, limiting the charge on them to the actual cost of the operation. The charge of one half of one per cent. on gold coins and silver continued unchanged until April 1, 1873, when it was reduced to one fifth of one per cent. for gold coinage; the coinage of silver dollars was at the same time discontinued. The charge on gold coinage was abrogated under the act for the resumption of specie payments, January 14, 1875.

Since that time the depositor of gold bullion pays only mint charges and an additional amount for the copper used in alloying his gold. Under the Bland-Allison Act of 1878, the Government alone was empowered to coin silver, purchasing silver bullion at the market price and coining not less than two million dollars' worth nor more than four million dollars' worth each month. This act gave way to the Sherman Act of 1890, under which the Secretary of the Treasury was directed to purchase four and one half million ounces of silver bullion a month, or so much thereof as might be offered, at the market price, and to issue in payment for such purchases treasury notes redeemable, on demand, in coin. The Secretary of the Treasury was also directed to coin, until July 1, 1891, two million ounces of silver bullion a month into standard silver dollars, and after that time as much as should be necessary to provide for the redemption of the treasury notes.

The ratio of 1 to 15 was continued from 1792 to 1834, when it was changed to 1 to 15  $\frac{25}{100}$ , or nearly 1 to 16.

Taking up next the second question, it should be said that the mint at Philadelphia remained till 1835 the only one in the country. In that year an act was passed establishing branch mints at Charlotte, North Carolina, and at Dahlonega, Georgia, for the coinage of gold mined in the vicinity of those places, and at New Orleans for the coinage of silver imported from Mexico. In 1852 one was established in San Francisco, one at Denver in 1862, and one at Carson, Nevada, in

1863. By the coinage act of 1873 the Denver and Charlotte mints were changed into assay offices, and the mint bureau was created as a special division of the treasury department, with the director of the mint as chief officer. Prior to this act the chief officer was the director of the mint at Philadelphia, and the other mints were branches of that. They are now independent of one another, and each is in charge of a superintendent, who reports to the mint bureau. There are at the present time mints at Philadelphia, San Francisco, Carson, and New Orleans; and assay offices at New York, Denver, Helena, Boisé City, Charlotte, and St. Louis.

Under free coinage anybody who has gold bullion can take it to the nearest mint and have it coined into gold pieces, or cast into bars, receiving payment in full according to its fineness, only the charges for refining, separating, etc., and for copper used in the alloy, being deducted. Under limited coinage, like that authorized for silver by the Bland Act of 1878 and the Sherman Act of 1890, the Government alone has the right of coinage, which it exercises at its own profit. A gold eagle passes from the mines to the pockets of the people, therefore, practically without obstruction and without any expense for coinage to the owners of the bullion, for the Government pays that. A silver dollar, under the Bland Act, passed from the mines into the pockets of the people with equal lack of obstruction and without expense for coinage until the limit of monthly coinage fixed by the law and the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury was reached.

Virtually, the question of what is free coinage has been answered in what we have said in the foregoing. Free silver coinage would exist when owners of bullion had the right to have it coined to an unrestricted amount, at a fixed ratio with gold, with full legal-tender quality, and at the legal rates, or on the same terms as the Government. When the Government reserves to itself the right of coinage, then there is not free coinage. When two metals are given free coinage, at a fixed ratio, side by side, the cheaper one will always drive the dearer one out of circulation. This is known as Gresham's law. Thus, as early as 1810, after the adoption of the ratio of 1 to 15 in 1792, silver began to fall in value, and gold began gradually to disappear from circulation, and by 1818 it had ceased to circulate at all. We had no gold in circulation till

1834, when the ratio was changed to 1 to 16, or nearly that. This, it was soon seen, gave silver an overvaluation and gold an undervaluation, and the result was that the depreciated gold, which was now the cheaper metal, drove out silver. By 1837 silver had entirely disappeared from our circulation, and from that time till the recoinage of silver dollars under the Bland Act of 1878, silver dollars were never seen in circulation. The silver dollar was worth more than the gold dollar, and the latter drove the former out of circulation.

The operation of Gresham's law under these conditions was very simple. While the ratio of gold to silver between 1792 and 1834 was 1 to 15, and the market value of silver relatively to gold had fallen to 1 to 16, it required sixteen ounces of silver to buy one ounce of gold bullion in the market; but at the mint the Government received fifteen ounces of silver, and coined it into silver coins which were equivalent legally to one ounce of gold. Holders of silver bullion had a controlling inducement, therefore, to sell it to the mint rather than in the bullion market. As gold and silver were circulating side by side, any one who had received silver coins from the mint in return for fifteen ounces of silver bullion could exchange those for gold coins to the same amount, but the gold coins so obtained could be melted and sold as bullion for sixteen ounces of silver bullion. Thus a profit of one ounce of silver could be made upon every fifteen ounces that had been through the mint. When the knowledge that an operation of this kind is possible becomes general, gold will be drawn entirely from circulation and converted into bullion. This was what happened to gold between 1792 and 1834, and what happened to silver after the ratio was changed in the latter year.

If so slight a difference in the relative value of these metals operated in this effective manner, first against one, and then against the other, it is not difficult to perceive what would have happened had we attempted free coinage of both gold and silver under the Bland Act in 1878, or in 1890, or in 1893, with the ratio of 1 to 16, the true ratio in those years ranging from 1 to 18 to 1 to 28. The reason why gold was not driven out entirely was because the coinage of silver was limited. Even though it was limited, gold was fast disappearing from the country when President Cleveland called Congress together in extra session.

## OPEN LETTERS.

### Christmas and Modern Ritualism.

THE popular prejudice against the revival of ritualism in Protestant churches is, I believe, based rather on the feeling that it is a substitute for real devotion, than upon a dislike to august ceremonial itself. We are all more or less devotees of the high-sounding and impressive. The aim of the Montagnards in the Paris Reign of Terror was directly against anything savoring of man-worship, and still more, with most of them, against anything like God-worship. But in his declining days Robespierre found that he had to fall back on that trait in human nature stronger than almost every-

thing else — the conception of supreme goodness and beauty, and the passionate desire to infold it. Hence the famous festival of the "Etre Suprême" — a very dreary farce when conducted by the green-eyed and flowery-waistcoated Maximilien, but evincing still his reliance upon form and ceremonial as a last means of awing the multitude whom he, first and foremost of all, had trained to lap blood. To be sure, it did not perceptibly delay his downfall; but it is a curious lesson in the springs of human action, and in the abstrusities of human motive — Robespierre officiating as the high priest of the semi-infidel France of the Revolution!

The signs of the times of late years have been very

favorable to the growth and expansion of the ritualistic idea, and that in more churches than one. The devout Romanist, to whom these things are a matter of course, sometimes exhibits a little amusement at the zeal with which a large part of the Protestant world is embracing the idea which he has maintained without a thought of change for so many centuries. In his eye it is a concession to the inevitable, or else a mere spirit of imitation. At any rate, it is interpreted by him as a triumph and vindication of what he has always maintained as the proper mode of approach to the Invisible.

As I write these lines, the sight is recalled to my mind's eye of an old-fashioned congregation some twenty-five or thirty years since. If I picture the semicircle of horses and mules on all sides of the "paling" fence, and the groups of booted and spurred farmers scattered around, discussing the prospects of the tobacco or wheat crop, it will at once be recognized that the scene is laid in Virginia—south-side Virginia, somewhere. Passing into the church itself, I see the old worthies ranged in solemn and severe order, each with his mammoth, old-fashioned prayer- or hymn-book, ready to pour forth volumes of intentional praise. I call the praise "intentional" because that is all that the average congregational singing amounts to. Ritualism is not necessarily in the direction of distinctly Catholic observance. It means the substitution of the scenic for the introversive, the putting away of that rather morbid religious over-zeal and self-inspection of old for the eminently social exercises of the modern assemblage. It means the higher development of music and chancel adornments as contrasted with the severe and decidedly penitential cast of our fathers' worship. Our conception of the gospel is more esthetic, but I do not believe that it is on any account the less sincere.

In this same old country meeting-house to which I refer there was a hymn which always appealed to my taste in such matters. It seemed, set to the words used, the very essence of Protestantism, and gave great scope to the deep, sturdy bass voices of the planters. As years went by I had almost forgotten it, and indeed remembered but one line: "Come and let us worship." A few years ago I was invited by a party of friends in the interior of New York State to attend the midnight mass of Christmas eve in a church of the Roman Catholic communion. The choral and orchestral accompaniments were exceptionally fine. But imagine my surprise when the first notes that greeted my ear were those of that old Presbyterian hymn which had almost died away in memory. The old words were not even suggestive of the Christmas season—a feast the observance of which was in those days almost confined to the two ceremonial churches of this country. But I was now listening to the "Adeste Fideles."

The severe simplicity of our forefathers in matters of ceremonial was in itself a protest. It was akin to the spirit which made the finest dames of the Revolution ready to dress in home-made woollens sooner than depend upon the oppressor. But the sharpest religious reaction which this country has ever witnessed has come on in the last few years, and it is rapidly extending over the country, and taking in all shades and descriptions of believers. I do not now refer particularly to the substitution of a cheerful religious optimism for

the soul-harrowing experiences through which our fathers passed in the endeavor to ascertain whether they were indeed the elect or not. I am dealing rather with the evolution of a new reign of taste, and, as I contend, of beneficent estheticism in the matter of form and ceremony itself. I might almost say that the war swept away a good many cobwebs from the religious brain of the average American. Men who had seen and felt the horrors of battle were not apt longer to imagine that they would dwell in eternal flame if they should dance a cotillion. It made our people, one and all, more practical. Having trodden the wine-press of the wrath of man, and passed through the Gehenna of a frightful civil strife, we were not over-anxious to persuade ourselves that the Lord himself was bent on our spiritual destruction. Some people lament still over this manifest and radical change in the national religious outlook. I for one shall always believe that the war itself was the crucible through which the national faith was to emerge less barnacled with the horrors of an expiring and anachronistic theology into the clearer, purer, milder light of true religious optimism.

I was speaking just now of the old life in southern Virginia. It is a curious parallelism which runs through the theology of the pilgrim and the cavalier, that in the matter of religious outlook they never widely diverged. The Christmas of the cavalier was as jubilant as that of the pilgrim was somber, but it may be questioned whether on the churchly and ceremonial side there was so great a difference as one might have expected. The slaying of fowls, the stuffing of pigs' mouths with apples, or the revival of the mistletoe, is not the "Christ's mass." To-day there is more ceremonial observance of this feast in many of the Protestant churches of Puritan Massachusetts than there was thirty years ago in some Virginia churches which had come down through the Church of England to its daughter church on this side. These two States were the great educators, the one for the North and West, and the other for the South and Southwest, and this is why I cite them. In each the old Calvinistic theology for many decades had unlimited sway. It was no uncommon thing before the war to hear of a man having gone insane on the subject of religion. There is nothing to drive any one insane in the very cheerful theology which we hear now from nearly every pulpit. Men are much more apt to go insane over notes in bank.

I have great faith in the future of the ritualistic movement in all the churches. I believe it is a most healthful reaction. I do not say that they will all immediately get to the "Te Deum" or the "Agnus Dei" or the "Salutaris Hostia" as a concomitant of their communion days. That will take time. But in the observance of Christmas and Easter alone the change in the last twenty-five years has been amazing. It is a fact that so far as the music is concerned you might have to spend some time in the average sanctuary to-day in our cities before you could decide whether it represents the shade of Calvin or the shade of Laud, whether Wesley and Luther or Keble and Newman might be supposed to be especially present in spirit. The ritualism of the future will assume varied forms, but it will be a plant of vigorous growth.

*William B. Chisholm.*

## Foot-Ball in our Colleges.

REPORTS in my possession from sixty-seven institutions of learning, scattered over thirty-seven States of the Union, give much interesting information concerning the influence of foot-ball upon class standing and individual development, physical, mental, and moral. These reports originated in the discussion which arose last year as to the wisdom of permitting match games of foot-ball between the cadets of Annapolis and West Point. For them I am indebted to the courtesy of the officers of the army and navy detailed under an act of Congress to furnish military instruction to the educational institutions authorized to receive it. These gentlemen are admirably fitted to form a sound opinion as to the influence of athletic pursuits upon college training; they appreciate the importance of physical development; and they are sufficiently independent of the several institutions with which they are connected to be unbiased by local sentiment.

As a general conclusion from these reports, it would appear that foot-ball holds chief place among athletic games for its influence in developing the qualities especially required in an officer of the army or navy—qualities which it is at the same time well for every young man to cultivate. One officer says: "Foot-ball requires preservation of temper under trying circumstances, subordination of individuality to united work, prompt decision and action in the struggle, and tactical and strategical combinations for the accomplishment of the desired end by united force or systematic effort."

Foot-ball gives an outlet for the superabundant animal spirits which might otherwise find expression in the usual college pranks. It compels its devotees to keep good hours, to observe strict rules of temperance in diet and drink, to refrain from the use of tobacco, to select the most nourishing food, and to be systematic with cold baths, rubbing, and healthy exercise. It teaches, moreover, what American youth most need to learn—prompt and exact obedience to instructions. "I am on the foot-ball team" was the explanation given by an undergraduate when he was asked as to the abandonment of injurious habits, and from Harvard comes the report of one gilded youth who was permitted to remain at the college after his day of probation had passed, in view of the fact that he had joined the foot-ball team.

"So far as my observation goes," writes an officer who has done duty at three military schools, "foot-ball in no way interferes with academic work. It has rather the opposite effect, as the training exercises a restraining influence, and keeps down to steady, hard work a class of boys whose animal spirits could scarcely be held in constant check in any other way. Aside from hygienic considerations, there is mental stimulus in solving the many intricate problems that arise in playing the game, and foot-ball is eminently calculated to determine what sort of stuff a boy is made of." In harmony with this, another says: "The mind is aroused, enthusiasm is awakened, and all the players are better for it. The valuable lessons of courage and self-control, the necessity for concerted action, and the ability to stand hammering and yet keep one's head, which play at foot-ball teaches, will offset any temporary loss of study of text-books."

"The effect upon good students seems to be beneficial," reports St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland, "except perhaps for certain limited periods of time for visits. As to poor students, who do not study anyhow, they are perhaps no worse for it. Upon the whole, we find that the students who indulge in athletics are the best students, and in this respect foot-ball benefits a school. It is the opinion here that we had better discipline, better studying, better learning, and better health for athletics, and for foot-ball, which is one of the chief forms of athletics."

There is no military professor at Harvard, but through other sources we are informed that at that institution "what the young men lose in marks they more than gain in increased mental power and brightness; and it is a noticeable fact that the men devoted to athletics the past two years have stood exceptionally well in their classes. They are now obliged to maintain a certain average or be dropped from their class, and from athletics too; so that with less time at their disposal they are bound to work with diligence to keep their places. The training is strict here, and no lapses are allowed."

Yale reports that, "in the opinion of most of the professors, during the term in which foot-ball practice is active the academic work of the foot-ball teams is of little account. One gentleman—a graduate of some years back—a foot-ball player, and quite a noted tennis player, said he believed foot-ball was a great help to class standing, because it required regular habits during the training season, and many men continued them throughout the year to their manifest advantage." "Nearly every man's opinion," this correspondent adds, "is biased by his fondness for the game, and the love for athletics inherent in every strong, healthy man."

At Perdue University, Lafayette, Indiana, report says "the foot-ball men are men of prominence in the university, and are to a certain extent looked up to; and their regular lives, diet, and discipline are favorable to their own work, and their example has a favorable influence on others."

A calculation made by the professor of physical culture and hygiene at Cornell shows that the men on the intercollegiate athletic teams have a standing 1.2 per cent. better than the average of the whole college.

The general expression of opinion from the great majority of the colleges is in accord with these quotations, which are selected only because they elaborate somewhat the ideas which are more briefly expressed in most of the letters referred to.

As to physical injuries, there are reports of abundant minor mishaps,—sprains, strains, etc., some broken ribs, collar-bones, and fingers, and even noses,—but few permanent injuries are reported among the thousands of foot-ball players heard from. A California student had his neck broken, but I have heard of at least three similar accidents in the families of my friends, resulting from gymnasium practice—two in one family. At Yale one young man has sacrificed an eye to his enthusiasm for foot-ball, and at Cornell one was laid up for a year as the result of injury to his kidneys, following a blow upon the back. From two other institutions come reports of serious injuries, the nature of which is not specified. The knees seem to be the most vulnerable part, and some of the accidents suggest the necessity

for avoiding the use of hard or frozen ground in playing the game. It is doubtful whether the percentage of accidents among undergraduates would lessen were foot-ball forbidden. Nature will exact her tribute in physical injuries for her bestowal of surplus energy upon the young, and I have known one young man to break an arm three times in jumping over horse-posts. The physical dangers, such as they are, could be greatly lessened by a proper regulation of the game. It should be recognized as a part of the college curriculum, to the extent at least of encouraging every student to participate in it, grading the players according to their several abilities. It is found that systematic training reduces the risk from injuries. If foot-ball is beneficial, as would appear to be the case, the benefit should be extended to all students alike. As it is now, those who most need the exercise are debarred from it by the natural disposition to exclude all but the sturdier men. At Annapolis and West Point physical training is an essential part of the course, and it should be so in every college. It will be so when we have wholly escaped the influence of the false doctrine that the body is the instrument of Satan, and must be bound in fetters as a preliminary to intellectual and spiritual development.

*William Conant Church.*

#### American Militarism.

For what can war but endless war still breed?

—MILTON.

LIKE other agues that shake the body politic, militarism is intermittent. After our civil war a chill set in. Men had had enough soldiering for one generation. Now again a rising temperature bespeaks a strong accession of military fever. Military parades and processions are the rage; Boston school-boys want to be supplied with muskets for military drill; Congress is besieged with petitions clamoring for military or naval appropriations; an ex-ambassador avers that Columbia's only safety consists in the disbursement of our "debauching national surplus" on ironclads and big guns; importunate rival cities, each badly smitten with invasion panic, are to be appeased only by the expenditure of untold millions in forts and munitions of war. The popular cry echoes in the newspapers, and even reëchoes in the columns of THE CENTURY.

However opinions may differ as to the Christian or non-Christian character of war, it is notorious that the Church has unfailingly blessed the banners, and shared the spoils, of militarism. It ever speaks as spoke Etruria's "thirty chosen prophets" to Lars Porsena:

Go, and return in glory  
To Clusium's royal dome;  
And hang round Nurscia's altars  
The golden shields of Rome.

Were the question of war's justifiability to be decided on the field of religious controversy, the Quaker, with Scriptural sling and stone, would find it an easy task to shatter the huge Goliath of militarism. But, keeping outside the pale of biblical polemics, militarism is not only anachronistic, but utterly opposed to the genius of America. On this continent there should be no contest between militarism and industrialism. A practical people should have not a moment's hesita-

tion in choosing between systems so radically opposed. As a matter of fact, our choice was made, and our creed formulated, by Washington in his farewell address, September 17, 1796. "Overgrown military establishments are, under any form of government, inauspicious to liberty, and are particularly hostile to republican liberty." Our national policy has been, is, and ever should be, in accordance with that declaration, a consistent policy of industrialism.

Against the proud record of its sway set a picture of the results of its opposite—militarism. An example of it is ready to hand in Russia under its present Czar. Says Nicanor, archbishop of Odessa:

Here in our own homes, here on Russian soil, conquered by Russian blood, we stand *not at the head, but at the tail; not above, but beneath all other races and peoples.*

This is what militarism has done for the most aggressive nation the world knows. Is that the development desired by Americans?

Russia may plead that "manifest destiny" requires of her this temporary sacrifice to militarism. A destiny a hundred-fold more manifest peremptorily forbids America to enter a career so degrading. War has ceased to be a needful or a beneficent factor in human development. The race is no longer to the swift, nor the battle to the strong. Brawn contends unavailingly against machine-aided brain. The more vigorous the man, the ampler the target. Cœur de Lion falls by the bullet of Bottom, the weaver. The physically fittest no longer survives, unless the synonym for fittest be scrawniest. Nor is race renewal by intermarriage any longer promoted by war. Travel and commerce are now the more effective agents. Human evolution is to be compassed far more rapidly in the future by psychical force than in the past by physical. And no people should more gladly welcome the fact than Americans; none more readily adopt a policy in harmony therewith.

Surely if there be one particular in which the New World may fulfil its mission as enlightener of the nations, it is in the avoidance of that thrice-accursed incubus of militarism under which the Old World despairingly groans. An aggressive jingoism may muster its millions under the specious pretext of home defense. America knows no aspirations for other worlds to conquer, and a course of even-handed justice will be the best and only defense needed by the republic. The spirit of the Monroe doctrine demands that this continent be kept free from the pernicious feudal system, and other old rags of European impolicy. Feudal, as an adjective, may smack of romance and chivalry; but the system of eternal feud has been, is, and will be, an unceasing curse to all Europe. Even there education has rung its knell. A heptarchy no longer divides England; a hundred petty principalities have merged in the German empire, the factions of rival states no more distract a united Italy. Education and enlightenment will widen the bonds of brotherhood, and realize Victor Hugo's vision of the United States of Europe.

Moreover, new methods are dawning on mankind. Were there no other possible means of obtaining equitable treatment than by recourse to arms, an extension of our naval and military systems might be salutary. Such, happily, is by no means the case. A method at

once easy, honorable, and satisfactory has been found, and, it is safe to say, may always be found, in arbitration. A nation can never be dishonored by compliance with the terms of a just arbitration award. There is no need to prolong the bloody "martyrdom of man" on this American continent. The establishment of a high court of arbitration as a substitute for war is an idea by no means chimerical or quixotic. Personal feuds, family feuds, tribal feuds, baronial feuds, have all become obsolete under the reign of law; and to settle national feuds by appeal to arbitration is merely reducing to the realm of law the last unconquered stronghold of savagery. The American people must approve of so desirable a consummation, and the establishment of such a court of arbitration would be a moral and political development worthy to crown this age of material progress.

America cannot serve the two masters militarism and industrialism. The former converts citizens into machines unintelligently obeying the master mechanic who pulls the wires and moves the pieces. The latter makes mechanics into men, intelligent in devising, energetic in accomplishing. Which is to be the American idea? In grasping for both, "human nature," Herbert Spencer says, "cannot become properly adapted to either."

*Edward Berwick.*

#### The Charcoal Club of Baltimore.

##### A CHRISTMAS COMPETITION FOR THE CENTURY.

IF we may judge by Albert Dürer's portrait of himself in his house at Nuremberg, he drew as well when twelve years of age as at any later period in his career. He is therefore the exception which proves the rule that, while capacity to become a great draftsman is in many cases intuitive, the ability to draw well is a development, is the result of education. This education is incomplete unless the artist can draw any and every object with equal facility. This would be impossible if a knowledge of their composition and construction was necessary; but drawing is simply the training of the eye correctly to see form, and of the hand to express what the eye sees. What method, then, shall he who selects art as a career follow in order to learn to draw? Shall his education be on the old academic graded lines, which begin by copying the flat, afterward the round, from simple forms such as cubes and spheres, then the antique, and lastly the living model? Or shall he, under good criticism, draw indiscriminately whatever he pleases? That the tendency of the present is toward the latter method is evidenced by the rapid increase of art students' clubs and leagues, which largely break away from old methods of teaching.

The main features of all these organizations are the same. Briefly stated, they may be summarized as the cultivation of an artistic environment, and the development of the artist on the lines of his individual temperament, by putting criticism in the place of teaching.

It is evident, therefore, that the success of these institutions must depend much more on the artistic standing, enthusiasm, and ability of their professors than on anything else; for they are the school. The Art Students' League of New York has always been fortunate in this respect, and its brilliant corps of professors past and present will render it historic. Of the adventitious

circumstances which have aided its success, not the least has been the fact of its being located in the nation's largest city, where annual exhibitions, galleries, art museums, opera, and theaters afford the student an artistic environment. What Paris is in art to New York, New York is to Washington, Baltimore, etc. It may surprise many to know that in the chief city of Maryland there is a healthy, vigorous, growing institution, the Charcoal Club, the personnel of whose students and the quality of whose work bear favorable comparison with the older institutions of New York.

There is generally something dreary in a collection of drawings and compositions by students. The work of the tyro has lost its innocence, and the skill of the *arrive* has not yet taken its place. Such an exhibit seems to divide itself into the awkward, laborious, conscientious grasping for something which through inherent lack of artistic instinct can never be reached; the airy nothings of the trifler, and the works of the "chic" fellow who, ignorant of form or character, draws something he thinks the model ought to look like; who, by a sort of legerdemain, gets pretty, "fat" effects in charcoal; who has learned to sign his name with gay lines and curves just in the right place. He is the abomination of his professor and the admiration of his fellows, and influences more or less their work, and occasionally the earnest effort of an artistic nature. The little collection at the Charcoal Club of some forty or fifty drawings was refreshing in the absence of these characteristics. It was workmanlike work; more, it was individual to a marked degree, as though each student had searched the character of the model for himself. They were not all alike good, but I question if in the qualities of sincerity and individual purpose any art school could have made a better showing.

In conversation with Mr. André Castaigne, the school's "professor," I gave expression to what has long been to me a matter for wonder, namely: that illustration, with the remunerative field it opens up for art activity, is so little considered in the art schools of the country. This was the occasion of a suggestion from him that THE CENTURY should announce a competition, to be open to the Charcoal Club. A Christmas subject was selected, and the successful drawing was to be purchased by THE CENTURY, and printed in the Christmas number. The *concours* resulted in half a dozen creditable compositions, of which Mr. J. Carrell Lucas's "Christmas at the Children's Hospital," which appears on page 251, was unanimously voted the best. This drawing, considered as student work, is more than creditable. It is true that in its leading lines it is reminiscent, and that its manner shows in a too marked degree the influence of Castaigne; but these are students' faults. The composition furnishes fairly satisfactory data for the assumption that Mr. Lucas will earn a place for himself as a successful illustrator.

*W. Lewis Fraser.*

#### "The Century's" American Artists Series.

HENRY SANDHAM.

HENRY SANDHAM spent the early years of his life in a remote country district of Canada. At sixteen, finding life on a farm utterly distasteful, he decided, despite the protests of his parents, to seek his future in the nearest city — Montreal. Here he was fortunate in



gaining the friendship of the aquarellist John A. Fraser, under whose guidance he made his first steps in art. A few years later Sandham had so ably profited by his teaching that his portraits of Sir Peter Coates and Sir John A. Macdonald gained for him an international reputation.

In 1881, finding that he had outgrown his field of operations, he removed to Boston, where he has since lived and been identified with American art. During the last few years he has developed a penchant for American historical "genre." In 1889 he painted for the town of Lexington "The Dawn of Liberty," an interesting composition of the fight at Lexington, now in the town hall of that city. In 1890 he painted "The March of Time," introducing in a clever and original way officers from Massachusetts who took part in the war of the Rebellion, and their children and grandchildren. The picture is now in the National Museum at Washington. Last year (1892) he painted the picture engraved on page 253.

Sandham's pictures are bold and original in composition, and one of their chief merits, besides their conscientiousness, is their story-telling quality. So far as patient research can make them, they are valuable historical data.

Sandham was born in Montreal in 1842. He has made many trips to Europe for observation and study, and has gained many awards.

ELLA CONDIE LAMB.

ELLA CONDIE LAMB, although known principally by her designs for stained-glass mosaics and mural painting, has made many clever portraits and other easel-paintings, not the least interesting of which is the "Advent Angel," which was exhibited in the American section of Fine Arts in the Columbian Exhibition. She is possessed of a true artistic temperament, has been well trained in the rudiments of her art, and is an interesting figure in the ranks of women artists. She was born in New York in 1862. When sixteen years of age she entered the school of the National Academy of Design. One year later she took the first prize in the woman's life class of that institution. In 1880 she was admitted to the Art Students' League, and for several years was one of its most promising and active members. Upon hearing of the establishment of Hubert Herkomer's art school in Bushey, England, she enrolled herself there as a student. The atmosphere

of Bushey proving uncongenial, she went to Paris and became a pupil of Collin and Courtois. Soon after her return to America she married the artist J. R. Lamb, and in 1889 she won the prize instituted by Norman W. Dodge for the best picture by a woman artist at the National Academy Exhibition for that year.

W. Lewis Fraser.

#### "Christianity Outside the Churches."

WILL the editor of THE CENTURY allow me to call the attention of Rev. Dr. William Chauncy Langdon to the following facts? First, that statistics indisputably prove that the Christian churches are increasing even proportionally faster than ever before; second, that those churches—notably the Methodist and the Baptist—which insist on a more vital experience and a more prominent confession, are precisely the ones making the largest and most rapid increase.

It is no doubt true that this increasing power of Christianity in the churches is more powerfully affecting many outside the churches, and inclining them toward Christianity while still outside the churches, and while they may never enter any of them. But to take the fact, as Mr. Langdon apparently does, to indicate that the Church as an organized agency is losing its power, is not only unwarranted by any existing facts, but is clearly opposed to the facts in the case.

OAKLAND CITY, INDIANA.

A. D. Williams.

#### Another Diary of Napoleon's Trip to St. Helena.

THE publication in THE CENTURY of the very interesting diary of Napoleon's voyage to St. Helena has called attention to a small volume entitled "Bonaparte's Voyage to St. Helena, comprising the diary of Rear-Admiral Sir George Cockburn." This volume was published in England in 1888, in a small edition. A comparison of the Admiral's diary with that of his secretary, John R. Glover (which is the diary for the first time printed by THE CENTURY), would seem to indicate that the Admiral's account was based on the fuller and more important record of his secretary. Whether the Admiral dictated any part of his diary may not be determined; but there can be no doubt of the paramount historical value of the Glover manuscript, to which the briefer publication bearing the Admiral's name stands as an authentication.

## IN LIGHTER VEIN.

### A Sheaf of Farm Superstitions.

A FAMILY WEAKNESS.

I WOULD N' be bound down  
Believin' signs and things  
Like Uncle Jerry Finckleys air  
Fer fifty cents. Can't go anywhere,  
Ner do a trick, unlest the signs is right.  
When the peacocks sings  
They stays at home from town  
Fer fear of measles;  
Hev a seprut sign fer dogs

A-howlin', and mewlin' cats,  
An' hoppin' frogs,  
An' snaky weasels.  
An' when they see the bogie bats  
A-huntin' pixies by the light  
Of jack-a-lamps,  
They flunk and pray in sech a plight  
It gives 'em cramps.  
Folks air short fer sense  
Thet takes along thet way:  
The'r lives makes more expense  
Than all the profits pay.

## TOPICS OF THE TIME.

### The New "Abolition."

IF the spoils system is not good enough for any part of the army, or the navy, or the life-saving service, it is not good enough for any part of the consular service, or the postal service, or the treasury service, or the civil service in general. The spoils system makes the "boodler" and the "boss"; it creates the "ring" and the corrupt and blackmailing "machine," elegantly termed by itself the "organization." It is illogical, undemocratic, feudal, cruel. It makes corrupt officials, tempts good men to their ruin, degrades our politics, interferes with the proper performance of the public business, in the form of "patronage" disturbs and defeats parties, and is a constant menace to free institutions.

The spoils system is actively and clamorously sustained by only a fraction of the population — with some exceptions the least disinterested and useful members of society. It is despised by the most patriotic citizens, and is unequivocally condemned by the conscience of the country. It is being gradually limited by executive action and by legislation. All who are sensitive to the currents of opinion are aware of the fact that the legal limitation proceeds much too slowly to keep pace with the best sentiment of the community. The country is riper for the complete reform than some of our public men believe. The Abolition is bound to come; those who bring it will be honored; those who delay it will be condemned. Parties and statesmen can make no more fatal mistake than to underestimate the force of an aroused public conscience.

Some national administration, in the near future, may be willing to distinguish itself, and render a signal and everlasting service to the cause of good government, by carrying the reform to the utmost possible limit. The deed once done, it would be accepted as no less inevitable, humane, and just — as scarcely less an incident of human progress — than the emancipation of the slaves by Abraham Lincoln. It would, indeed, be a new and almost universally welcomed emancipation.

But whether or not the power of the executive shall thus be exerted in this direction, the abolition of the spoils system will soon be imperatively demanded by the people of the United States. For the evils fostered by it have become too heavy to be borne, and there are now wanting signs that the honest citizens of the country are becoming impatient and determined in their demand for this new and most necessary Abolition.

A movement has just been initiated by the National Civil Service Reform League which is intended to make effective the general sentiment of the country against the spoils system, by means of a gigantic popular association, extending over the entire Union. The new movement is designed to hold up the hands of all those in office who truly believe in and support the reform, and to extend the benefits of the merit system throughout our Federal, State, and municipal offices. Every disinterested citizen and lover of good government will wish this new crusade God-speed.

### The Other Side of the Silver Question.

IN accordance with its controlling desire to be fair to all, and to give a hearing to both sides of a contro-

versy, THE CENTURY devotes a good amount of space in its "Open Letters" for this month to a spokesman of the Colorado side of the silver question. We shall enter upon no systematic reply to this spokesman, Mr. C. S. Thomas, not because his arguments are unworthy of such consideration, but because most of them will be undergoing the test of experience by the time this magazine reaches the public.

We are truly surprised at the contention that we must have dropped to the silver standard because for more than three years past the Government has not had sufficient gold with which to redeem its silver certificates, has not had since it resumed specie payments sufficient gold to give in exchange for its silver dollars. Does the writer mean to assert that a redemption fund, or a reserve fund, must be equal in amount, dollar for dollar, to the outstanding circulation in order to be of use in preserving the standard of value? That can hardly be possible. The use of a reserve is to enable the Government to pay gold for silver, silver certificates, and other forms of currency on demand. It is never presumed that all the outstanding circulation will be presented for redemption at once. As a matter of fact, so long as the credit of the Government remains unshaken, nobody demands gold for silver and notes except for use in foreign trade, and for other inconsiderable purposes. The great mass of the people are content with paper money, like it better, indeed, than coin, and have no wish to exchange it for gold.

No government or banking institution could be conducted on the basis of being able at all times to redeem in gold all its circulating medium. It carries a redemption fund only for use in emergencies, and bases the greater part of its circulating medium upon its credit. The reason why the United States government was able to keep \$813,000,000 in circulation on a gold basis with only \$100,000,000 for a redemption fund was because the people believed, not that it had a gold dollar in the Treasury for every silver dollar or silver note outside, or needed to have it, but that the Government had the ability and the resources with which to redeem every dollar with gold in case it were put to the necessity of doing so. If we had reached the point, which we were approaching, where the gold reserve got so low that the demands for gold in foreign trade could not be met, then we should have passed to the silver basis at once, and gold would have gone to a premium.

When the reserve fund of \$100,000,000 was authorized, about fifteen years ago, it was accumulated as a guarantee for the redemption of about \$350,000,000 in greenbacks. This was a proportion of only about 30 per cent. of reserve to circulation, and it was not claimed by anybody that the gold basis was endangered by that fact. At the present writing the proportion has been reduced to only ten per cent., but it has been sufficient to keep the country on the gold basis because of the people's faith in the credit of the Government.

We are not disposed to continue with Mr. Thomas the debate as to the interpretation of the law about the redemption of silver coin or certificates in gold. The decisions of President Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle on that point not only became the policy of the Government, but saved the country from the threatened descent to the silver standard. Upon that point there is no difference of opinion in the financial and commer-

cial world. Neither are we disposed to continue the discussion, fully treated by us on former occasions, as to the alleged appreciation in value of gold, and as to the supply of gold in the world being sufficient for the transaction of business. The repeal of the silver purchase law has taken these questions out of the field of speculative inquiry, and put them into the field of actual experience. The whole world will know before long whether or not gold has so appreciated in value as to be undesirable as a standard and as a medium of exchange, and it will soon find out also whether the supply is adequate or not. It is sufficient to say now, at the outset of the experiment of conducting the business of the world on the gold standard, that the leading nations of the world have entered upon it, one after another, by a great law of evolution, each reaching the conclusion by itself that no other standard so well meets the demands of trade and commerce. If in coming to this conclusion the leading nations of the world have been individually and collectively wrong in the deductions which they have drawn from their own experience, while the few opponents of those deductions in this and other countries alone are right, then a wonderful thing has happened in the history of the human race. If there has been arranged and carried out a "conspiracy" of the whole world to "degrade silver," and to adopt a monetary system which is foredoomed to failure because adopted either through ignorance or malice, the event is more wonderful still. Never before did the whole world unite in a conspiracy against its own welfare.

#### The Army and the Forest Reserves.

So much has been written of recent years to warn the country of the rapid inroads made upon the public forests by the natural demands of commerce, aggravated by greed and ignorance, that it would seem needless iteration to call attention to the fact that, in the opinion of our own best authorities, and of foreign experts who have recently revisited us, there is more than a danger—there is almost a certainty—of a national timber famine, unless it be avoided by prompt and vigorous measures. In February last a first step toward a wise policy was taken by President Harrison and Secretary Noble, in reserving from private entry large tracts of non-agricultural forest lands of high altitude in the West—in all some ten millions of acres—with the triple object of preserving great scenery, of defending important forests against private encroachment and destruction, and of conserving the sources of water supply. The hearty and general approval which this policy has met from Californians is sufficient proof of its wisdom and timeliness, and indicates that whatever objections may be urged by those who profit by present opportunities for private gain at public expense, the people may be relied upon to support the most vigorous measures that may be adopted to meet the requirements of the situation.

Meantime the immediate duty devolves upon Congress to devise some permanent system of timber-preservation and of timber-culture. The bill of Mr. McRae of Arkansas, chairman of the Public Lands Committee of the House of Representatives, is a step in this direction. Its object is to establish a more efficient control of the forest reservations, and to provide funds for

their defense from the sale, to the highest bidder, of timber-cutting permits, now to be obtained without cost by the favor of the Secretary of the Interior. One clause of the bill authorizes the Secretary of War to make such detail of troops for the purpose of protecting these reservations as the Secretary of the Interior may require. The whole measure is understood to have the support of the Interior Department.

But this measure, however useful it may be in itself, and in awakening the torpid sentiment of Congress and the public, is very far from a complete solution of the problem. What is needed at the earliest possible moment is a settled, intelligent, far-reaching, scientific system looking to the management of all the public forests in the public interest. First of all, instead of waiting for the proposal of separate forest reserves, the Administration should lose no time in considering what lands are left that may properly and profitably be so included. The great scenery should all be reserved for the people, and not left to fall into the hands of individuals. Any one who has observed how the Ohio and Mississippi valleys have suffered from forest denudation will not think this proposition premature. The next consideration should be how to guard and cultivate what shall thus be reserved. In a recent conversation of half a dozen persons who have given much attention to the subject, it was unanimously taken for granted that, in some way or other, effective control would be likely to be reached only through military supervision. This conviction is confirmed by the admirable management of the Yellowstone and Yosemite National Parks, which are in charge of officers of the army and patrolled by United States soldiers—in contrast to the conduct of the smaller Yosemite reservation by Boards of State Commissioners, which has not only been for years and is now a local scandal, but has awakened the official protest of no fewer than three special agents of the Land Office, as shown by Secretary Noble's report of December 29, 1892, to the Senate.

Professor Charles S. Sargent, the well-known authority on American forests, has made an interesting suggestion, in "Garden and Forest," of a permanent system which may well employ the attention of legislators. It comprises substantially the following features:

1. Forestry instruction at West Point: The establishment of a chair of forestry at the United States Military Academy, to be supplemented by practical study in the woods and by personal inspection of foreign systems of forestry.
2. An experimental forest reservation: the purchase on the Highlands near West Point (or elsewhere) of a small territory for the use of the proposed new branch of instruction.
3. Control by educated officers: the assignment of the best-educated of these officers to the supervision of the forest reservations.
4. The enlistment of a forest guard: a body of local foresters, to be specially enlisted for the purpose of carrying out the principles of forestry thus taught.

In our opinion there is much to commend in this plan. The permanence, fidelity, and independence of the army; the need of more avenues of activity for graduates of West Point; the honorable and useful character of the work; the demonstrated failure of local control of national reservations, and the pressing need of scientific instruction as a *sine quâ non* of success—these

considerations all argue strongly for this plan. It rests upon those who would reject the suggestion to show wherein it would be bettered, either by the transference of the territory to the Agricultural Department, as has been proposed, or by its retention in the present dual control of the Interior and War departments—a plan which, though temporarily advantageous, is likely to break down before the first considerable demand for military forces for other service.

#### Bible Exploration, Past and to Come.

THE significant feature of modern Bible study and biblical research is the independence of the several divisions of which it consists. Professor Moulton has recently shown how distinct the literary study of the Bible is from biblical exegesis in the common acceptance of the term. Equally distinct are the historical and archaeological phases; though it is to be noted that the study of the political and social conditions prevailing at the various periods of ancient Palestinian history follows closely in the wake of the advance that has been achieved through the researches of modern scholars in our knowledge of the manner in which the books comprising the Old and New Testaments assumed their present shape.

Travels in the East, and explorations conducted during the past decades, have imparted a fresh stimulus to what may comprehensively be termed biblical archaeology. Through the activity of the Palestine exploration societies of England and of Germany many a site prominent in biblical times has been definitely identified, and a much clearer grasp has been obtained of the physical geography—that indispensable factor in the solution of the many problems that confound the historian. The position of Palestine, wedged in the great area of ancient culture, accounts for the abundance of light that has also been shed upon the customs, traditions, and events of her past by the recovery of ancient records and monuments exhumed from the soil of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Syria. Palestine paid the penalty for her position by being constantly menaced in her political independence. Hebrew supremacy in Palestine is comprised within a period of five hundred years, at either end of which lies a rivalry for control between Egypt, Babylonia, Assyria, and the principalities of Syria. On the other hand, the close contact into which the inhabitants of Palestine were brought with surrounding states proved fertile, and it is especially in the case of the Hebrew people that the traces of foreign influence extending into the domain of religious ideas and rites have been clearly brought out through the extension of our knowledge of the ancient world.

There are several reasons why the bearings of the Assyrian and Babylonian monuments on the Old Testament occupy the first place in respect to prominence and importance. The article published in this number of *THE CENTURY* sets forth the more significant phases of these bearings. Egypt, too, has contributed many an interesting chapter to biblical archaeology. True, of the sojourn of Hebrew clans in Egypt only the faintest traces have as yet been met with—so faint as to remain for the present outside of the pale of popular exposition; but for an earlier period a recent find made in Egypt has furnished material of a most re-

markable character. By the merest accident, some peasants, while rummaging the ruins at El-Amarna, about 100 miles to the south of Cairo, struck upon several hundred clay tablets inscribed in the cuneiform characters of Babylonia. El-Amarna stands on the site of a city founded by Amenophis IV. in the fifteenth century before this era, and the tablets comprise, among other things, the reports and communications of this monarch's officials stationed along the coast of Phenicia and in the interior, or Palestine proper. The whole district was at that time tributary to Egypt, having been wrested after a long struggle out of the hands of Babylonian rulers, who had exercised a certain measure of control over it for several centuries previous. Through these archives a remarkable picture is obtained of the political and social conditions prevailing in Palestine before the Exodus. Many of the places that afterward were closely bound up with the fortunes of the Hebrew people are already in existence. Sidon is there, and also Tyre and Gaza, Lachish in the interior, and, strangest of all, Jerusalem appears, 500 years before King David, as a center of political activity with its garrison and its governor.

Following El-Amarna comes the account of excavations at a mound in northern Syria, which, besides affording a view of one of the numerous principalities that divided the region in the eighth century B. C., contribute largely to our knowledge of biblical days, though chiefly in illustration of the language and script of the Hebrews. In Palestine itself, beginnings have been made toward securing the treasures of the past that the soil unquestionably holds. Besides some sporadic efforts, systematic excavations have been conducted during the past two years at Tel-el-Hesi, the site of the ancient Lachish, and the finding of a tablet there dating, like those of El-Amarna, from the fifteenth century B. C., may be regarded as an index of what may be expected when once the lowest stratum of the towns of Palestine shall be thoroughly explored. Lachish is only a few miles distant from Jerusalem. Will it ever be possible for the explorer to attack the most interesting of all ancient sites? The amicable relations existing between this country and Turkey place us in a favorable position for the successful issue of negotiations conducted with this end in view. In such a case the discoveries of the past bid fair to be eclipsed by those of the future.

#### Now for Free Art!

THIS is the moment when every art institution and association in the country, every enlightened journal, and every person who appreciates and loves art, should urge Congress, through the nearest congressman, to strike from our tariff laws the barbarity of a tax upon the introduction of art into America. That the newest of the great nations, the one least equipped artistically, the one most needing the example and culture of art in its homes, schools, and manufactures, should be the one to stand at the ports of entry with a club in its hand to beat back the very thing we most require, is a reproach to American intelligence and a disgrace to our legislators. The lesson of the World's Fair will have been in great part lost unless it teaches our lawmakers the necessity of removing a tax which is an ignorant and brutal clog upon national progress.

## OPEN LETTERS.

### The Silver Side of the Question.<sup>1</sup>

AT a crisis in the affairs of ancient Athens, one of her greatest citizens consented to be struck provided he might also be heard. The sincerity of his motive was demonstrated by such a proposition, and without imposing the condition, his aggressive adversary became at once an earnest auditor. To listen was to be persuaded, and the wisdom of Themistocles prevailed.

Within the year THE CENTURY has on more than one occasion very ably attacked what is commonly called "the silver question." Its editorials have commanded applause and attention. Their influence is justly extensive, and we, whose faith in the virtues of bimetallism imposes upon us the duty of defending it, may be pardoned if we ask to be heard, even though we may not be able to convince. A great problem can be properly solved only after exhaustive investigation; and if those who are opposed to the financial views of THE CENTURY are in error, nothing will reveal the fact more clearly than discussion.

With permission, then, I shall call attention as briefly as I can to some of the assertions contained in the May and September editorials, entitled respectively "Two Values of the Silver Dollar," and "A Word Further as to Gold and Silver."

The first assumes to be an answer to this proposition: "Why, if a 66-cent dollar will buy only 66 cents' worth of goods, can we go into any store in the land, and, laying down five silver dollars, as readily get five dollars' worth of goods as if we had offered a five-dollar gold piece?" Stated concisely, the answer which THE CENTURY gives to this query is that the country is on the gold standard, that the credit of the Government is behind every silver dollar, that it will exchange gold dollars for them upon demand, and that it is the knowledge of its ability to do this which keeps silver coin of equal value with gold. But this, says THE CENTURY, the Government is able to do only so long as the silver coinage is limited, or the supply of gold is sufficient to meet all demands upon it. When it can no longer exchange silver for gold dollars, "the drop to the silver standard must come with astounding suddenness," and that, of course, would mean the circulation of our coined silver at its commodity value.

If this answer, and the reasons for it, are correctly given, it must follow that we have already "dropped to the silver standard"; for the Government has not, and since the resumption of specie payments never has had, sufficient gold to give in exchange for its silver dollars, silver certificates, and other legal tenders. For more than three years past it has not had sufficient gold with which to redeem its silver certificates alone.

On June 30, 1890, the Government's stock of gold coin and bullion, less gold certificates outstanding, was \$190,232,404; on June 30, 1891, \$117,667,723; on June 30, 1892, \$114,342,367; on January 1, 1893, \$121,266,663. Against these sums stood, 1890, silver coin and bullion, \$49,504,543, plus certificates, \$297,210,043; 1891, silver coin and bullion, \$91,997,826,

<sup>1</sup> See "Topics of the Time."

plus certificates, \$307,364,148, plus Treasury notes, \$40,462,165; 1892, silver coin and bullion, \$121,202,313, plus certificates, \$326,880,803, plus Treasury notes, \$98,051,657; 1893, silver coin and bullion, \$140,334,507, plus certificates, \$322,035,011, plus Treasury notes, \$122,039,656.

The figures for gold as given above of course include the \$100,000,000 reserve, said to be kept on hand exclusively for the redemption of \$346,000,000 of greenbacks (the retirement of which is prohibited by law), and the depletion of which reserve is regarded with such horror by all "sound" financiers. The small margin between that sum and the totals given is all that has been available for use since June 30, 1890 (without going back further), in exchange for hundreds of millions of silver dollars and certificates. Indeed, it affirmatively appears in the May editorial that the Government has outstanding "legal tenders and promises amounting to \$813,000,000, for which there is a redemption fund of only \$100,000,000" in gold. In the face of these facts it seems difficult to understand how the Government can be able, or how the public can imagine it to be able, to exchange our silver coin and silver certificates, or either of them, for gold. It could not do so if it would; and yet we have not "dropped to a silver standard with astounding suddenness" (or otherwise), "at the very first whisper that the Government could no longer exchange silver dollars for gold dollars." It follows that the reason assigned for the existence of the conditions suggested by the query is unsound.

The country is not on the gold standard, nor has it been since February 21, 1878. The Bland-Allison Act expressly declares that the silver dollars as coined thereunder "shall be a legal tender at their nominal value for all debts and dues public and private except where otherwise expressly stipulated in the contract." The Sherman Act makes similar provision for the Treasury notes issued thereunder for the purchase of silver bullion. It is this legal-tender function with which silver coin and Treasury notes are endowed that keeps every silver dollar, silver certificate, and Treasury note at par with gold; and until that function is destroyed, the parity between the different kinds of money will continue. The privilege given by the statutes to stipulate by contract for payment in gold alone has been freely exercised by creditors, whose discrimination against silver in any form has been one of the active causes of what seems to me to be the totally unfounded fear that we are threatened with "a silver standard." No money of this Government was ever discredited save when the Government itself set the example or gave others the right to do so.

The error into which THE CENTURY has fallen is, I regret to say, a common one. Some months ago an influential weekly periodical of New York city gave currency to the same statement, overlooking or disregarding the fact that there is no law permitting the redemption of silver coin or certificates in gold. It attracted the attention of Senator Teller, who inclosed the statement in a letter of inquiry to the Hon. E. H. Nebeker, then

Treasurer of the United States. A prompt reply was sent him to the effect that it never had been done, nor had any of the sub-Treasury officers ever been authorized to do so. The senator afterward addressed a similar inquiry to Secretary Foster, who, on December 7, 1892, made this reply: "I beg to inform you that silver dollars are not in law or in practice exchanged for gold or for paper that calls for gold." These replies were communicated to the paper which made the assertion; but, if I am correctly informed, it never gave them any public notice.

It is true that on April 23 the President, and again, on June 13 last, the Secretary of the Treasury, announced that the policy of the present administration would be "to preserve the parity between gold and silver, and between all financial obligations of the Government," and that all the powers conferred by law would be exercised "in order to keep the Government in a condition to redeem its obligations in such coin as may be demanded, and to prevent the depreciation of either as compared with the other." This, however, was merely to declare that the financial policy of President Harrison should be continued; and since the law confers no power on the Secretary to redeem silver coin and certificates in gold, we cannot assume that he would dare to exercise it.

On the fourth day of the present month Mr. Teller said in debate that he had inquired of the Treasurer now in office whether he had redeemed any silver certificates in gold, and was told that nothing of the kind had been done under the present administration. At the same time he asked Senator Sherman whether silver certificates could be so redeemed, and received a negative answer. Senator Sherman further said that "they can be changed into ordinary currency. As they are maintained as legal tender at par with each other, there is no difficulty at any time for any person having a silver certificate to get it exchanged for other forms of money" [but not by the Government], "unless there should be an effort made to make a run on the Government, or something of that kind."

This "effort" at explanation can be logically construed to mean that because a man can exchange a gold dollar for a silver certificate, which the Government will redeem with a silver dollar, it follows that the Government is redeeming gold with silver—a conclusion fully as sound as its opposite.

The commodity value of uncoined silver is practically the same everywhere. The value of silver coins in Europe is maintained at the ratio of  $15\frac{1}{2}$  to 1 of gold. If the reason you assign for the "gold value" of our silver dollar be the true one, it must be just as effective there. The Herschell Committee Report informs us that Germany, France, Belgium, Holland, Austria, etc., experience no difficulty in maintaining the parity of their silver coin and notes with gold, and for the very excellent reason that they are an unlimited legal tender. No pretense is there made that they are or will be redeemed in gold. In these countries the

Government not only reserves but exercises the right to pay the public creditor in gold or silver at its option, yet we hear no complaint there either of repudiation or of the forced circulation of "a dishonest dollar." In the United States, however, where every public obligation save gold certificates is expressly and in terms payable in coin of the standard value of July 14, 1870,<sup>1</sup> the option has been transferred by the Government to the creditor, who not only demands payment in gold, but loudly clamors for the total demonetization of silver. To say that for redemption purposes our millions of silver coin and bullion are of no use whatever, is to say that the laws of the United States are meaningless, and that redemption in money of the contract is repudiation. During last winter and spring Secretaries Foster and Carlisle had full power to pay out silver in redemption of legal-tender notes under the act of 1890, and to coin such additional bullion as might become necessary for that purpose. If they had done so, no holder of such notes would have been wronged or could have complained; the white metal would have risen in value, and the efflux of gold from the Treasury for export or other purposes would have been checked. Silver was of value for redemption purposes in July last, when the people were clamoring for it from every section of the country, when the Secretary exchanged \$780,000 in silver for Government obligations, and then announced his inability to pay more because every remaining silver dollar was covered by an outstanding certificate. He coolly disregarded the law which commands him in such an exigency to coin more of them, doubtless because the continuing demand for them would roughly jostle the assumption that those already in existence were menacing the business interests of the nation.

If the depletion of the sacred gold reserve of \$100,000,000 tends to fill the country with apprehension, and is regarded as a premonition of financial disaster, it can easily be kept intact by resorting to silver for the payment of the public creditor. Germany, France, and Holland guard their gold from export by that means, a practice which neither injures their credit nor creates any fear of their "descending to a silver standard." Strange that the mere possibility of such a policy by the United States should throw "the financial world" into a cold perspiration. I am aware that gold is paid out in exchange for Treasury notes, upon the theory that such a policy is necessary to preserve parity between the two dollars; but the Sherman Act makes no provision for establishing parity between the dollars. That is assumed to exist, and, as a matter of fact, has always existed. There never was a time in our history, except from 1873 to 1878, when the gold dollar and the silver dollar were not of equal purchasing and debt-paying power. The declared purpose of the Sherman law is to establish the parity of the two metals upon a given ratio, and I venture to suggest that the persistent use of one metal for the redemption of notes payable in either at the option

<sup>1</sup> The remark that our bonds are payable in gold is true. It is equally true to say that they are payable in silver. Either silver dollars or gold dollars can be presented in payment of bonds. So, literally, it is true either way. Probably if the Secretary had known that his language was going to be commented upon by a very narrow construction he would have said "silver or gold," because in fact both gold and silver are used exactly at a parity with each other in all the transactions of the Government of the United

States. There is no case that I can conceive of now under the laws of the United States, except as to gold certificates, where the silver dollar cannot be paid just as well as the gold dollar.

No portion of the public debt, except probably the infinitesimal fraction of two per cent., is payable in gold.—SENATOR SHERMAN, July 9, 1890.

of the debtor, instead of establishing or so maintaining, would destroy, such parity, although each had access on equal terms to the public mints: for so long as gold or silver remains a money metal, its value must be quoted in its own coin. The manner in which the Sherman law has been administered has done more to force the country toward a gold standard, and to degrade the white metal by denying to it the power to redeem the notes issued for its purchase, than all other governmental and private influences combined. Both it and the Bland Act are opposed to the most elementary principles of monetary science, and the enemies of silver have reason to rejoice that its friends were ever deluded into accepting either as a substitute for free coinage. These laws have fortunately prevented a contraction of the currency by their monthly contributions to its volume, and by relieving the pressure on gold have enabled us to acquire nearly six times as much of that metal as we possessed in 1878; but at the same time they have served to create a widespread and deep-seated conviction that free and unlimited coinage is synonymous with the compulsory purchase by the Government of all the uncoined silver of the world. That conviction, in my judgment, is the basis of the popular prejudice against silver, and prejudice is the most implacable adversary with which reason ever contends. Should such a calamity as gold monometallism become our future portion, the people will have cause to rejoice that before its adoption was possible they had amassed a considerable store of legal-tender silver coin, the existence of which will mitigate, though it cannot avert, "the evils of a scanty circulation." When the United States and British India shall have entered the lists and joined in the scramble for gold, when every nation is struggling to retain that which it has, and to secure as much more as it can, then will values shrink and shrivel into nothingness, and gold become "the object of commerce instead of its beneficent instrument." I must take issue both with THE CENTURY and "the highest authorities who have no doubt that there is an ample supply for the business of the world." Such is not the testimony of Giffen or of Gibbs, of Goschen or of Leech. The latter says:

Passing by the great question of the fall in the gold price of commodities, so far as such fall is due to monetary causes, I find that one of the most serious dangers which confronts us is the insufficiency of the supply of gold as a basis of the present and prospective business of the commercial world, and the consequent disturbances attending its accumulation and movement. The struggle for gold, with its consequent disturbances, is well under way. If gold is to be the sole money of the world, not only will the extension of business and of foreign investments be seriously crippled, but the immense fabric of credit, already top-heavy, is liable to totter. Where is the gold to come from when the states of Europe now having a paper standard resume specie payments?

The British Royal Commission of 1887-88 unambiguously reported that the appreciation of gold was evident, and resulted both from an increased demand and a decreased supply. The "accursed fall of prices" since 1873, which, in the language of Mr. Balfour, is "the most deadening and benumbing influence that can touch the enterprise of a nation," is the unerring index to the appreciation of gold consequent upon the general tendency of civilized nations to a gold basis, and upon the inadequacy of its supply for their monetary

needs. The recent effort of Mr. David A. Wells to attribute this fall to other causes is exceedingly ingenious, but it cannot overcome the evidence given by economists like Sauerbeck, Soetbeer, and Palgrave, the investigations of monetary commissions, and of men like Professors Foxwell and Nicholson, or the reluctant admissions of Mr. Giffen. Dana Horton declares that "the appreciation of gold since 1873 is an historical fact." Sir Guilford Molesworth, speaking of the efforts of certain British publicists to explain away this inexorable fact, says:

It has been necessary to invent a theory that progress in manufactures, in improved transport, inventions, and banking, has caused a species of economic revolution which has created a new state in the conditions of trade and commerce, differing from that which previously existed. But they overlook the fact that the alleged causes have been in active operation during the greater part of the century. It is obvious, therefore, that such a revolution, if it existed, should have arisen at an earlier period, and that it should have developed gradually instead of setting in suddenly at the exact moment when the link was broken between gold and silver. Moreover, this theory involves another irreconcilable position. It is absurd to suppose that a revolution of this character could have affected gold prices so seriously, and yet should have left silver prices unaffected.

As I write, the report of Consul-General Jamieson to Lord Rosebery is made public, in which the effect of the recent fall of silver on gold prices in China is thus described:

The purchasing power of gold has steadily advanced with every successive fall in the sale of exchange in London, till now 4 shillings will purchase what formerly required 6 shillings 6 pence, or 60 pounds will now do what used to require 100 pounds.

Not a dollar leaves our shores for Europe, or comes westward from the Old World, without arousing solicitude or causing a chill of apprehension. Not a day passes but the Government is urged to issue bonds for the purchase of gold with which to strengthen our reserve, and not a man but knows that such a policy will serve further to enhance its value. The gold coinage for the years 1889, 1890, and 1891 exceeded by \$67,194,098 the aggregate of the world's product for the same period, while the demand for its use in the arts has certainly undergone no diminution.

According to Director of the Mint Preston, the world's stock of gold is \$3,582,600,000, of which France has \$800,000,000, the United States \$604,000,000, Germany \$600,000,000, Great Britain \$550,000,000, and Russia \$250,000,000. We cannot hope permanently to increase our holding by depleting their stocks, and there are only \$778,605,000 to be divided between the remaining nations. What we have is not more than half sufficient for the payment of one year's interest upon our aggregate debt of \$19,700,000,000, and yet we are urged to repudiate one half our metallic money and invite general bankruptcy by giving to the creditor the option of determining the sort of money he will receive in satisfaction of his claim. It is the number of units of money in circulation which must determine the value of the mass, and as their number diminishes, their value must increase.

It is true that the amount of specie actually used in commercial transactions is becoming less and less; but since it is, and must be, the measure of values, all

credits must rest upon it, and their soundness will be proportioned to the breadth or narrowness of the metallic base. The notes and obligations of an individual are valuable only when confined to the area of his ability to meet them, and are worthless when that limit is known to have been passed. So with the credit of a community or of a nation. That which measures values, and which alone is legal tender, is money; and in its final analysis credit is gaged by the sum of the units which constitute that measure.

Not only is gold "not exempt from value fluctuations," but it fluctuates more violently perhaps than any other article of human desire. The only true method of testing its value is by measuring it with commodities or with labor; and when so measured it will be seen that it never at any two times or at any two places possesses the same value. Chevalier and Cobden thirty-five years ago sought to dissuade the civilized world from its further monetary use because of its instability. Smith, Ricardo, Locke, Walker, McLeod, and Jevons, not to mention others, testify to its unstable character. Smith declared labor to be the only unvarying measure of value, and Jevons says gold is less satisfactory in that respect than corn. To deny to it the fault of fluctuation would be to exempt it from the universal law of supply and demand. Measured indeed in commodities, it is far less stable or reliable than the despised white metal. This is apparent from any respectable table of index numbers. The London "Statist," a gold-standard periodical, speaking, on November 5 last, of the possible introduction of that standard in India, said that the value of silver during the past twenty years has been far more stable than that of gold, and such is the admission of nearly every economist of standing who has given the subject serious consideration.

The truth is that no medium of exchange can approach stability whose coinage is confined to one metal. So said Baron Rothschild to Edwards Pierrepont on March 4, 1877; so said Mr. Leech in June, 1892. It appears from the researches of the English Commission of 1888, it may be read in the history of the last twenty years, and it finds full demonstration in the experience of France from 1803 to 1873. Fluctuation, instability, panic, and disaster will be our portion till bimetalism is restored. Silver is not "the victim of the laws of nature"; it is the victim of man's conspiracy. Not until it was denied access to the mint on equal terms with gold did its mint and market value appreciably vary. Its condition since 1873 has vividly illustrated the soundness of the economic proposition that the precious metals owe almost the whole of their value to the fact that they can be converted into and used as money, and justifies the assertion that had gold, in 1858, been selected as the victim, it would have been similarly degraded, and to-day the unvarying character and natural monetary qualities of silver would have been the theme of monometallists. No nation save our own, the greatest producer in the world of both the precious metals, would have deliberately demonetized one of them, and thus destroyed by one half the values of all products which come in competition with those of silver-using countries. At their present gold prices it requires as much wheat, or corn, or cotton, to pay what remains of our national debt as would have paid the whole of it in 1873. When our

congressional Samson pulled down one of the pillars of our financial fabric, must he not have known that the edifice which it supported would be shaken to its foundation, if not destroyed?

The correct answer to the query propounded in the May editorial is that there is no 66-cent dollar in circulation. The divergence between its coin and commodity value arises from the limitation imposed by law upon the use of silver as money. The coined silver dollar is worth 100 cents in greenbacks or in gold, because, like them, it is made by statute an unlimited legal tender; and the purchasing power of all our dollars has been enormously increased, because, first, there is an inadequate supply of them for the ever-increasing needs of business, and, second, the menace of their further contraction by the total demonetization of silver threatens soon to become a reality.

C. S. Thomas.

DENVER, COLORADO, October 25, 1893.

#### A Suggestion as to Popular Amusements.

ANY one who makes a study of the lower-class theaters and resorts in our large cities must be convinced of the need of more wholesome popular amusement. He must recognize that it is perfectly natural for the wage-worker after ten hours of drudgery to wish for an hour of exciting diversion, and after six days of toil to long for one day of complete freedom and relaxation, and he must see that it is inevitable that the workman should seek to satisfy this craving in the cheapest and quickest way at such resorts as are most accessible and attractive. In these the chief elements of popular pleasure are eating, drinking, smoking, society of the other sex, with dancing, music of a noisy and lively character, spectacular shows, and athletic exhibitions. In fact, we may define the "masses" as those whose sole delight is in these things. Any one who shows a permanent taste for higher pleasures ceases, *ipso facto*, to belong to the "masses." In every city there is a large body of people whose enjoyment lies wholly in these lower channels, and for whom it is comparatively useless to open libraries, art-galleries, and museums.

Now, I take it that the problem is not how to elevate the tastes of this class,—a wholly useless endeavor,—but how to keep their sensuous pleasures from becoming sensual. Is it wise or philanthropic to leave the purveying of the lower forms of entertainment so entirely to virtually irresponsible saloon-keepers and managers of variety theaters, whose chief concern is to make money at all hazards? Is it not worth while to try thoroughly, and on a large scale, an amusement palace which shall directly compete with the lowest kind of resorts? The average workman will always go where he can get the most pleasure for the least money, and if he is to be kept from degrading resorts it must be by some institution which shall give substantially the same pleasures in a more attractive way and at less cost. Such an institution should consist of a large restaurant, with a number of private rooms; also a bar on each side of the entrance for hot and cold non-intoxicating drinks; a theater which should furnish spectacles, dancing, and music without lewdness, and athletic exhibitions without brutality. There should be a hall for dances, and rooms for cards, billiards, and other games; and also I think it would be worth while to try a few



private parlors, which could be rented to workmen and workwomen desirous of passing a social evening. Such parlors should be furnished attractively, and should contain musical instruments, cards, and games, and all kinds of proper diversions, and refreshments should be served if desired. As subsidiary features a gymnasium, baths, bowling-alley, shooting-gallery, reading-room, library, picture-gallery, and panorama might be added. I would suggest also a room where popular works of art, photographs, photogravures, lithographs, statuettes, bric-à-brac, etc., and also musical instruments and music-sheets, might be rented with the privilege of purchase. I do not see why the circulation of works of art on the same plan that public libraries circulate books should not be successful. The masses do not appreciate books, but certain kinds of pictures appeal to them strongly. By some such arrangements a poor working-girl might at a nominal cost beautify her room anew every month, and make the humblest lodging attractive and interesting.

The furnishings and decorations throughout the whole establishment should be florid enough to outdo the gin-palace. Refreshments should be served in all parts at request. The tariff of charges should be under ordinary rates, but the proprietor should look to the number of customers to make up for low prices. Self-respecting wage-workers would form the first support. To be attractive, such an institution should come to them not in the guise of charity, or as a method of doing them good, but as an establishment soliciting their patronage. In fact, it should be kept a profound secret from the public that anything else than money-making is aimed at. To be made a paying venture it must from the first be managed by a keen business man who thoroughly understands his constituency, and its financial success must be recognized as a gage of its moral success, for men will expend their hard-earned money only for what they thoroughly appreciate.

LAKE FOREST, ILLINOIS.

Hiram M. Stanley.

#### The Diana of the Tower.

It would be very interesting, were it possible, to know the nature and degree of the impression made by Mr. St. Gaudens's "Diana," surmounting the tower of the Madison Square Garden, upon the minds of the thousands who see it daily. With the exception of the Bartholdi statue of "Liberty,"—which is only in part an exception,—it is the first work of art, of purely ideal beauty, that has been presented to the daily gaze of any great number of the people of New York.

In contrast with the "Liberty," it has this distinction, that happily it symbolizes nothing. It is the emblem of no patriotic or social sentiment. It commemorates nothing. It is not *éclairant le monde*, and it has nothing in particular to say of any event in history, or of any "cause," past, present, or to come. Poised airily on the heaven-kissing tower, her radiant brow and straight-aimed arrow always meeting the shifting wind, the chaste and noble divinity is *à laisser ou à prendre*. The ant-like crowd of human beings that far below crawl to and fro about their "business and desire, such as it is," what do they think of her? Do they seriously think of her at all? Amid the little or great interests,—stocks, politics, shopping, letters, pleasure, grief, sin, society, or the simple slaying of time,—

how often, and how much and what, do those who look up at her think or feel about her? I suppose no one can form much of an idea.

I have invested, to my satisfaction if not to my profit, sundry quarter-hours in loitering in the vicinity of the tower, and I have watched the behavior of my fellow-creatures, and have even been guilty of listening to their comments with reference to this novel spectacle. I do not pretend that the result is at all complete, and I certainly hope that it is not, for what seems chiefly to impress the "average" mind are the facts, which it has somewhere absorbed, of Diana's size and weight. This, apart from the current of "pretty's" and "splendid's" from the unbearded lips, is about the sum of the report I am able to make. I recall the fact that in Seville, on the Giralda tower, a like figure glistens in the dry and burning Spanish sun. That, according to tradition, was intended to represent Faith, and it is, perhaps, not inappropriate to the latter half of the sixteenth century, when it was erected, that the figure should have been devoted to the changeful function of a weather-vane. But from even that period, and still more from the far earlier when Punic colonists worshipped the golden image of Venus Salammô in the streets of Seville, to the present, when the superb form of the divine huntress turns with the wind above an American amusement hall, the change is great and suggestive.

Whether it be gain or loss, no sanctity attaches to this lovely form. It is its own excuse for being, if any it has or needs. Its real significance, I should say, lies in the fact I have already noted, that it is the first generous tribute to pure beauty erected within the careless sight of busy New York. I would not underrate the value of such works as Mr. St. Gaudens's Farragut in the square below, commemorating the priceless service of a noble man. I never look at that deep broad chest and calmly intent face that I do not think of Lowell's line:

With heart that beat a charge.

But from those of us for whom the brightness of the Diana is of

The light that never was, on sea or land,

I think there is a peculiar debt of gratitude due to Mr. St. Gaudens, and to those who have made possible a fitting place for his creation.

Edward Cary.

#### An Anecdote of Webster.

THE interesting sketch of Daniel Webster in the September CENTURY took me vividly back to a scene in Philadelphia in 1831 or 1832 in which that remarkable man and orator played a prominent part. The occasion was a gathering of many merchants and other business men to protest against the "removal of the deposits" from the Bank of the United States to a custody more pleasing to the administration. The meeting had been preceded by a vigorous collection of signatures to a petition to Congress deploring such a transfer; and when the lists of names, fastened end to end, were gathered and hung in festoons upon the walls of the place of meeting, they presented a unique and striking decoration. Mr. Webster, then on his way to Washington, had been requested to make a speech, and to take charge of the protest formally, and to advocate it

in the Senate. The meeting took place in the afternoon in Musical Fund Hall, in Locust street near Eighth, and never before had there been a larger audience in that well-known building. I was then about fourteen years old, and, having been directed by my employer, a prominent merchant, to solicit signatures, in which I was very successful, I was rewarded for my efforts by permission to go to the "Hall," which I gladly did, and, boy-like, chose a position near to, and in front of, the stand from which the address was to be made. Quite early in that wonderful speech, with a grace and

dignity natural to him, after denouncing the financial change and its chief author, the President, Mr. Webster, pointing to the documents fluttering about him, exclaimed in that matchless voice of his, "And he shall see the hand-writing on the wall," to which *instantly* some one in the crowd in clear and distinct words replied, "Yes; and a Daniel will interpret it to him." During the applause which followed, and which continued long and loud, the great senator stood as erect and imperturbable as a statue of New England granite.

*A Seventy-niner.*

## IN LIGHTER VEIN.

### CAPTAIN JERRY.

(THE LAST OF THE WAR PAPERS.)

By the Author of "Two Runaways."

I.

IT was just before the battle of Chickamauga that Jerry Thomas tendered his services as a soldier and commander to the Southern Confederacy. His black face shone with military ardor as he stated his proposition to the colonel commanding the Twenty-fourth South Carolina.

"You see, Marse Alec, hyah es thirty-two niggers waitin' on folks in dis hyah camp, holdin' hosses, cleanin' brasses, and cookin'; an' hit don't look right fer dese lazy rascals ter be er-settin' roun' while fightin' 's goin' on, an' dey bosses out yonner somewhar reskin' dey lives ter keep 'em f'om bein' stole an' runned off by dem Yankees. I be'n er-drillin' an' er-speechin' ter de crowd tell dey all says ef Jerry 'll lead de way dey 'll go anywhar ter he'p dey white folks. An', Marse Alec, ef you 'll des gimme de guns an' tell Jerry whar you want de nex' fightin' done, you goin' ter hyah good news f'om dat crowd. Dey means business, sho!"

"Do you think you could hold them together, Jerry?" asked the colonel, lazily, as he refilled his pipe. "My observation has been that the boys are not fond of the smell of powder."

"Hol' 'em tergedder! Who, me? Huh! Dey don't need no holdin'! White folks don't put much faith in er nigger when hit come ter fightin', but dere 's where dey es wrong. Course er nigger don't want too much crowdin', an' all you got ter do es ter gi' him elbow-room an' he 'll stay 'long wid de bes' white man in de yarmy. An' dem niggers back yonner ain' no common stock; dey es all quality, an' seen heap er 'speriance, an' ain' nair one of 'em goin' ter run off an' leave Jerry. I 'd kill de fus rascal dat turn es back. Des you gimme guns ter go roun', an' about five loads ter de man; dat 's all you got ter do."

The colonel said he would see about it, and went off laughing. But that evening the matter was mentioned at headquarters, and received favorable notice. Much to the delight of Jerry, he received his guns and thirty rounds of ammunition.

"What all dat powdah an' shot fer?" he asked dubiously, as the ammunition was being distributed.

"For your men, of course," said the colonel. "You don't expect to go into battle without ammunition, do you?"

"No, sah; but hit 'll tek er long time ter shoot all dat

up, Marse Alec; an' ef you got any use fer hit down de line, I reck'n erbout five loads all roun' will do fer my crowd. Er nigger loads mighty slow when he gits de 'citement on 'im." But the protest was unavailing.

For a week Jerry was in his glory. A second-hand uniform from a general's tent, a battered cap with a feather in it, a pair of cavalry boots much worn and a saber, completed his outfit, with the exception of a huge horse-pistol, which he wore in his belt. The uniforms of his command consisted of whatever could be begged about the camp. For side-arms a few carried pistols, and more than one had hatchets. Just how many razors there were, it is easy to guess, as most of the command were accustomed to shave their masters.

Jerry's drilling of this motley crowd was unique, and for several days afforded the soldiers no end of fun. Day by day he grew in importance, and by the morning of the battle he was a bigger man than General Bragg in the estimation of himself and his dusky followers.

When that eventful day dawned, Jerry got his men together, and awaited near the wagon-train for the orders which were to place him in the path of glory. He endeavored to explain military tactics to his command by drawing lines of battle in the sand, and indicating with the end of his scabbard the probable position of the two armies, and how movements would be effected, but with little or no success, for reasons not difficult to conceive. It was while thus engaged that a mounted officer rode up and ordered him to advance with his company, and to take position on the right of the Twenty-fourth South Carolina.

"Hurry forward," said the officer; "the fight has begun."

"I knowed dat 'fo' you come," said Jerry; "dem nail-kegs<sup>1</sup> been flyin' 'roun' hyah thick es bees 'bout er hive. Which way you say we mus' go, boss?"

The officer pointed to the line again, urging the new commander to hurry. Smoke was rolling upward in the direction indicated, and the roar of cannon and the rattle of musketry at that moment grew thunderous and deafening.

"Yes, sah," said Jerry, reflectively; "you wants me ter tek dis hyah comp'ny, an' go up yonner by the Twenty-fourth? Did Gen'l Bragg send fer me hisse'f?" The officer, struggling to quiet his excited horse, divided

<sup>1</sup> Large shells.

## TOPICS OF THE TIME.

### A Test of Character.

IN the State of New York especially, but in other States as well, there has been of late a great shaking among the political dry bones. In various sections both of the leading parties have been making efforts to purge themselves of disreputable elements, and to reorganize on lines of principle instead of those of plunder. In addition to these movements of reform inside of political parties, good men of both parties have been endeavoring to reform municipal governments by means of combinations free from the entanglements of national politics.

These movements have been, and will continue to be, tests of character and of patriotism for many who little suspect the ordeal as applied to themselves. For the timid and time-serving it is a veritable day of judgment. Some good-natured, easy-going "respectables," who greatly deprecate "trouble in the party," or who hesitate to antagonize "machines" not yet stripped of their power to injure the too loudly protesting citizen — some of these may yet be surprised to find that by doing nothing they have done much more than they intended; namely, have ranged themselves, virtually, on the side of corrupt and discredited "organizations," alliance with which must mean suspicion and may mean dishonor.

### The Rights of "Unknown Authors."

A DISCUSSION of the rights of unknown authors as contributors to the periodicals has been in progress lately, if indeed there has ever been a time when such a discussion has not been in progress. As a large part of our population consists of actual or would-be authors, and as every one of these is, or has been at some time, unknown, naturally great numbers of persons are interested in such a discussion; and most of them not from the point of view of the editors, who are supposed to be inimical to the unknown author, and even perhaps to be in league to "keep him out."

When an editor does take part in the discussion it is usually to declare it to be a singular mistake to suppose him a natural enemy of the unknown writer. He explains that the "unknown" is in fact the very apple of his eye; that he spends weary days and sleepless nights in search of the hidden jewel; and that there is no prouder moment of his life than when the great discovery is made, and the shining splendor is forever set in the editorial crown of rejoicing. He also intimates that as every author must have been at the beginning unknown, in sad obscurity he probably would have remained had it not been for the editorial patience, insight, and prescience. He continues his argument by showing, too, that the known author cannot in the nature of things last forever, and that a succession of geniuses is necessary in order that the life of the periodical may be maintained, as well as the spice of variety which is requisite to that life. He may insist,

also, that nothing might be more discouraging to an unknown author than to suppose that after he had made himself known he would receive no more consideration from the editor than he did before. The editor, cajoled into argument and explication, is likely even to divulge secrets of the prison-house, and to give lists, it may be, of certain of his most noted reclamations from the great flood of manuscripts pouring daily through his desk. He may hint darkly, too, at the fact that a great name is not quite the open sesame it is presumed to be, though he may not venture to publish to the world the names of supposed "favorite" and "regular" contributors from whom his conscience, editorial exigencies, and whims, have led him respectfully to decline manuscripts. The modern editor can and does, moreover, when driven to discussion, puncture various bubblish superstitions still attaching to the mysterious *sanctum sanctorum* of his official duties — not the least of these that favorite bogy, "the waste-paper basket," which, as everybody ought to know, no well-regulated magazine *sanctum*, alas! any more possesses; indeed the type-writer has divested that legendary trap for the unwary of most of its terrors.

We confess that we have a good deal of sympathy with the editor thus driven to bay. No one should wish him to show less combativeness when attacked, no one should be deceived by his earnest and deprecatory eloquence to suppose that he is completely contented. If he insists upon his desire to be fair, and endeavors to make clear the absolute compulsion upon him to be honest and unprejudiced, and if he makes much of his occasional strokes of sympathetic comprehension and good luck, and too fondly displays the list of his successes — be assured that he is nevertheless haunted daily by the long and ever increasing list of his mistakes of judgment, lapses in good taste, and failures generally; be assured that the hell of even the so-called "successful" editor is paved with good manuscripts rejected, alike from authors known and unknown.

Then it should not be forgotten that the editor himself is to be sympathized with on account of the false position in which he is often placed, being forced to sit in judgment upon his fellow-workers when he would much rather be in all respects like unto them. Many an editor must have said to himself, "Why has my love for literature and the literary life led me into this unlovely predicament: compelled me to criticize when I would enjoy; constrained me to administer disappointment when I would so deeply prefer to convey only messages of help and hope; made me the unwilling means of bringing defeat and anguish to so many eager and yearning ambitions?" Sometimes, indeed, there is the reward of knowing that good has been done to the individual and to the world; but the rod of "refusal" must, in the very nature of things, be much more frequently employed than the benison of "acceptance."

On the other hand, we wonder if any editor has ever seriously endeavored to turn the tables upon the innumerable, and sometimes protesting, band of the unknown, by contending that he has actually wasted a good part of his editorial existence in unavailing, and possibly unwise, attempts to fan into a flame the feeble spark of unknown talent, by means of sympathetic suggestion, and minute and laborious editorial criticism. Has any editor ever confessed even to himself that perhaps over-conscientiousness and a morbid anxiety have led him to wade for hopeless hours through manuscripts that really should not have been read beyond the first miserable page or chapter, any more than (to use Colonel Higginson's simile) one should eat a whole turkey in order to find out whether the turkey is fit to eat!

Has any editor ever carefully set to work to inquire into the consequences of too much editorial attention to unknown writers in the direction of wasted energies,—both of editors and contributors,—of false hopes, of injured careers? How many literary beggars-on-horseback have been started out in life by this means? How many men and women have been deflected from the natural, home-keeping exercise of their faculties, and have been propelled along paths of failure and disappointment—perhaps even of public injury?

Furthermore, has any editor ever endeavored to ascertain what is the general effect upon literature of the modern feverish editorial quest for unknown and evasive "genius," resulting, as it so constantly, does in the public introduction of the hopeless amateur, rather than of the artist by conviction? Does the multiplicity of names brought to the public attention lessen the impression upon that public of the small number that truly stand for art? Nowadays many can once or twice rise to a certain pitch of excellence,—not very high, but sufficiently high for publication,—perhaps never again reaching the same plane. The conscientious editor is alert for quality from whatever source; the names of contributors are legion; and because of all this miscellaneous scramble, is not the man whose talent is strong and steady,—who is bound upon a career and not upon an excursion,—is he not less distinguished in the great mass of producers; has he not really less room and less public attention than should be his?

Is there not much food for reflection here? The unknown author, in conjunction with the anxious editor,—forever in terror lest he let a new Keats or Charlotte Brontë slip through his tired and careless fingers,—perhaps these two together are in danger of doing harm to current literature, the former by his insistence, the latter by his timidity. And yet who shall dare warn the unknown author not to be insistent? Surely not the editor, anxious or otherwise; for he knows too well that he can make no greater mistake than to suppose that insistence is a sign of any lack of original genius.

Perhaps one of these days some editor or author (or both in one), some man or woman of great experience and unearthly wisdom, will be able, by wise counsel, to settle this ancient and entertaining feud; but we doubt it. Mr. Howells seemed to come near it lately, in some candid expressions on the subject, but his views evidently have not been taken as final by all the parties concerned. Meantime the editor can console himself with the reflection that, so long as he is unprejudiced and

hospitably minded, a reasonable world will never deny to him the privilege of simple, downright human error; and he can comfort himself with the recollection that all literature is full of the honestly held, erroneous opinions of one another entertained by the highest literary lights. And again the unknown author should be reconciled to the situation by the knowledge that in these days of numerous periodicals and easy access to the public, the stupidity or brutality of one editor, or corps of editors, can easily be canceled by the wisdom, or foolishness, of another. And furthermore, he can rest in the assurance that whatever any editor may say, what he will do is to go plodding on in very much the same old fashion—hospitably considering every manuscript and every suggestion brought to his attention; constantly amazed at the increasing amount of good literary material produced; always touched by genuine literary ambition; and very often indeed stifling a pang at the hard necessity of returning many and many a piece of worthy work for the identical reason that a quart measure will not hold a barrel of apples.

One editor, we remember, was very much pleased with an illustration even better than this of the apples, one perhaps fragrant enough to close this screed on the unknown author. When the gardener goes out into the garden to cull and arrange in his vase, with such poor skill as may be his, such flowers as seem then best fitted for the purpose, he cannot gather all the buds and blossoms: the single vase will not harbor the whole garden's flowery wealth. One rose is taken and another left, but it does not follow that to be unchosen is to be unworthy.

#### First Step toward Municipal Reform.

No more important proposition will be laid before the New York Constitutional Convention, when it shall assemble in May next, than that for an amendment providing for separate National, State, and municipal elections. It will not be a new proposition, for it has been under discussion in the press for ten years or more, and has been laid before the legislature, only to be rejected on two successive occasions. The machine politicians of both parties have joined hands against it, perceiving with unerring instinct that it aims a deadly blow at their trade.

Under the present constitution, the governor and lieutenant-governor are elected for three years, the other State officers for two years, State senators for two years, and assemblymen for one year. It is proposed that the terms of all State officers be lengthened to the uniform period of four years, and that all be elected at the same time; that the term of senators be extended to four years (though this would not be essential), and that of assemblymen to two years. All State officials and members of the Senate could then be chosen at elections midway between Presidential elections, on even years. Members of the Assembly would have to be chosen on the even years when Presidential elections occurred, but no other State candidates would be in the field at that time. The odd years would thus be reserved exclusively for municipal elections, and the voters would be asked to consider municipal issues alone.

The advantages of this complete separation would be very great. No municipal election could come nearer to a Presidential or a State election than one year.

Consequently, no voter could be influenced in his course in regard to city matters either by the partizan prejudices of a preceding election, or by the supposed moral effect of his vote upon his party's prospects in the State or National election a year hence. He could concentrate all his attention upon city matters, and vote solely with a view to the city's interests. By having the election occur on the regular November date, there would be no difficulty in arousing sufficient public interest in it, as has been shown to be the case when municipal elections are held in the spring.

Experience in the cities of Massachusetts and other New England States has demonstrated conclusively that the interval of only a month between a State or National election and a municipal election has been sufficient to make it possible for voters to ignore the questions and issues of National and State politics in deciding about city matters. It has happened in repeated instances that Massachusetts cities which were carried by one political party in November turned about in December and elected the candidates of the opposite party to municipal offices, solely on the ground of fitness. If this could be accomplished after so brief an interval, it could certainly be done after a full year had elapsed.

If the Constitutional Convention, as is not improbable, were to decide upon an amendment in favor of biennial sessions of the legislature, it would not be necessary to lengthen the terms of the assemblymen, who would then be elected, as now, to serve one year, but only every other year. Biennial legislative sessions are the rule now in all except six States of the Union — Massachusetts, Montana, New York, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and South Carolina, and in none of the thirty-eight States which have adopted that system is any popular demand heard for a return to annual sessions, though the politicians in some States evade the law by means of adjourned sessions, their conduct in so doing meeting with strong popular condemnation.

In regard to the proposed lengthening of the terms of State officers, if it should be objected that four years constitute too long a term, it is to be said that in twenty States of the Union four years is the period at present, and has been found to be, in every case, a decided benefit to the commonwealth, in giving it stability of administration and freedom from the disturbing influences attendant upon more frequent elections.

But the great point in favor of the proposed change is the complete separation of municipal elections from all confusing, entangling, and demoralizing questions of National and State politics. Until this shall have been done, it will be impossible to secure any permanent improvement in municipal government. So long as National issues can be juggled in to persuade the voter that he must stand by his party, right or wrong, in order to make more certain its success in National affairs, we cannot hope to obtain that non-partizan and public-spirited action in municipal politics which is essential to honest and intelligent city government. That the voters in all our large cities are in an unusually favorable condition of mind on this subject was shown by the elections in New York, Brooklyn, Buffalo, and other cities, last November. The absence of National issues in that election contributed largely to the independent action which thousands of party voters took at that time. They welcomed the opportunity to vote directly, and

without extraneous political influences, upon the question of good government. This would certainly be the case if complete separation were made, and were to become the permanent rather than the occasional practice.

#### Municipal Reform Suggestions.

It is encouraging to note that while municipal reform makes slow progress, its advocates are not disheartened, but are seeking constantly for new ways by which to make their exertions more effective. In New York State, as we have pointed out in the preceding article, the advocates of reform are at present devoting their energies to the securing of separate municipal elections, in the belief that with them a keener public interest in city affairs can be aroused. This is the end sought by similar movements everywhere, for in all quarters the most serious obstacle to progress is found in the lack of public spirit among the people who ought to exercise the controlling influence in municipal affairs. In a recent number of *THE CENTURY* we discussed the experiment which is under way in a small Western city to cultivate this healthier public spirit or civic pride. Recently some other suggestions have been made which are worthy of consideration.

One of the best of these originated, we believe, with Mr. Herbert Welsh of the Municipal League of Philadelphia, an organization which has been working intelligently and untiringly for several years for better local government in that city. Mr. Welsh suggests that, inasmuch as he and his fellow-reformers in Philadelphia are working on the same line with good citizens in all the other large cities of the country, who are encountering the same discouraging obstacles, and have the same intricate problems to solve, it would be helpful to all concerned if they could be brought together into a national organization. This could be called a National Municipal League, or some such appropriate name. In that way all municipal-reform advocates and workers could be brought together at least once a year, when they could compare ideas and plans and be mutually helpful in many ways. As Mr. Welsh says, a clear perception of the fact that they were working in the same direction, and under the same difficulties, would enable them to continue their struggle with a sense of generous rivalry, of enthusiasm, of careful thought and patience far greater than that which marks their efforts now.

Such a national organization would not only be helpful to the active reformers, but would be very useful in arousing public interest, and thus bringing to the work of municipal reform the thing of which it stands most in need. The annual conventions of the organization would attract public attention, and could not fail to increase the number of persons who would be willing to aid in the work. What is needed, before we can have in this country a genuine reform spirit, is a wide-spread and deep dissatisfaction with existing municipal rule. So far as our largest cities are concerned, the feeling ought to be something more than dissatisfaction — disgust rather, and a sense of degradation that as Americans we allow such travesties and libels upon popular government to continue. Before this is printed the first conference of this character may have taken place.

A more specific suggestion than Mr. Welsh's comes from Mr. Daniel S. Remsen of New York, and is to be found in a pamphlet upon "Suffrage and the Bal-

lot," written by him, and published by D. Appleton & Co. Mr. Remsen takes the view, which is shared by most observers, that the real source of bad rulers and bad government is the political "boss," who dictates absolutely the nominations; and that the surest way to secure reform is to aim at the point where nominations are made. In support of this view he quotes the following remark made to him by a prominent politician:

It's great sport to see people go to the polls in herds and vote like cattle for the ticket we prepare. Reformers don't begin at the right point. They should begin at the place where nominations are made. The people think they make the nominations, but we do that business for them.

Mr. Remsen suggests, in order that a direct attack may be made upon the political boss in his stronghold, that the primary-election laws be so amended that, first, in order to entitle a party to file a certificate of nomination, it shall be required to proceed according to the law governing primary elections, and to make proper proof of that fact; second, that nominations to office shall be made by a direct vote within the party under the Australian system, with the additional feature that the voters be given the benefit of a second choice. He adds:

The idea of making nominations by a direct vote within the party is not new. It has been in use many years in some parts of Ohio, where it is known as the Crawford County system. It has generally worked well. I am informed, however, that the greatest difficulty is that several candidates for the nomination have sometimes received almost an equal number of votes. On that point there has been some discussion in Ohio about adopting the system to which I have already alluded, whereby a voter is allowed to express his second choice. By the adoption of that system of election at the primaries in connection with the Australian system, I have no doubt that the evil complained of would be overcome.

This plan would work well undoubtedly if there were sufficient public interest to induce respectable and intelligent voters as a whole to attend the primaries. If there were not sufficient interest of this kind, the nominations would be no better than they were before the plan was adopted. Every improvement, in fact, depends for its success upon this question of public interest. The ballot laws of thirty-six States give the people who are dissatisfied with regular party nominations the opportunity to make nominations of their own on petition; but while this has been availed of in some instances, there has not been enough public interest to make the practice so general in cases of bad nominations as to exert an appreciable influence upon the character of the regular nominees. What is absolutely necessary, if we are to have any lasting improvement in municipal government, is the creation of a public spirit which will not merely encourage, but will insist upon better government. Until we can create and foster that, not as a mere passing emotion aroused to meet a particular emergency, but as a permanent state of mind, we are seeking to construct our municipal-reform tower by placing the top brick first.

#### The Anti-Spoils League.

In the January CENTURY, in an editorial on the spoils system (entitled "The New Abolition"), we took occasion strongly to recommend the new movement under the auspices of "The National Civil Service Re-

form League," intended to concentrate and make more immediately effective the popular sentiment against the iniquitous spoils system. The declaration and petition of the new League are as follows:

*Carl Schurz,*      *William Potts,*      *Silas W. Burt,*  
President.              Secretary.              Treasurer.

We hereby declare ourselves in favor of the complete abolition of the spoils system from the public service, believing that system to be unjust, undemocratic, injurious to political parties, fruitful of corruption, a burden to legislative and executive officers, and in every way opposed to the principles of good government.

We call upon all in authority to extend to the utmost the operation of the present reform laws; and, by additional legislation, to carry the benefits of the merit system to the farthest possible limits under our National, State, and municipal governments.

Name .....

Address .....

All who desire to take part in the movement should apply for cards directly to the secretary, Mr. William Potts, No. 54 William Street, New York. The plan is to obtain a national enrollment of those willing to declare themselves opposed to the spoils system on principle. The new League exacts no dues, and is to be officered and managed by the officers and managers of the present League.

In the letter of explanation accompanying the cards for signatures, the following succinct statement of the whole subject is made:

By the Reform of the Civil Service it is meant that every competent citizen of the United States shall have an equal chance to enter the service, and that it shall no longer be kept for the support of the party politicians: that in order to enter the service a man must show that he is competent; that when he has entered the service he shall be kept there as long as he faithfully and efficiently performs the duties of his office, and not be compelled to give up his position because it is wanted for a party hack or the henchman of a boss; that a citizen shall be able to go freely to the primary meeting and to the polls, and not have his political action controlled by a body of office-holders; that office-holders shall not be assessed by party politicians for political purposes; that if salaries are so large as to admit of such assessment, they should be reduced.

A poor man has a personal interest in the abolition of the spoils system, because he is not incompetent in consequence of being poor, and he has a right to a chance for appointment if he wishes it; because, if not competent himself, his son or daughter, educated in the public school, may readily become so; because the spoils system wastes the public money, and the poor man pays his full share of taxes in house rent, and food, and clothing, and everything that he uses; because it is the interest of every citizen that the business of the government shall be honestly managed; because the politician who is trying to feather his own nest is always the worst enemy of the citizen, while pretending to be his friend, and the abolition of the spoils system means the destruction of the boss, whose power rests on the distribution of offices as spoils; because no other reform is safe or can even be successfully prosecuted until the abolition of the spoils system has been secured.

The last phrase in this statement touches upon an aspect of the question that will be keenly appreciated by all who are interested in the carrying out of needed reforms under the National and local governments. The spoils system always stands in the way of the fair and honest settlement of public questions. It interferes with the effective expression of public opinion. Like slavery, it is a relic of the feudal system; it must be altogether abolished.

So far as the Federal offices are concerned, the merit system is firmly and successfully entrenched in that part of the service now under its operation. Successive administrations of different parties have upheld and extended it; and the Civil Service Commission has recently borne emphatic witness to the fact of the faithful observance of the laws, and of their spirit, as applied to the offices now covered. Meantime, the President has greatly strengthened the *personnel* of the Commission, and thus made it a better

instrument for the prosecution of its labors, and several of the Secretaries are moving in the direction of reform. Postmaster-General Bissell has made emphatic declarations which will win friends for the merit system wherever its efficacy may have been doubted.

We are not unmindful of the danger of precipitate reform, but public opinion will heartily welcome any extension of the merit system by well considered executive and legislative action.

## OPEN LETTERS.

### The Current Criticism of Foot-ball.

FIFTEEN years ago, when some of the American colleges were endeavoring against great odds to establish the sport of foot-ball, I undertook the then extremely unpleasant task of begging for space in daily papers, weekly periodicals, and magazines in which to exploit the advantages of the sport. It was hard and thankless work, for the real devotees of the game were few in number, and gibes were many. It took the most zealous efforts of those of us who really cared for the sport to persuade editors occasionally to allow a game to be written up by an actual player. In a few years the parents and the general public learned that the game was not barbarous, brutal, or demoralizing. Then for a time it enjoyed comparative immunity from such criticism. During the last two or three years it has become over-popular with the public, and this craze has led it to assume an importance and prominence wholly unsought, and has afforded a pretext for a new arraignment.

My own personal experience leads me to believe that the injuries which are the principal basis of these exaggerated criticisms occur in teams that are neither regular school nor college organizations, and in many cases are attributable to the entirely unfit condition of the contestants. An untrained person could not, without injury, merely run once around the track outside the field at the pace which, after careful and systematic training, these youngsters maintain throughout the game.

Foot-ball necessarily involves personal contact. To play it successfully a man must be above all things cool, and this requires severe training. Victory depends upon the effectiveness with which each individual of the team, at a given signal, performs during its own attack a certain small but necessary portion of the work, and, during the period when the opponents have the ball, divines their play and frustrates their attack. No man can lose his temper and keep his place on the team, and the training necessary for self-control in this personal contact is the best of discipline for any youth. During the last six years four of the Yale foot-ball captains have been prominent members of the Young Men's Christian Association. A sport which can strongly attract such an element in university life needs no defense against charges of brutality. In order to become a foot-ball captain a man must have made a practical study of the game in all its aspects; otherwise his fellows would never select him for the position. But, unfortunately for the status of the sport among those who

read the newspapers, a foot-ball critic need have made no study either of the theory or of the practice. Unless his strictures are based upon some knowledge of the sport, reasonable people can afford to take them with the usual grain of salt. The Boston "Medical and Surgical Journal," which has recently been engaged in an investigation of the sport, after reviewing every injury received at Cambridge during the last four years, concludes with the statement, "We do not hesitate to say that there is a better physical condition among college students with foot-ball than without it, with out-door games than if their place were taken by compulsory calisthenics and gymnastics." A similar investigation, covering colleges in many parts of the country, which was undertaken by Caspar W. Whitney, the results of which were printed in the Christmas number of "Harper's Weekly," strongly confirms these conclusions.

One point may be conceded to the critics. Doubtless, of late, in the opinion of the best coaches, certain features of the sport have become over-developed; viz., those involving the principle of bringing a rapidly moving mass of men in contact with one or two standing still. Although injuries from this source have not been many, it is probable that the play will be barred out or modified before another season. Such legislation will add to the attraction of the sport, for the Princeton-Yale game on last Thanksgiving day gave evidence both of the rather slow character of mass-playing as well as of the brilliant and exciting features of a more open game. All that is necessary to bring back the old days of no off-side interference is to drop out a few words in one of the rules. If this seems too severe, a rule can be enacted against players changing position, in order to interfere, until the ball is in play. A third way would be to insist upon a kick or a long pass every third down. In fact, almost any legislation rendering the possession of the ball less valuable would accomplish the desired end. At the same time the game should be shortened to two half-hours of actual play.

As to the amount of time taken by a foot-ball player from his studies: in the first place, the early practice of some three weeks is taken not from his studies, but from his summer vacation. October and November are the only months wherein he is both playing foot-ball and studying. During the first of these his practice usually consists of two half-hours in the afternoon. In November he may be required, in addition to this, to go through signals for a half-hour in the morning, and,

toward the end, in the evening also. It is easy to see that the actual time occupied is, therefore, far from excessive. But during the last fortnight before the great game the foot-ball man will become more or less wrapped up in his fancies of victory or defeat. Up to this time the player, in distinction from the captain, has had few worries. He has been coached, but has not been required to study out problems of attack and defense, tricks and strategies, plays for emergencies, and plans of operation. This has become the duty of the coaches and the captain. The coach is usually a graduate who has sacrificed a vacation at some other period of the year to assist in the fall work. Thus the coaches answer an excellent purpose in taking from the shoulders of the players the too fascinating and engrossing study of tactics. There is no doubt that when team play really begins in earnest, as it does at the end of October, the captain thinks of foot-ball more than of lessons; but that very man has usually been selected on account of his mental ability, and I have never known a foot-ball captain at Yale who did not keep up with his class and pass satisfactory examinations. The "bummer" gets dropped, the exceedingly bright but dissipated collegian falls by the wayside, sometimes even the plodding but stupid worker has to give it up, but a man whose mental attributes and moral qualities win him the captaincy of a foot-ball team is sure to pull through in spite of the demands made upon his time.

The reason that college authorities are so little moved by the clamor against athletics is that they know from the results of their previous and continuing investigations that the good far overbalances the evil, and that no better example could be placed before the college of the value of sustained self-control. Professor Richards, from an exhaustive study of the facts, and with tabulated statistics to prove his statements, concludes as follows:

The system is conducive to the good order of the college. Before the days of athletics these men of superabundant animal life supplied the class bullies in fights between town and gown, were busy at night gate-stealing, and other pranks now gone out of fashion. Such now find occupation for all their activity in regular training. Any instructor who has kept track of the ways of college during the past fifteen years cannot fail to be struck by the decreasing number of the really great disorders, by the mildness of those which remain, and by the increasing regard for college authority, college property, and for the rights of fellow-students.

His accompanying statistics show that although in three years in the sixties the record of dismissals for these disorders was eleven, twenty-one, and thirteen, that for the next decade after the sports became prominent, it was less than an average of three a year. Nor can I forbear quoting his reply to the complaint that there is more talk of foot-ball than of Greek.

Does any one suppose that if there were no athletics, members of the college who meet one another on the campus would fall into conversation on the absorbing questions of science and knowledge? The college world is like the world in general in that its inhabitants when off duty find their recreation in talking of other subjects than those of regular business. Their manly contests supply these, and prevent many a man from looking to dissipation and disorder as reliefs from the daily drudgery of the study and the class-room.

The question of a game in New York and upon Thanksgiving day is one upon which I must confess

there is room for a wide difference of opinion. Against such a game is the fact, among others, that at present, while it is a fashionable fad, the increased importance of the game itself and of the players tends to exaggerated ideas of all kinds, while it may be urged in its favor that it gathers together as does no other event, not even commencement, the old and young graduates, and affords a particularly favorable opportunity for reunions. I have seen in the hotels the most pleasant meetings of the parents with the son's chums and companions, the old graduates with the young players and supporters—meetings improbable, almost impossible, under other conditions. A dozen years ago it was commonly remarked to the college foot-ball managers by their friends, the public, "Why do you have the game on Thanksgiving day, when everybody is engaged with family dinners or family reunions? If you must have it on Thanksgiving day, at any rate have it in the morning, and then you'll have a crowd; but you will never get New Yorkers to give up their Thanksgiving dinner for a foot-ball game." To this the college managers replied that they did not care for a crowd, and they would not be induced to change the day or hour of this match, because, they said, "Our own fellows have this holiday, and can come to the game." To-day the very same advisers are crying out against Thanksgiving day, accusing the college managers of selecting that day in order to make more money. The fact is that the colleges alone have been consistent. They began by selecting Thanksgiving day because it was a holiday, and their men could therefore see the contest. They selected New York or its vicinity as the place *par excellence* for a neutral ground and a fair field. The public have come to regard the game as one of the important "sporting events" of the year, and have attached to it many attributes in themselves undesirable. Such attributes come not from the collegian, and it is rather unjust to hold him responsible when one knows that his position is the same that it was twelve years ago, and realizes also that the present future will exhaust itself, and leave him that for which he selected the spot—a fair and accessible neutral field. But the collegian will not rebel against altering this date if his own people desire it upon religious grounds. Would it not be rather hard to say that because all London turns out to the Oxford-Cambridge race the contest should be given up or taken away from the Thames? Why is it that college contests are so attractive? Because—and here is as high a compliment as the collegian is likely to receive at any point in his later career—because the spectator knows that every man will do his best to win, that there will be no sold contests, no cheating, and no cowardice.

The gate receipts amount to a large sum. Are they too large? That must depend entirely upon the object to which they are devoted. Of course not one cent goes to the players. They are neither richer nor poorer for their connection with the team. The money goes to pay for improvements in the gymnasiums or the athletic fields, or for the erection of suitable houses upon these fields. In other words, the popularity of the moment is being made to provide for a more permanent establishment of college sports and athletics.

Walter Camp.



## Palmistry.

As in an age of faith every crude imagination of things unknown, and every corrupting ceremony, steal the name of religion, so in an age of rational investigation every puerile superstition based upon imaginary correspondences and subtle relations masquerades in the character of science.

The "gipsies' palmistry" has now, forsooth, become a science, and is defined by one, in a volume found in many drawing-rooms, as "the science which enables us to divine character, past events, and destiny, from the shape, the mounds, and the lines of the hands."

Anciently palmistry was known as chiromancy. Now some of its votaries write of it by that name, others as chiromancy. Its tide has ebbed and flowed in the course of ages, but within a few years it has become a fashionable craze, two Frenchmen of some ability and social standing having written upon it—M. le Capitaine D'Arpentigny, who wrote on chiromancy, and Desbarrolles, who grafted upon it palmistry.

Chiromancy claims to find the disposition, tendencies, characters, and trades or professions of men by studying the shape and appearance of the hands, and the sensations they excite when looked upon or touched. In this system hands are divided into large-palmed, spatulate, conical, square, knotty, pointed, and mixed. Whatever may be said of hands or fingers, however, the conclusions to be drawn are modified by the size, shape, and direction of the thumb.

The palmists attach great importance to the palm, the mounds, and especially to the lines. But these may be modified by "stars," "circles," "points," "triangles," "crosses," "branches," "chain-like formations," "breaks," "parallels," "grating marks," "cross rays," "upward proceeding lines" (which have different significations according as there are one, two, or three of them), and the "tortuous lines."

After many experiments with those considered most successful, and a study of the subject in the light of anatomy, physiology, and natural coincidences, I regard palmistry as without basis in science or sense.

That no two hands have ever been absolutely similar is indisputable. When critically examined, no two leaves or flowers, though of the same species, appear exactly alike; much less would such complex organizations as human hands be found without difference.

General conclusions can therefore be drawn from the shape and size of the hands as to strength, suppleness, circulation of blood, temperament, and the size of the form to which they belong. But even here a large margin must be allowed for departures from general rules. Huge hands are sometimes the mortification of small and otherwise beautiful women, while giants are found with small feet and hands. Sometimes large feet and diminutive hands are possessed by the same persons. Walker and Darwin observed that the hands of the children of laboring men are larger from birth than those of persons whose ancestors have lived idle lives, or have been engaged in vocations not requiring the use of the hands. Though such children might become renowned for intellectuality or proficiency in art, the large hand might be transmitted to several generations.

What is justly allowed to chiromancy is true of every other part of the body, in its proportionate relation to the sum of human activity. With these rational conclu-

sions the votary of palmistry will not be content. It is mystery he seeks, and a power to read the past, present, and future, which nature has denied to man.

To the lines, mounds, stars, etc., the signification attached is wholly imaginary, and the hedging to which the professors resort is more absurd and ludicrous than that which has brought astrology into contempt.

The student of anatomy,—who finds in the hand more than fifty muscles and ligaments of great strength; especially one who dissects it, and, as he does so, tests each muscle, and traces the function of each ligament; or even one who owns an imitation hand, with wires, springs, and false skin, stuffed with cotton at the proper places, the best substitute for an anatomical examination,—will have no difficulty in explaining the existence of every line and mound.

Ages ago the Talmud affirmed that "man is born with his hands clenched." Science, with the microscope, traces the manifestation of the hand from its genesis; and in every stage it is found bent into a position necessitating the lines and developing the mounds. The muscular life of the infant, until it begins to creep, consists chiefly of contractions of the hand. Generally speaking, the flexors of the human body are much stronger than the extensors. No species of work is done by human beings with the back of the hand; all that it carries or clings to is held by contractions, and the fist is formed and maintained in the same manner, and, when in repose, the hand never hangs straight with the fingers extended. Thus the various marks of the skin are accounted for, and are perpetuated from age to age.

A further proof of these statements can be found in the fact that the marks on the hand are continually increasing or becoming less distinct, forming new combinations. A similar pseudo-science could be constructed in relation to the feet, especially if applied to that large proportion of mankind who are shoeless. Indeed, one form of ancient divination was known as pedomania.

There are generally marked differences between the left and the right hand, so that the books on chiromancy instruct the student to examine the left hand first, and to modify or correct it by what is found in the right.

The "Language of the Hand" affirms "that the qualities indicated by the lines will always be more or less present in the individual, even though they will not be evident to the ordinary observer, nor even observable at all. In that case they may be kept in subjection by self-denial." A sign of death is indicated when the three lines of life, head, and heart unite beneath the index finger; but "they may only indicate danger unless they are duplicated on the other hand." "If the line of the head divides beneath the middle finger upon a generally unlucky hand, that may predict the execution of the individual, which, unless Providence order otherwise [!], will surely take place." If the hand is otherwise generally fortunate, "we can fearlessly modify the sad prediction, and predict a broken head or a scalp wound."

The sole and sufficient cause of different lines in different persons is the difference in the shape and size of the hands, elasticity of skin, strength and use of the muscles, and external pressure. Therefore hands of different persons are not alike, nor both hands of the

same person. Mr. Francis Galton's remarks, in his work "Finger Prints," are to the point:

"The palms of the hands and the soles of the feet are covered with two totally distinct classes of marks. The most conspicuous are the creases or folds of the skin, which interest the followers of palmistry, but which are no more significant to others than the creases in old clothes; they show the lines of most frequent flexure, and nothing more.

Another statement in the same work is pertinent:

The fact of the creases of the hand being strongly marked in the newly-born child has been considered by some to testify to the archaic and therefore important character of their origin. The crumpled condition of the hand of the infant, during some months before its birth, seems to me, however, quite sufficient to account for the creases.

For lines to be an indication of anything mental, moral, or emotional, it would be necessary for them to be evolved under the influence of nerves connected with the brain centers, in which the said intellectual and moral qualities inhere; but superinduced from the periphery, they can mean nothing except more or less of different motions and use.

The palmist should never be allowed to hear of or see the persons who are testing his pretensions, for the eye, the changing lights and shades of the countenance, the voice, the general bearing, abound with indications which, though often delusive, are direct; and the conclusions of the palmist are read into instead of from the marks on the hand. In testing palmists of repute, I found differences among them, amounting to flat contradictions, concerning the indications of the same hands, and marked divergencies from the facts where anything more than general characteristics were under consideration.

Of the puerility of the evidence adduced one instance may suffice:

A young lady, a few weeks ago, hearing our name mentioned at the country house where we were staying, came up merrily, and, holding out her hand, said: "Can you tell me anything?" She was a perfect stranger to us until we sat down to luncheon. We looked at her hand, and said, "I see you were engaged to be married, but your pride interfered; you dissolved the engagement a year or two ago, and your health suffered in consequence." She at once withdrew her hand, saying, with a vivid blush, "Quite right; and I *have* suffered; no one but my sister ever knew the real cause. You have told the truth. It was pride."

This might be safely said to many intelligent, unmarried ladies; and no remark more likely to be acquiesced in than that "pride interfered" could be made.

Running over the whole field of human nature in his descriptions, the palmist can make many apparent hits; and if he appeals to vanity, the subject will be likely to think "there is more in palmistry than the skeptics believe," of which a conspicuous instance has recently been publicly displayed by the subject.

As an amusement for those who find pleasure in holding each other's hands, and talking airy nothings, or for the uses of writers of fiction, palmistry has great possibilities; but for anything beyond, respect for it indicates a mind either uninformed or unbalanced.

J. M. Buckley.

#### Variations in the Reports of the Gettysburg Address.<sup>1</sup>

THE variations between the several contemporary reports of the dedicatory address delivered by President Lincoln at Gettysburg on the 19th of November, 1863, and the innumerable versions since published, are remarkable, especially because of the brevity of the address, its importance alike in subject and matter, the circumstances under which it was spoken, and the character and office of the orator. Attention has more than once been attracted to these variations, and because of the differences between the earlier reports and the version published in autographic facsimile in 1864, it has been assumed that the discrepancies are due either to the blunders of the reporters or to their attempts to improve its rhetorical composition. Somewhat careful examination of a number of versions justifies the conclusion that while reporters, telegraphers, and printers are doubtless responsible for some minor variations, they are not accountable for the rhetorical differences, because these are due to Mr. Lincoln's own revision.

All authorities agree that the address was read from manuscript; if, therefore, that could be produced, any discussion as to its original form would be needless.

In Arnold's "Lincoln and Slavery" (1866) the version of the address there given is said, in a foot-note on page 424, to have been "copied from the original," but as it differs in several particulars from the words upon which contemporary and independent reports agree, it is questionable whether it was so copied. Probably it is a transcript from the autograph copy made by Mr. Lincoln in 1864, with which it verbally agrees, except in the insertion of "and" in the clause "by the people and for the people."

Curiously enough, in his later book, "Life of Abraham Lincoln" (1885), Arnold gives another version agreeing verbally, except in a single word, with the New York "Tribune" report, November 20, 1863, but without reference to its source, or explanation why he selected that in preference to the one he had previously quoted.

In 1875 it was stated by "The Congregationalist" that the original manuscript was then in possession of Mrs. Carlos Pierce of Boston, being bound in the same volume with the manuscript of Mr. Everett's oration, which, with the address, had been presented to the New York Sanitary Fair to be disposed of. A copy of this so-called original manuscript of the address was printed by "The Congregationalist," but comparison with contemporary reports warrants the belief that the manuscript, if an autograph and not a facsimile of the 1864 revision, was an autograph of later date than the original address. [See page 605.]

In view of the doubts which have been expressed concerning the existence of the original manuscript, it would be remarkable that, if it is extant, no facsimile reproduction has been made, or that the fact of its existence has not otherwise been fully established.

In the absence of the original manuscript, we are relegated to the contemporary reports for the form of

<sup>1</sup> Major W. H. Lambert prepared the manuscript of which this article is a condensation as "A Plea for a Standard Version of President Lincoln's Gettysburg Address." Mr. Nicolay, on page 606, supplies the "standard version," but part of Major Lambert's paper is interesting as explaining the confusion of statements that has obtained in regard to the address.—EDITOR.

the address as it was delivered; but unfortunately, these differ verbally to such an extent as to make it uncertain which, if any, is absolutely correct.

Opinions differ as to the place and circumstances of the composition of the address. Arnold, in his "Life of Abraham Lincoln" (page 328), asserts that the President, "while in the cars on his way from the White House to the battle-field, was notified that he would be expected to make some remarks also"; that, "asking for some paper, a rough sheet of foolscap was handed to him, and, retiring to a seat by himself, with a pencil he wrote the address." So late a notice is inherently improbable, and it is not consistent with the statements made by others who had equal or greater opportunity for acquaintance with the facts. Similarly, Ben Perley Poore says ("Reminiscences of Abraham Lincoln," page 228) that "his remarks at Gettysburg . . . were written in the car on his way from Washington to the battle-field, upon a piece of pasteboard held on his knee."

On the contrary, General James B. Fry in the same book (page 403) declares that he is confident that the statement that the Gettysburg speech was written in the car *en route* to that place is an error. He was in the car as an escort to the President, and had therefore opportunity to know whereof he speaks. He says: "I have no recollection of seeing him writing or even reading his speech during the journey; in fact, there was hardly any opportunity for him to read or write."

The Hon. Edward McPherson and Judge Wills of Gettysburg are of the opinion that the address was written in Mr. Lincoln's room at Judge Wills's house, where he was a guest during his stay in Gettysburg. There appears to be no doubt of the correctness of Mr. McPherson's assertion that before retiring on the night of the 18th the President inquired the order of the exercises of the next day, and wrote out his remarks there, and it is probable that what he wrote was the final draft of his address before its delivery.

Noah Brooks, in his "Life of Lincoln" (page 394), and with still more detail in his "Personal Reminiscences of Lincoln," published in this magazine for February, 1878, declares that a few days prior to the 19th of November, 1863, the President told him that Mr. Everett had kindly sent him a copy of his address in order that the same ground might not be gone over by both, and he added: "There is no danger that I shall. My speech is all blocked out. It is very short." In answer to Mr. Brooks's question whether the speech was written, Mr. Lincoln replied, "Not exactly written; it is not finished, anyway."

Mr. Brooks states that the speech was written and rewritten a great many times, and was revised somewhat after Mr. Lincoln reached Gettysburg. "As he read it from the manuscript he made a few verbal changes. These changes did not appear in the report printed at the time by the newspapers, but they were embodied in the draft" afterward made for publication. Mr. Brooks in his "Life" gives a facsimile of this draft, repeating it in print, but with the fatality that has attended the publication of this address his printed version is not a literal transcript of his facsimile.<sup>1</sup>

The introductory phrase, "The President then delivered the following dedicatory speech," is practically

identical in all the Associated Press reports, as are also the locations of the bracketed words denoting applause. There are verbal differences between the several reports, but there appears to be no doubt of the common origin.

The reports printed in the Philadelphia papers agree, except that those in the "Ledger," "Press," and "Bulletin" differ each in a single instance from one another, and from the report in the "North American," the differences being obviously misprints. The reports in the New York papers also agree with one another save in a single instance, probably due to a typographical error. The Boston papers also agree substantially, with only three verbal variations. But the Boston, Springfield, New York, and Philadelphia versions differ from one another in a number of details, probably due to errors in telegraphing, but which are correct and which erroneous is not easily determined.

The "Philadelphia Inquirer," November 20, 1863, and the Cincinnati "Daily Gazette," November 21, published reports of the address which differ materially from each other and from the Associated Press reports, and, while apparently independent in source, are rather paraphrases than literal reports. They are, however, probably free renderings of stenographic notes made at the time of delivery.

Henry Edwards, George William Bond, and Charles Hale, commissioners appointed by Governor Andrew to represent Massachusetts at the dedication of the National Cemetery at Gettysburg, appended to their report, printed with the governor's address to the legislature, January 8, 1864 (Senate Document No. 1), a copy of President Lincoln's speech. They assert that this speech "has not generally been printed rightly, having been marred from errors in telegraphing," and that it "is appended, . . . in the correct form, as the words actually spoken by the President, with great deliberation, were taken down by one of the undersigned."<sup>2</sup>

But because of the possibility of doubt concerning the exact verbal accuracy of the commissioners' report, and of the eminent desirability that there should be an absolutely standard version of the immortal production, and because of the impossibility so to reconcile all of the discrepancies in the newspaper reports as to obtain the standard from them, as well also in respect to the evident desire of President Lincoln that by the "final form he gave the address . . . he intended it should be judged" (McPherson, in the "Nation," September 9, 1875), and to his rights as an author, there should be no hesitancy to accept the words as with his own pen he transcribed them when asked for an autograph for the benefit of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Fair in Baltimore, in 1864, and as in facsimile they were reproduced in "Autograph Leaves of our Country's Authors" (Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey, 1864), published for the benefit of the fair.

In an address so brief but so momentous every syllable tells, and though the differences between this version and the earlier reports are few and seemingly immaterial, the changes intensify the strength and pathos of the speech, and add to its beauty, and as so written these words cannot be too jealously perpetuated as the final expression of the sublime thought of the immortal author.

<sup>2</sup>Mr. Charles Hale of the "Boston Advertiser."

<sup>1</sup>In Stoddard's "Life of Lincoln," pages 413-15, the facsimile is also given, with a printed copy, which likewise differs from the facsimile.

Increasing appreciation of the grandeur of Lincoln's character, and of his preëminent fitness for the great work to which in the providence of God he was called, enhances the value of his every word, and emphasizes the judgment of the "Nation," uttered fifteen years ago, "that what promises to be the most classic and most enduring of American orations ought to be as carefully preserved without alteration or abridgment as a standard of weight and measure."

*William H. Lambert.*

#### Abraham Lincoln as an Advocate.

IN the summer of 1881 I spent some time at Saratoga Springs, and had many conversations with the Hon. David Davis, then one of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States. He related to me some of his early experiences as a judge, and one of them made a very deep impression. I asked him the secret of Lincoln's success as a lawyer. He said that when he was a young man he was judge of a circuit court in Illinois, and one time, while holding that court, two men came up for trial on the charge of murder. They had rich relatives, and one of them employed Abraham Lincoln to defend him, and the other employed Leonard Swett, afterward an eminent criminal lawyer, who lived in Chicago and died a few years ago.

Judge Davis said that one evening, as it was the custom, Lincoln and Swett came to his room in the hotel, and during the conversation Lincoln spoke about as follows: "Swett, Davis, and I are old friends, and what we say here will never be repeated to our injury. Now, we have been engaged in this trial for two days, and I am satisfied that our clients are guilty, and that the witnesses for the State have told the truth. It is my opinion that the best thing we can do for our clients is to have them come in to-morrow morning, and plead guilty to manslaughter, and let Davis give them the lowest punishment." Mr. Swett said he would do nothing of the kind. He said, "Mr. Lincoln, you don't know what evidence I have got in reserve to combat the witnesses for the State." Mr. Lincoln replied, "I don't care what evidence you have got, Swett; the witnesses for the State have told the truth, and the jury will believe them." Mr. Swett said, "Mr. Lincoln, I shall never agree to your proposition, and propose to carry on our defense to the end." Mr. Lincoln replied, "All right."

They went on with the trial. The defendants put their witnesses on the stand, and the time came for the arguments. Then Mr. Lincoln said to Mr. Swett, "Now, Swett, I cannot argue this case, because our witnesses have been lying, and I don't believe them. You go on and make an argument." Swett made the argument, the case went to the jury, and the men were acquitted.

The next day Mr. Lincoln went to Mr. Swett and said: "Swett, here is the \$500 which I have received for defending one of these men. It all belongs to you; take it."

Of course Mr. Swett did not take the money, but it showed, as Judge Davis said, that Mr. Lincoln felt he had done nothing to earn the money.

Judge Davis told this story as illustrating the honesty and integrity of Abraham Lincoln as a lawyer.

*Ratcliffe Hicks.*

NEW YORK, November 10, 1893.

#### American Artist Series.

LOUIS LOEB. (SEE PAGE 527.)

LOUIS LOEB is a good example of what, in an unfriendly environment, a patient, direct purpose may accomplish when pushed to its development by a man of artistic taste and impulse.

He was born in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1866. When only fourteen years of age he was apprenticed to a lithographer of that day, and his next nine years were spent as a lithographic draftsman. While yet an apprentice, feeling his need of art instruction, and the lack of facilities for it in Cleveland, he conceived the idea that by the aid of a friend, a former student of L'École des Beaux Arts, an evening life-class might be established. By dint of energy and enthusiasm this was done, and the school was open four evenings of each week for two seasons. When its affairs were wound up there remained one cent in the treasury.

In 1885 Mr. Loeb accepted an engagement in a lithographic house in New York, and became an evening student at the Art Students' League, and in 1889 was elected its vice-president. In that year, feeling that he had outgrown lithography, he abandoned it. In 1890 he went to Paris, and became, under Lefebvre and Constant, a student at the Julian Academy, and, under Gérôme, at the Beaux Arts, where he gained the Premier Prix d'Atelier. In 1891 and 1892 his pictures were accepted at the Salon.

It is not an easy matter to gage Mr. Loeb's status as a painter, for he is too new a recruit in our art ranks. The only pictures of his with which I have any acquaintance are a portrait of his mother, shown at the exhibition of the Society of American Artists in 1890, the portrait on page 527, shown at the same society's exhibition two years later, and some studies and sketches. The 1890 portrait is a literal bit of representation — so literal as to be almost photographic. It is well constructed, well drawn, shows earnestness of purpose and conscientious study, but nothing of the artistic quality apparent in the later portrait.

His black-and-whites, of which he has made many for THE CENTURY since his return from Europe a year or so ago, possess in an eminent degree the blending of the artistic and the realistic. Taken with the paintings, they display a true artistic temperament, and a tender, sympathetic intuition, an accomplished though not a powerful draftsmanship. In addition to these qualities his types are always well chosen, and his composition is good.

*W. Lewis Fraser.*

## TOPICS OF THE TIME.

### How Bribery at Elections may be Prevented.

IN discussing suggestions and measures for abolishing corruption from our elections, it has been the habit of THE CENTURY to cite the English Corrupt Practices Act of 1883 as the best and surest model for our imitation. Our readers will be glad, we are sure, to have placed before them, in the article which we publish in this number of the magazine, the results of a personal inspection of the workings of the English statute by so competent an observer as Professor Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell University. In general, his conclusion is the same that we have maintained in our discussions, that the English act has almost entirely abolished bribery in elections, though previous to the passage of the act the elections in that country were far more corrupt than ours have ever been. We commend to our readers a careful perusal of the interesting history which Professor Jenks gives both of the steps which led to the passage of the act, and of its practical working during the eleven years of its existence.

It is evident that we are destined to have in this country, within a very few years, a series of laws for our States which will embody the essential principles of the English statute. We have already gone far enough in our experimenting to demonstrate that half-way measures are useless, and that the only laws which will be effective will be those which most closely imitate the English act. The ground has thus been cleared for wise action, and we are confident that the present year will mark a decided advance.

The legislative record for 1893 contained three new laws (in California, Kansas, and Missouri), all showing advance in some respects over the four (in Massachusetts, Colorado, New York, and Michigan) which preceded them. An excellent measure was before the Connecticut legislature, but it failed of enactment because of the hostility of the professional politicians of both parties, who saw in its stringent provisions a menace to their means of livelihood.

The California and Missouri laws are easily the best of the seven now on our statute-books. The chief defects of even the best of the four laws which preceded them were the failure to make it anybody's duty to enforce them, and the lack of maximum limits to campaign expenditures. These faults are not to be charged to the two new laws named. California and Missouri have the honor of being the first American States to enact laws which imitate the English Corrupt Practices Act in placing limits to campaign expenditures, and which also make it the duty of the prosecuting officers of the State to enforce the laws in all their requirements. The same desirable provisions are found in both, and the dates of enactment are so nearly simultaneous that neither can be said to have imitated or followed the other. It is clear from the provisions of both laws that their authors took for their model the same incomparable statute, that of England; for the provisions of that successful act appear in slightly changed form in both the American measures. Both exceed in length and

minuteness all other American laws, the principle being at last recognized by our law-makers that these qualities are necessary to the simple and effective working of such laws in practice.

Both the laws named have very full and specific prohibitory provisions against the employment or acceptance of bribery or undue influence in any form, either to influence a man's vote or to induce him to refrain from voting, and both fix heavy penalties for their violation. They require sworn publication after election by both candidates and committees of all moneys received or expended, and forbid treating and intimidation of all kinds. In their provisions limiting the expenditures of candidates they pursue different methods to attain the same end. The California law adopts a system of percentages in placing the maximum limits. If the term of office is for one year or less, the limit is 5 per cent. of one year's salary; if for more than one year and not more than two years, 10 per cent.; if for three years, 15 per cent.; for four years, 20 per cent.; and if for more than four years, 10 per cent. If the office be one for which in lieu of salary there is a per-diem for a statutory period, the maximum is placed at 25 per cent. of the amount to accrue for the period. If a yearly sum, in lieu of salary, is allowed the officer for expenses, the candidate's expenditures must not exceed 10 per cent. of one year's allowance. If the office is one for which no salary is allowed except fees, or a salary not exceeding \$900 a year and fees, expenditures must not exceed \$150. The Missouri law adopts a ratio based upon the number of voters, forbidding any candidate for office to exceed the following rates: For 5000 voters or less, \$100; for each 100 voters over 5000 and under 25,000, \$2; for each 100 voters over 25,000 and under 50,000, \$1; and for each 100 over 50,000, 50 cents, the number of voters to be ascertained by the total number of votes cast for all the candidates for such office at the last preceding regular election.

It is interesting to compare these methods with a third one that was in the Connecticut measure which failed to become a law. This divided the offices into five classes, and fixed a maximum expenditure for each class as follows? Class I included candidates for governor and Congress, and the limit was \$1500; class II, United States senators, minor State officers, and county officers, \$1000; class III, State senators, probate judges, and mayors, \$500; class IV, representatives in the legislature, and all borough, town, city, and school officers, \$300; class V, all other officers, \$300.

In regard to the enforcement of the laws, the Missouri statute provides that the person receiving the next highest number of votes to that cast for a successful candidate can at any time during the latter's term of office make application by affidavit to the attorney-general to bring an action to have him ousted from office on the ground of violation of any of the terms of the act. Such application must be accompanied by a bond in the sum of \$1000 as the means of defraying possible costs to which he may be liable under the suit, and it is made the duty of the attorney-general to begin action himself, or to

direct it by the county prosecuting attorney, within ten days after the application is filed. In case of refusal by the prosecuting officers, the applicant can bring his own action in the name of the State, but at his own expense. All actions are given preference on the docket of any court in the State. In case of conviction, the judgment shall be rendered ousting and excluding the defendant from office, and in favor of the State or plaintiff, as the case may be, subject to the provisions for the next succeeding election. In case the applicant or plaintiff is in turn found guilty, he also is to be ousted, and the office is to be filled by appointment or by a new election.

Under the California law any elector may contest the right of any person declared elected to an office, within from twenty to forty days after election, according to the office involved, and it is made the duty of the district attorney of the county to begin forthwith, if there is reasonable ground for so doing, proceedings in court against the accused. If the district attorney fails or refuses faithfully to perform his duty, he shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction must forfeit his office. Any citizen may employ an attorney to assist the district attorney in this work. Every candidate convicted of violating the law must forfeit his office, and cannot be appointed to it during the period for which he was elected.

The Kansas law is less specific and less stringent in its provisions than the two we have been considering, but is a fairly good law. It requires sworn publication by both candidates and committees, forbids treating and bribery and undue influence of all kinds, and makes forfeiture of office the penalty for all candidates found guilty of violating its provisions. A correspondent of *THE CENTURY*, writing about its first trial in the elections of April, 1893, says:

The value of the law has been demonstrated by the municipal elections in April. There was less money spent in every city, the elections were more orderly, and there was much less corruption than formerly. The mayor-elect of the capital city, Topeka, with over 10,000 voters, filed his verified statement showing the total expenditure in his behalf to have been less than \$50, which was certainly very small, considering the determined opposition to his election, though it was about the average of the election expenses in other cities of Kansas.

The practical working of the California and Missouri laws will be watched with great interest. Their success will depend largely upon the amount of public sentiment in favor of their rigid enforcement, for upon that hangs the fate of all similar laws everywhere. We believe that there is a steady growth in this sentiment, the evidence of which is to be found in the increasing stringency of the successive laws which are enacted. Each new one is a gain on its predecessors, and each commands a wider and more interested audience.

#### The Only Literary Success Worth Having.

THE relation between editors and authors was discussed in the last number of *THE CENTURY*—especially the relation between the editor and the unknown author.

The general subject has so many ramifications that one is tempted to recur to the main theme, and to follow out the branches thereof again from the editorial point of view. The point of view of the author has made itself evident in literature more conspicuously than that

of the editor; perhaps because the authors greatly outnumber the editors, and also because the experience of the author is always more individual and interesting than that of the editor. The former is a person, the latter is a functionary. The author has a career which may be both picturesque and pathetic. The editor is a bureau; or if, to a certain extent, a person with a history, this history is very largely lost in the history of an "institution." If the institution happens to be a "successful" one, this again detracts from the interest in the editor as an individual. The actual or supposed alliance of the editor with the publisher makes him, in the view of the author, rather an agent, or representative, and not altogether an independent force. And so it is that the editor does not often present his side of the various literary problems in which he is involved with the frankness and fullness that frequently characterize the story of the author. Perhaps this is fortunate, because, as the editor to some extent commands the situation, it is evident that if he should avail himself of all his opportunities to put forth his own professional opinions, he would soon become an unmitigated bore.

But, to proceed, we were a good deal interested lately in hearing an editor—who, however, was, we fear, something of an old fogey—draw a comparison between the method of procedure on the part of authors in the earlier days of American literature and our own time. He said he thought there was a great deal of talent afloat nowadays, but it lacked concentration; it was too subject to distraction. He said he had seen any number of bright and strong beginnings end in slight accomplishment through lack of continuity of purpose, and of a high artistic ideal. How many of our writers, he asked, proceed as did the earlier men, with deliberation, and with the success that follows intensity of purpose, from one work of art to another? Leaving out the question of the greater cost of living,—which may indeed be balanced by the greater pecuniary rewards,—it sometimes seems that the ease of reaching the public nowadays, by one channel or another, renders less important in the mind of the author the appearance each time made by him before that public.

See how it was with the older writers: study the careers of Irving and Hawthorne, Bryant and Longfellow, and see how they did their "prettiest" each time; and see how this deliberate progress on their part rapidly or gradually impressed the public with a sense of their art. If it is true that many of our better writers do not build up their work with the artistic conscience of the elder men; that they yield to the distracting environment—to the clamorous editorial environment, itself, perhaps—if this is true, how natural that younger writers should be too easily satisfied with insufficient achievement, and fail to keep before their eyes a true standard, resting satisfied with a success achieved merely by some salient quality, not, perhaps, the most artistic or lasting.

When one sees certain of our writers proceeding with patience in a serene and contemplative spirit, in pursuance of a lofty ideal, one does not wish to be committed to sweeping assertions, which would lead to unjust applications. But surely it is safe to say that there never was a time in the history of American literature when it has seemed more needful to insist upon art, and always art, as a requisite to the only "success" worth having.

## OPEN LETTERS.

### The Vancouver Centenary, and the Discoverers of Pacific America.

FOR some time preceding this last year of Chicago, the search-lights of history have been turned upon Columbus, his immediate successors, and the valiant Norse predecessor. Following upon these studies of Atlantic America, the local pride of Pacific America now demands the honors due the discoverers of the western shores of the New World. The hazardous voyage of Sir Francis Drake, resulting in the narrative "The World Encompassed," and of those other early round-the-world navigators who ventured into and across the great South Sea, are being celebrated at the present California Midwinter International Exposition, which is for the praise and glory of the whole Pacific coast. It was only a half-century after Columbus that galleons came to the Golden Gate, and now, side by side with models of these crafts, California's people show the counterfeit of the magnificent battle-ship just launched from the ways within that Western sea-gate—match-pieces for the caravels and the battle-ship at Chicago.

It is no longer questioned that some Chinese Leif Ericsson touched upon the Pacific coast centuries before Sir Francis rode in the shadow of Tamalpais, and Buddhist priests reached New Spain before Cabrillo, Vizcaino, and Ferrelo brought their galleons from the south, and the piratical ones concealed their booty on the Farallones.

Professor George C. Davidson, the veteran scientist of the Pacific coast, whose surveys of thirty years cover all of that ocean's edge from Mexico to Bering Sea, has fully identified all the anchorages of these earliest visitors, and elaborated the proofs that Sir Francis Drake anchored in the little bay north of the Golden Gate, and not in the harbor of San Francisco, as so long supposed.

Even after the great navigator, Captain James Cook, came into the Pacific, the vast, mysterious South Sea was a realm of fable. Lilliput, Brobdingnag, and the lost Atlantis were washed by its waters; Del Fonte's river, the archipelago of San Lazaria, De Fuca's Strait, or those of Anian, tempted two centuries of discovery before the mystery was dispelled. In his second voyage Cook proved that the imaginary southern or Antarctic continent of that day did not exist. In his third and last voyage he supplemented the work of Bering, proving how closely the continental shores of Asia and America approached, and sailed up to the edge of the ice-pack in the Arctic. The recent publication of Captain Cook's own journal of his last voyage is most opportune at this season of sudden interest in all things concerning Pacific America, and it is to be hoped that a reprint of Vancouver's now rare "Voyages" will soon bring the work of that great surveyor within every student's reach.

George Vancouver, who entered the British navy at the age of thirteen, was a midshipman with Cook on the voyages toward the south pole and the north pole. In 1790 he was given the orders the execution of which fills the volumes entitled, "A Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean and Round the World, In Which the Coast of Northwest America has been Carefully Examined and Accurately Surveyed; Undertaken by

His Majesty's Command, Principally with a View to Ascertain the Existence of any Navigable Communication between the North Pacific and North Atlantic Oceans; and Performed in the years 1790, 1791, 1792, 1793, 1794, and 1795. In the *Discovery* sloop of war, and armed tender *Chatham*, under the Command of Captain George Vancouver."

This long voyage, during which three summer seasons were spent in surveying the Northwest Coast and three winter seasons were devoted to the Sandwich Islands, was more fruitful of results than any other expedition of its kind—the greatest and most accurate piece of surveying recorded; their completeness causing Vancouver's charts to remain standards of authority for almost a hundred years.

Vancouver's commission ordered him to proceed by way of the Cape of Good Hope and the Sandwich Islands to the Northwest Coast, and to take over the fort at Nootka, which Spain had been forced to cede to Great Britain by the Convention at Madrid in 1790. He was then to survey that coast from latitude 30° N. to Cook's Great River, examining all considerable inlets and mouths of rivers for the supposed passage through to the Atlantic—as the reported voyages of Berkely, Meares, Kendrick, and Quimper in behind Nootka had revived a belief in the existence of Juan de Fuca's Strait.

Vancouver was not a discoverer, and was not entitled to any such first honors mistakenly accorded him. He only verified the reports of others, sailing by their notes and rough sketches; but his narrative and charts being the first published, and remaining for so long the sole authority, he has rather usurped the laurels of his predecessors. He sighted Cape Mendocino in April, 1792, and, cruising within a league of land, rounded Cook's Cape Flattery, entered De Fuca's noble strait, and proceeded to explore "the promised expansive Mediterranean Ocean, which by various accounts is said to have existence in these regions." There he found landscapes "almost as enchantingly beautiful as the most elegantly finished pleasure-grounds in Europe," and that "the country exhibited everything that bounteous nature could be expected to draw into one point of view." But while he "could not believe that any uncultivated country had ever been discovered exhibiting so rich a picture," he sowed seeds of discord by his ill-considered nomenclature. As a boy, he saw Captain Cook scrupulously recording the native names of every place, and making every effort to obtain them, but it does not appear that Vancouver ever made an effort to learn one local name. Had he but pointed a finger in dumb inquiry, we might enjoy some better name for Puget Sound and the matchless mountain that guards its eastern wall, and the Rainier-Tacoma controversy would not have arisen to embroil two cities, and to force that technically just, but poetically unjust, decision from the Board of Geographic Names as to the name of the superb peak at the head of Puget Sound.

By a strange fatality Vancouver missed the opportunity to impose commonplace names upon the great rivers of the coast. Although anchoring in the discolored waters off their mouths, he failed to discover the

Columbia, the Fraser, and the Stikine, and even scouted the possible existence of the first two when Gray and the Spaniards reported them.

He first visited the Spanish settlement of "St. Francisco" in California in November, 1792, when the Presidio was garrisoned by thirty-five soldiers, and sheep and cattle grazed on all the hills. The commandant's adobe house, where Vancouver visited the sergeant temporarily in command, is still standing. Vancouver also visited the Franciscan and Santa Clara missions, and about twenty-five miles below San Francisco, he entered a country he "little expected to find in these regions. For about twenty miles it could only be compared to a park which had originally been closely planted with the true old English oak."

The accounts of Vancouver's California visits of 1793 and 1794 are most interesting, and his search of all the fiords of the great north coast, all "terminating as usual" in some cul-de-sac, is a romance of exploration. At last it was proved that no passage through the mountains existed, and by the surveyor's last camp-fire on Alaska islands they remembered "with no small portion of facetious mirth" that they had set sail to find the mysterious Northwest Passage on the first of April.

Vancouver's "Voyages" is still the best handbook for all that marvelous scenic coast. Yet of this great surveyor neither a full biography nor a portrait is obtainable, and copies of his works are seldom found save in the largest libraries.

*Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore.*

#### American Artists Series.

H. BOLTON JONES. (See page 771.)

IN no class of pictorial representation is there so much variety and individuality among American artists as in that of landscape, and no class of picture is more popular, for happily we have outgrown the old prejudice which relegated landscape to a place inferior to that of figure-painting. To say nothing of our In-

ness, who is in the world's first rank, we have in Davis, Martin, Tryon, and others, delightfully individual and successful landscape-painters.

The picture "Spring," engraved on page 771, is the work of one of the most conscientious and sensitive of the landscapists. Mr. Bolton Jones knows nature and loves her well, and he is so well skilled in the use of his materials as to be able deftly to transfix many of her moods. In other words, he is a well-trained painter.

Mr. H. Bolton Jones was born in Baltimore in 1848. Eighteen years later he exhibited in the National Academy of Design in New York. In 1876 he went to France. He did not go through any regular academic course there, but painted from nature in Pont-Aven and other parts of Brittany, and spent one year in like manner in Algiers. During his residence in France he profited much by contact with artists older than he, among these Wylie, Pelouse, and Defaux. In 1881 Mr. Jones was admitted an Associate of the National Academy of Design, and two years later he was made a full member. He shortly after became its vice-president, a position which he held for several years. He received medals at the Paris and Chicago expositions.

*W. Lewis Fraser.*

#### "Garfield and Conkling"—A Correction.

IN the January CENTURY, ex-Senator Dawes, describing the "Garfield and Conkling" controversy, said that the feeling was intensified "by the appointment to the cabinet of a Secretary of the Treasury from New York, not only without consultation with the Senator, but against his earnest recommendation of another." Mr. Dawes writes to explain that "strict accuracy would have required me to say 'by the offer of an appointment,' etc., the offer having been made to Judge Folger before the appointment of William Windom. Judge Folger subsequently accepted the Treasury portfolio from President Arthur. THE EDITOR.

## IN LIGHTER VEIN.

### Minerva in Boston.

MY Minerva flouts the Graces, and forgets how fair her face is,

But the higher criticism she entirely comprehends;  
So she dresses very plainly, after some reform un-

gainly,  
And looks on Briggs and Spencer as her intimates  
and friends.

She's indifferent to ices and confectioners' devices,  
But on esoteric Buddhism she loves to ponder  
well;  
And though she never glances at the popular romances,  
She indulges on occasion in a "study" or "pastel."

She's superior to flirtation; she contributes to "The  
Nation,"  
And she'd be a rank agnostic if she did n't know  
so much;  
She declines in social duty to display her modest  
beauty,  
But she's put a poem of Browning into genuine low  
Dutch.

She is musically clever, and the "tune" taboos forever,  
For to "Vagner" she is faithful, and to Brahms she  
gives her heart;

Then at art's high altar kneeling she will talk "tech-  
nic" and "feeling,"

And if I say, "It's pretty," will reply, "But is it art?"

Dare I ever hope to hold her in the arms that would  
infold her?

Or, with Plato for my pattern, must I tell my love  
in Greek?

Let me curb this crude young passion, and, since  
courting's out of fashion,

Woo Minerva with a problem, and of Eros shyly  
speak.

Most persistently I'm cramming, but I weary of my  
shamming,

And am not intoxicated with Castalia's bitter cup;  
I might win the maid's affections through a course in  
conic sections,

But I wonder if, once married, I could keep the  
blamed thing up.

*Edward A. Church.*



## TOPICS OF THE TIME.

### A Life of Napoleon Bonaparte.

NEARLY two years ago the following statement was given to the press: "One of the next great features of THE CENTURY MAGAZINE will be a fit successor to the famous 'War Series,' the 'Life of Lincoln,' and other important historical works which have first seen the light in the pages of that magazine. This is no other than a new, thorough, scholarly, and yet popular life of Napoleon I. by a distinguished American student and professor of history. Such a work is important and timely because of the abundant new materials furnished by the opening of the different national archives, and by the publication of valuable memoirs. Lanfrey's 'Napoleon' is incomplete, and written with a polemic purpose. Thus far no biography of the extraordinary man has appeared in either English or French which is free from rancor, and attentive to the laws of historical criticism. No one could have so fine a perspective, or be more dispassionate in his judgments, than a competent American writer. The Life will be illustrated in THE CENTURY'S most complete and artistic manner."

Since the above was given out, the preparation of the life has progressed so satisfactorily that the time for the beginning of its publication will before long be definitely announced. Meantime the interest in Napoleon has had a revival that is phenomenal in its extent and intensity — as evinced in a flood of publications; in the preparation of works of art dealing with the period; in the demand for autographs, portraits, and relics of all kinds. Even the theater has taken up the theme, and still the craze increases. As a distinguished Frenchman remarked the other day, "Napoleon seems again to have hypnotized the French people."

Under the circumstances, the timeliness of THE CENTURY'S undertaking is more than ever apparent, and the necessity has become still greater for a full statement of Napoleon's career, and its effect upon subsequent history, unmarred by partizanship, and elucidated by the latest developments of scholarly research.

### The Look from Above Downward.

THERE is probably no state of mind which passes so unsuspectedly near to insanity as that in which persons in one set of the social world sometimes regard those in another. The educated but uncultured vulgarian whose ancestor committed some sort of legalized robbery, the result of which is shown in that vulgarian's imperfect knowledge of Latin, and perfection of knowledge in leading "the german" — this person's attitude toward his betters outside of the "set" into which his money has brought him is as lunatic as it is ludicrous. There is no doubt a reality at the basis of social distinctions, and yet these distinctions have acquired so much of the artificial that they create an atmosphere absolutely false. Imagine a naked soul before its Maker, side by side with other souls similarly situated, and the insanity of precedence becomes abhorrently apparent. In liter-

ature, if the social insanity has entered the heart of the artist, his work is fatally vitiated; evidences of this fact adorn the long history of the ridiculous.

It is a similar insanity which taints much of the international criticism of our day, especially the criticism by the elder of the younger communities, especially the criticism by England of America. When confined to the social world, it is a part of contemporary gossip, and is not ill-fitted to the conversational requirements of the club, of after-dinner tit-for-tattle, and the pleasantries of the international short story. Confined to such quarters, it can do comparatively little harm, and does doubtless conduce to the desirable gaiety of nations.

But when this tone dominates the organs of criticism, and passes into more permanent forms of literature, it is against good manners and good morals; it is degrading to those who put it forth, and distinctly injurious to the spiritual intercommunication and mutual helpfulness of allied civilizations.

We are led to these remarks at this moment by the sight of a little book that carries on its title-page the stamp of so sweet and gentle a fame that we refuse to name it in a connection so ungracious. We do not even desire to quote the contemptuous phrases with which this once gentle writer adorns his page when reference is made to the American community, because we do not care to identify the book, nor do we wish to preach good morals to one who is possibly more deficient in manners and good temper than actually in morals, and who would not take kindly to transatlantic lecturing in any case. And yet we should like to say, in some inoffensive way, to this writer and to his kind, that we cannot for our lives reconcile his apparent love for spiritual things, and all his many pleasant qualities, with his unchristian libels upon a country of which he is inexcusably ignorant. We should like to say that religious writing is a good thing, but that a man injures his influence as a religious writer by flagrant lying; in other words, that it might be wise to confine one's piety to *one* book, and one's lying to *another*, for then the second book could be thrown away, and the first — perhaps — cherished.

In the little book to which we refer the statement is made, for instance, that in America "art is absolutely non-existent." Now, there is no way to characterize an assertion of this sort except by calling it an injurious falsehood. And why should one be privileged to lie about a nation any more than about an individual? That the author who uttered that preposterous untruth is ignorant of the condition of the arts of wood-engraving, illustration, stained-glass, decoration, sculpture, painting, landscape-gardening, architecture, etc., in the new world is no excuse for his falsehood; though it occurs to us that, for all we know to the contrary, even if he personally should inspect the arts in the new world, he might still be unable to estimate them at their true value, owing to some congenital peculiarity or to lack of training.

The tone to which we refer, and which is particularly

prevalent in certain English journals, is, as we have said, similar to that which is apparent in the social world. It implies an ignoble view of life; it indicates a curious lack of humility of soul, an absence of the fearless pursuit of truth. But Americans can easily reconcile themselves to its expression when uttered with the lion roar of a Carlyle. What they particularly object to is the thin imitation of this roar by third- and fourth-rate journalistic critics, whose attitude is singularly like that of the Southern negroes, in the old days, toward the "white folks" with whom their masters did not happen to be acquainted. There is a difference between being snubbed by the colored butler and by the "head of the house." Neither snubbing is pleasant, but the one is a trifle less absurd than the other.

No doubt every thoughtful Englishman deprecates certain faults, certain unfortunate tendencies, in the world about him; so, surely, does every thoughtful American, and the latter, as the former, welcomes helpful, sane criticism from whatever source. American spread-eagleism, unfortunately, is never quite extinct, any more than is the traditional John Bull arrogance. But the tremendous problems that confront all modern society in the old world as in the new should induce a spirit of mutual understanding and sympathy. This is no time for the look from above downward; it is no time for bearing false witness. We commend the latter saying especially to religious writers.

#### Voting by Machine.

THE opinion is virtually unanimous among the advocates of ballot-reform who have inspected in operation the working of the Myers ballot-machine, that it, or some similar invention, is destined within a few years to come into general use in this country. They recognize in it the next logical step, after the adoption of the Australian blanket-ballot, in the direction of an absolutely secret and honest system of voting. That it does insure not only secrecy and honesty in the voting, but also honesty in the counting, cannot be questioned. In these respects its merits are beyond dispute, as a summary of its methods of operation will show.

It should be said, before entering upon a description of the machine, that it has been tried in many town elections in New York State in 1892 and 1893, and in all cases has worked to complete satisfaction. Its use in town elections was authorized by a law of 1892, which provided that any town might, by a majority vote of its town-board, put the system into operation as an experiment. The law was passed so late in 1892 that only one town, Lockport, was able to avail itself of the privilege in that year. The trial there was so successful, however, that in 1893 many towns, aggregating 50,000 or more voters, were induced to make the experiment, and the result in all cases was a success so unequivocal that no dissenting voices were heard.

The machines are very simple in their operation. They are inclosed in booths, or cabinets, of sheet steel, seven feet high and five feet wide and deep. Each booth is divided by a steel partition into two compartments, one for the voter, which is about four or five feet in dimensions, and the other for the automatic counting-device, which is about one foot by five. The voter enters his compartment by the entrance door, which is guarded, and which locks behind him. The interior is lighted

by electricity or a lamp, there being no windows. As he steps inside, the voter sees before him an enlarged blanket-ballot, with the names of candidates arranged vertically in party columns, each column printed in a different color, and to the right of each candidate's name a small knob to be pressed. That is to say, the Democratic ticket appears as a long yellow card, the Republican ticket as a red one, and the Prohibition ticket as a blue one. By pressing a knob at the right of a candidate's name, he moves a numbering-device which registers one vote for that candidate on the other side of the steel partition, and at the same time locks all the knobs for other candidates for that particular office, so that no one can vote for more than one candidate for any one office. If he is an illiterate man, and wishes to vote a straight party ticket, he need know only the color of his party-ticket in order to vote intelligently. All he needs to do is to press in all the knobs on that ticket. If he is an intelligent voter, and wishes to vote for candidates on various tickets, he can very easily do so by making his selections upon all the ballots as they are arranged side by side before him. All the knobs pressed in remain in that position till the voter leaves the compartment by a door other than that by which he entered. This door can be opened only from the inside. The opening of it releases all the knobs, restoring them to their original position in readiness for the next voter, and at the same time unlocks the entrance door. As the outgoing voter closes the exit door behind him, a gong sounds, and the machine is then ready for the next occupant.

The speed with which voting is done by this method is surprising. In an election in the town of North Tonawanda, in April, 1893, there were three machines in use in a total poll of 1359 voters. There were three party tickets, with a grand total of ninety candidates. Not a single mistake or failure was made. The shortest time occupied by any one elector in recording his vote was five seconds, and the longest one minute and forty-five seconds. In the first half-hour 122 electors voted. When the polls were closed, sealed doors at the sides were removed, uncovering the counting-device upon which the vote for each candidate was registered. A wire screen inside the sealed doors so guards the figures that they cannot be reached or changed. Within an hour after the polls were closed, the exact result on all candidates was announced. In small towns in which only one machine has been necessary, like Brighton, with 551 votes, 44 candidates, and two ballots, the result has been announced within six minutes after the closing of the polls. One machine will take the place of ten or twelve voting-booths required by the Australian system.

The merits of this method of voting are obvious. In the first place, the vote is absolutely secret. The voter can leave no trace whatever of the kind of ballot that he has voted, for nothing is recorded except the figures. There is no ballot upon which a distinguishing mark of any kind can be placed to show to an election official that a bribed voter has kept his bargain. In this respect the machine is the only method of voting thus far devised which cannot be circumvented by election bribers. In the second place, there can be no tampering with the count, for it is made automatically and with unquestionable accuracy. In the third place, there is greater speed in ascertaining the result than is possible under any other system. All expense for ballots

is eliminated. The use of colors makes unnecessary the granting of aid to illiterates within the compartments.

The objections to the machine are, first, that it affords no means of rectifying mistakes on the part of the voter, for if he presses the wrong knob inadvertently, the vote is recorded beyond recall; second, that it is in the interest of straight party voting of the blindest and most unreasoning kind; and third, that it makes no provision for the voter who wishes to cast a ballot for some name not upon the regular ballots. The first objection is the most serious, though there is this to be said of it, that in all trials thus far made of the machine no mistake of the kind mentioned has been made. The second objection is one that applies to all those adaptations of the Australian ballot-system which arrange the names of candidates in party columns, with a party name, and sometimes an emblem also, at the top. There are nineteen States which have laws providing such arrangements. The third objection is met by an improvement in the machine which its inventor has designed. It consists of a blank column arranged with

knobs like the others. When one of its knobs is pressed in, a slot opens in the column in which appears a roll of paper of sufficient width to allow a name to be written or pasted upon it. The slot is closed by the opening of the exit door, and the roll of paper is turned in such a way as to present a blank space to the next voter wishing to use it.

A machine similar to the Myers was invented by J. W. Rhines of St. Paul in 1889. He applied the principle which Myers uses to a desk with a keyboard. When the voter opened the desk, which was placed in a stall in the voting-room in full view of the election officers, a screen was drawn up before the stall, shutting him from observation. The vote was recorded in the same manner as in the Myers machine. The Rhines machine arranged the keys in the alphabetical order of candidates' names under each office, requiring the voter to read and select the name of each candidate for whom he wished to vote; but its inventor also had in mind the adaptation to it of the party-column principle in colors which is employed in the Myers device.

## OPEN LETTERS.

### Forestry Legislation in Europe.

#### GERMANY.

I SHOULD like to know who first started the nursery-story, which has been propagated in the United States beyond extirpation, that paternalism in forestry is so rampant in Germany that the owner of forest property who cuts down one tree is obliged to plant two. Curiously enough, in Germany, where forestry is found in the highest state of development,—or perhaps just because of that condition,—laws regarding the use of private forest property are less stringent than among the other nations who have paid attention to the matter.

The various governments own and manage in a conservative spirit about one third of the forest area, and they also control the management of another sixth, which belongs to villages, cities, and public institutions, in so far as these communities are obliged to employ expert foresters, and must submit their working-plans to the government for approval, thus preventing improvident and wasteful methods. The principle upon which this control is based is the one we recognize when we limit by law the indebtedness that any community or town may incur. The other half of the forest property in the hands of private owners is managed mostly without interference, although upon methods similar to those employed by the government, and by trained foresters who receive their education in one of the eight higher and several lower schools of forestry which the various governments have established.

The several states differ in their laws regarding forest property. Of the private forests seventy per cent. are without any control whatever, while thirty per cent. are subject to supervision, so far as clearing and devastation are concerned.

In Saxony no state control whatever exists. In Bavaria, Baden, Wurtemberg, and other principalities, clearing without the consent of the authorities and de-

vastation of private forests are forbidden, and there are also some regulations regarding the maintenance of "protective forests"; but altogether the laws are not stringent.

In Prussia, which represents nearly two thirds of Germany, private forests are absolutely free from governmental interference. When, however, a neighbor fears that by the clearing of an adjoining forest his land may be injured, he can call for a viewing jury, and obtain an injunction against clearing, if such anticipated damage is proved. Since he has to bear not only the cost of such proceedings, but also any damage resulting from the interference, the law is rarely if ever called into play.

The government, either communal or state, can also make application for such a process in cases where damage to the public can be proved from a wilful treatment of a private forest.

From the fact that hardly 10,000 acres have in this way become "protective" forests, it may be gathered that the law has been largely inoperative.

The tendency on the part of the government has been rather toward persuasive measures. Thus, in addition to buying up or acquiring by exchange, and reforesting waste lands,—some 300,000 acres have been so reforested during the last twenty-five years,—the government gives assistance to private owners in reforesting their waste land. During the last ten years \$300,000 was granted in this way.

However, voices have called loudly for a closer supervision, and for extension of the control of the state over the use of private forest property.

#### AUSTRIA.

THE status of forest legislation is very different in Austria, where, with a larger proportion of mountainous territory, the results of the unrestricted free will of private owners are more severely felt. The country on

the Karst, along the Mediterranean, which was well wooded, well watered, rich, and fruitful, famous for its mild climate, has been changed into an arid, sterile plain, interspersed with stony and parched hillsides, the replanting of which was made well nigh impossible by opening the country to the hot, dry winds.

This and other experiences led, in 1852, to the adoption of a forest law by which is prescribed not only a strict supervision over the forests owned by communities, but also over those owned by private individuals.

Not only are the state forests (comprising less than thirty per cent. of the total forest area) rationally managed, and the management of the communal forests (nearly forty per cent.) officially supervised, but private owners (holding about thirty-two per cent.) are prevented from devastating their forest property to the detriment of adjoining. No clearing for agricultural use can be made without the consent of the district authorities, from which, however, an appeal to a civil judge is possible, who adjusts the conflict of interests.

When dangers from land-slides, avalanches, or torrents, are feared, and private owners cannot bear the expense of precautionary measures, the state may expropriate.

Any cleared or cut forest must be replanted or reseeded within five years; on sandy soils and mountainsides clearing is forbidden, and only culling of the ripe timber is allowed. Where damage from the removal of a forest belt which acted as a wind-break is feared, the owner may not remove it until the neighbor has had time to secure his own protection. That neglect in taking care of forest fires subjects the offender not only to fine, but to paying damages to the injured, goes without saying. In addition, freedom from taxation for twenty-five years is granted for all new plantations, and premiums are paid under certain circumstances. The authorities aid in the extinguishing of fires as well as in the fighting of insects.

Finally, to insure a rational management of forests, the owners of large areas must employ competent foresters whose qualifications satisfy the authorities, opportunity for the education of such being given in one higher, three middle, and four lower class forestry schools.

#### HUNGARY.

In Hungary also, where liberty of private property rights, and strong objection to government interference, had been jealously upheld, a complete reaction set in some fifteen years ago, which led to the law of 1880, giving the state control of private forest property as in Austria.

#### ITALY.

ITALY furnishes, perhaps, the best object-lesson of the relation of forest-cover and waterflow.

Though provincial governments had for a long time tried here and there to regulate forest use, the first comprehensive measure that recognized the urgent necessity of state interference was the law of 1877. An improved law was placed on the statute-books in 1888.

Under this law, the Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the Department of Public Works and in consultation with the forestal committee of the province and the respective owners, is to designate the territory which for public reasons must be reforested under governmental control.

The owners may associate themselves for the purpose of reforestation, and for the purpose may then borrow money at low interest from the State Soil-Credit Institution, the Forest Department contributing three fifths of the cost of reforestation upon condition that the work is done according to its plans, and within the time specified by the government. Where the owners do not consent or fail to do the work, the department has the right to expropriate and reforest alone, the owners having, however, the right to redeem within five years, paying price paid together with cost of reforestation and interest. The department has also the right to restrict and regulate pasturage, paying, however, compensation for such restriction, and any other damage arising to the owner in the non-use of his property. It is estimated that over 500,000 acres will have to be reforested at a cost of \$12,000,000.

#### RUSSIA.

IN Russia, until lately, liberty to cut, burn, destroy, and devastate was unrestricted; but in 1888 a comprehensive and well-considered law cut off, so far as this can be done on paper, this liberty of vandalism. For autocratic Russia this law is rather timid, and is in the nature of a compromise between communal and private interests, in which much if not all depends on the good will of the private owner. In this it reminds us of much of our own legislation, beautiful in theory, but a dead letter in practice, because its execution is left to those inimical to the laws. If we may trust reports, the law has so far had the very opposite effect of what it intended, owners, from fear of further control, slaughtering and devastating their properties recklessly.

A sharp distinction is made between "protective" and other forests. For the former the government at its own expense prepares plans of management, and relieves of taxation all such forests and new plantations. If expenses of reforestation become necessary, and the owner refuses to act, the government can expropriate, the owner having the right of redemption within ten years. The demarcation of protective forests and their control are placed under a forestry council, consisting of law-officers, officers of the general administration, and of the local forest administration. The owners, however, have much to say in the matter, the tendency being everywhere visible to obviate restriction of private rights on one hand and expenditure of the government funds on the other.

For private forests not classed as protective, the right to clear is to be dependent on the consent of the council, while too severe culling, or the cutting of proportionately too large quantities without regard to reproduction, is also forbidden, but the means for ascertaining infractions are not provided. If any devastation has taken place, replanting becomes obligatory, and the government forester may execute the planting at the expense of the delinquent owner. The foresters must also give to the owners advice concerning management free of charge; but since they are overburdened with the duties in the administration of the government forests, it is not likely that they will be able to superintend all that is demanded of them.

It should be added that the Imperial Bank loans for long time on forests well administered as a matter of encouragement to rational forest management, and the

government sustains four higher, seven middle, and thirteen lower forestry schools.

## SWITZERLAND.

ALTHOUGH sporadic enactments of the cantons tending to check forest devastation are found as early as the thirteenth or fourteenth centuries, only with the beginning of the present century was the matter seriously taken in hand by the different cantons, when restrictive laws were passed. Owing to defects in these and to the lack of combined action, a federal law was adopted in 1876, which gives the federation control over the forests of the mountain region embracing eight entire cantons and parts of seven others, or over 1,000,000 acres of forest. The federation itself does not own any forest land, and the cantons hardly 100,000 acres, somewhat over four per cent. of the forest area, two thirds of which is held in communal ownership, and the rest by private owners.

The law is quite remarkable as illustrating the rational principles upon which this little republic works, maintaining close relation between the general and cantonal governments, very different from our ridiculous jealousies between State and Federal governments.

The federal authorities have supervision over all cantonal, communal, and private forests, so far as they are "protective forests"; but the execution of the law rests with the cantonal authorities, under the inspection of federal officers. "Protective forests" are those which by reason of elevation and situation on steep mountain-sides or on marshy soils, on the banks of brooks or rivers, or where a deficiency of woodland exists, serve as a protection against injurious climatic influences, damage from winds, avalanches, land-slides, falls of rocks, washouts, inundation, etc. The cutting in these forests is regulated so as to insure a conservative use, and to prevent devastation. Where needful reforestation is mandatory, the federal and cantonal government share in the expense, or may expropriate with payment of full indemnification to the owners. No diminution of the forest area within the established area of supervised forests is permissible, and replanting is prescribed where necessary; nor can township or corporation forests be sold without consent of the cantonal authorities.

The national government contributes from thirty to seventy per cent. of the cost for the establishment of new forests, and from twenty to fifty per cent. for planting in protective forests; where special difficulties in reforestation are encountered, or where the planting is deemed of general utility, the cantonal government assumes the obligation of caring for and providing improvements in the plantings.

The employment of educated foresters is obligatory, and to render this possible, courses of lectures to the active foresters are maintained in the cantons. There is also an excellent forestry school at Zurich.

## FRANCE.

BEFORE the Revolution in France, the forest code of 1669 enjoined private owners to manage their forests upon the principles on which the government forests were managed, which was by no means a very rational management, according to modern ideas, yet was meant to be conservative and systematic. During the Revolu-

tion a law forbidding clearing for twenty-five years was enacted, and later laws, the most important of which are those of 1860, 1862, and 1882, establish the control of the state over all "protective forests," and make mandatory the reforestation of denuded mountains.

Not only does the state manage its own forest property (one ninth of the forest area) in approved manner, and supervise the management of forests belonging to communities and other public institutions (double the area of state forests) in a manner similar to the regulation of forests in Germany, but it extends its control over the large area of private forests by forbidding any clearing except with the consent of the forest administration.

The permit to do so may be withheld where public interest demands. Heavy fines follow any attempt at clearing such forests without permission, and the owner may be forced to replant. In addition to this, the reforestation of denuded mountain-slopes is encouraged, enforced, or directly undertaken by the government.

The encouragement consists in the granting of financial aid or of plant material in proportion to the general good resulting from the work, or according to the financial condition of the communities undertaking it. Wherever reforestation is made obligatory by decree on account of the condition of the soil and water-courses, and the danger of threatening the lands below, the general council and a special commission have a voice; the territory to be reforested, the plans of work, the time limit fixed for the same, and the amount of aid offered by the forest administration, are published. If the land belongs to communities unwilling or unable to reforest, the government may either expropriate or do the work alone, holding the land until it is reimbursed; this can be done by the cession of one half the land within a given time. If the land belongs to private owners who refuse or fail to perform the work, the state may also expropriate, allowing redemption within five years.

The government, if desired, or where success depends on it, superintends the planting, and also regulates the use of these protective forests afterward.

In order to gain the confidence and coöperation of the communities and proprietors, annual meetings were held in which the government agents explained the advantages and methods of reboisement, and discussed the local conditions and difficulties. These meetings proved of great usefulness in the cause of rational forestry. The education resulting from them, and the success of the reforestation work, had covered, in 1888, an area of about 365,000 acres, of which 90,000 were private and 125,000 communal property, the rest belonging to the state. The expenditure by the state has been \$10,000,000, of which about \$2,500,000 were for expropriations, and \$1,200,000 for subventions. The cost per acre for reforesting was somewhat less than \$10.00. It is estimated that 800,000 acres more are to be reforested, and an additional expenditure of \$38,000,000 is necessary before the damage done to the agricultural lands of eighteen French departments by reckless forest destruction will be repaired.

Shall the United States learn from these experiences? Shall we take advantage of these examples? How far may we utilize the methods indicated by them?

B. E. Fernow.

## Goethe on Paper Money.

It is somewhat singular that in the struggle for a stable and honest currency which has been going on ever since our civil war, in the series of conflicts with greenbackers, silver inflationists, and Populists, we have seen no allusion to the admirable satire upon fiat money, "based on the undeveloped resources of the country," which is contained in the first act of the Second Part of "Faust." Goethe drew his material, of course, from the then comparatively recent performances of the Scotch financier, Law, in France; but he gave his parable a touch of universality which makes it in some ways curiously prophetic of the monetary insanities of our own time.

He significantly ascribes the invention of fiat money to the father of lies. Mephistopheles, who has undertaken to deliver Faust from ennui, brings him (immediately after the Gretchen episode) to the court of the emperor. The court jester is thrown into a trance, and Mephistopheles takes his place. The imperial ministers draw a gloomy picture of the state of the empire. The chancellor bewails the disregard of justice, the reign of violence and fraud; the chief commander complains of the disorganization of the army, largely due to the impossibility of paying the soldiers; the treasurer laments the emptiness of his coffers and the failure of the imperial credit; and the marshal protests his inability to defray the expenses of the imperial cellar. The emperor asks the new jester if he cannot add something to this dreary litany of complaints. Mephistopheles cheerfully remarks that the root of all the evils in the empire seems to be the lack of money, and there is plenty of that—underground. The emperor has, indeed, given away most of his rights, as the treasurer has already said, but the right to all buried treasure is still in the crown—and what a quantity of wealth must have been hidden away and forgotten in the centuries of war and anarchy since the first Roman invasions! He pledges himself to devise a means of making this wealth available.

In an ensuing mask, in which Faust is introduced as the god of riches, the emperor's signature is obtained to a note secured by all the buried treasure in the realm, and redeemable as soon as the said treasure is unearthed. The note is manifolded that very night (Mephistopheles seems to have invented printing for the purpose), and is issued in various denominations from ten to one hundred crowns.

The next day the ministers rush into the imperial presence with glad tidings: all loans have been extinguished, and the court is out of the claws of the usurers; all current bills have been met; the soldiers have received their arrears of pay, and are full of wine and loyalty. The emperor, who had not realized what he was doing, is at first angry at the supposed forgery of his signature, then mystified that his people will take these bits of paper for good gold; but so long as they do, he can hardly quarrel with the relief so opportunely afforded him. In the rest of the scene the effects of the sudden inflation of the currency are indicated in a remarkably vivid manner. The money-changers are taking the notes, and paying gold and silver for them—"with a discount, to be sure," but, still, they are taking them. Half the world is thinking only of revelry, the other (and better) half of new clothes, and everybody is cheering the emperor.

Mephistopheles, in praising the convenience of the new money, anticipates one of the stock arguments of the greenbacker: heavy purses and pouches are done away with; a scrap of paper is easily tucked away in a breast-pocket, in a love-letter, or between the leaves of a breviary. "Majesty will pardon me if, by entering into these petty details, I seem to make little of the great achievement." Faust interpolates a grave sentence or two on the advantage of utilizing undeveloped resources, and on the practical value of the imagination. The wealth on which the notes are based is boundless, and therefore the really profound mind accepts them "with boundless confidence." Mephistopheles reverts to his more practical point of view. The notes are not only handy, but they furnish a stable standard of value. All the trouble of haggling over the exchange of different kinds of coin is done away with. If any one wants metal, he can get it from the money-changers; if they hesitate, "one can dig awhile," auction off the cups and chains he disinters, redeem his notes for himself, and put skeptics and scoffers to shame. The people are rapidly becoming used to the new money, and will soon refuse to do without it. Jewels, coin, and paper will furnish an abundant medium of exchange, easily kept equal to the demands of the country.

The emperor is now seized with a spirit of prodigality, and begins to distribute notes to his courtiers, asking each what he means to do with the largess. He is somewhat disappointed to find that no spirit of enterprise is awakened, that no new social forces are set in motion. The squire, indeed, proposes to pay off his mortgages, a highly laudable intention; but the *bon vivant* proposes to live even better; the gambler's dice jump in his pocket; the miser will add the notes to his hoard. Human nature is just as human as ever, and its various manifestations are simply intensified.

At the end of the scene the old jester reappears, and begs for a share of the imperial bounty. The emperor tosses him paper to the amount of five thousand crowns, with the prophecy that he will use it foolishly, and leaves the stage. The jester incredulously asks Mephistopheles if this stuff has really money value. Mephistopheles tells him that he can eat and drink his fill with it. The jester persists with growing excitement: "Can I buy with it acres, house, and cattle? A castle with a forest, hunting, fishing?" Assured of this, he hurries off, exclaiming:

This very night in real estate I'll revel.

MEPHISTOPHELES (*solus*): Who longer doubts that our fool's head is level?

Verily, verily, there is nothing new under the sun.

Munroe Smith.

## The Head of Sir Walter Scott.

THE "Journal" of Scott tells us scarcely anything new in the way of facts, but it has had the effect of setting his character in a new light, not so much by altering as by deepening our previous conception of it. But in all the close sifting of the man it has called out, I have seen no mention of the death-mask which, by some miscarriage of taste, disfigures the outer covers of the two volumes, one giving a front, the other a side view. A death-mask always has something of the

repulsiveness of death; it is more deathly than the dead face itself, which often retains the living expression, while the cast retains only the sunken and hardened shape impressed by the "marring finger" of death. These post-mortem transcripts of Scott's head are by no means decorative, and should have been placed within and not without, especially as the shape is almost deformity. They are, however, of the utmost interest as revealing the shape of the head, which is only partly suggested in the portraits.

Scott's head has always been a puzzle to those who connect cranial proportion with mental traits, and they have been more willing to pass him by than to attempt to explain him, or they have credited him with qualities not sustained by the record. While I have no disposition to come to the rescue of the philosophers of the tactual and tape-line school, I can assure them that their case is not so bad as it seems; they have only to study it more closely, and by the light of a wider science, in order to bring it within their theories, with the exception of the size of the brain, which, like Byron's, was uncommonly small. But even this need not disturb the phrenologist, for recent science tells us that it is not the size of the brain that determines thought-power, but the amount of surface presented by its convolutions. A large brain may have relatively few convolutions or little working-surface, and a small brain may be so convoluted as to be nearly all surface, the difference being somewhat analogous to that between the radiating power of a cube of metal and half the amount spread out into a thin sheet. The trouble with this explanation is that the phrenologist can make no practical use of it, inasmuch as he cannot thumb and finger the inside of the head. A tape-line no longer suffices to measure mental capacity, and those who wear a hat of the same number as Daniel Webster must forego the happy inference that they could be as great as he if they should try. We are all driven to the old maxim, "Judge no man till he is dead," or to the still older rule of measuring greatness by deeds.

According to the distribution of Scott's brain as indicated by the outside, he should have been a conceited religious fanatic; but he was neither conceited, nor fanatical, nor over-religious. The head suggests by its height, or rather by its retreating length and narrowness, artificial compression, — not wholly a wrong suggestion, for it was by compression that its peculiar shape was produced. The matter is of intense interest when we realize that only a freak of nature prevented that matchless brain from being locked within an inclosure which would have made it that of a microcephalous idiot.

The peculiar shape of the skull is closely associated with his lameness: both were due to a congenital error in bone-making. When about eighteen months old he had a slight illness, caused by dentition. On recovery, he was found to have lost — as was thought at the time — "the power of his leg"; the real fact being that the child refused to move a suffering limb. From some cause, probably congenital, and brought into action by dentition, the process of bone-making was arrested, inducing swelling and shrinking of the limb and lameness, from which he never recovered, though it did not prevent great activity upon his feet. The defect or fault in the bones of the leg extended also to the skull, or, rather, another error in bone-making then showed itself. After death, the examination revealed

that there had been "a premature union of the two parietal bones along the sagittal suture," due to an arrest of bone-making along the edges of the suture, which closed like a vise upon the expanding brain. This closure affected only the sagittal suture; the coronal suture was left free, and the brain pushed the vault of the skull up and back, creating the oblong shape so noticeable in the mask, and so similar to that of the microcephalous idiot. When Dr. Charles Creighton once happened to show to a distinguished French anthropologist a skull of one of this unfortunate class, with its boat-shape formation and effaced sagittal suture, the *savant* held it up and exclaimed, "*Voilà*, Walter Scott!" Had this defect in bone-making extended to the other sutures, there would have been no Sir Walter Scott, no increase of horse-hire in the Trosachs, no Scotland of romance, and no Waverleys for the world.

Questions arise which the anatomist and psychologist must answer. The brain of Scott was small; if the bone-making had been natural, and the brain had not been forced to the labor of lifting the skull, would it not have been larger and its convolutions more numerous? In that case, granting that there is a proportion between the size and convolutions of the organ and the mental faculties, what sort of man should we have had? Scott is already called Shakspearean; might he not have been another Shakspeare in full measure?

Other questions arise. Some of Scott's senses were very dull, and all were far from being acute. He had but a slight ear for music, never getting farther in his enjoyment of it than ballads of a simple character; his daughter Anne sang down to him. Lockhart says of his sense of smell that when by chance the venison was so ripe as to make the company uncomfortable, Scott was indifferent to it. As to wines, he could scarcely distinguish them apart, confounding them in an amusing manner. His eye was far from being correct. He worked at nothing so hard as upon oil-painting, but with most dismal success — evidently from defect of eye. May not this dullness of the senses be connected with the crowding of the brain, by which the various nerves were weakened? It might also be asked if this unnatural handling of the organ by nature may not have had some effect in inducing that nervous energy with which he wrought, the misplacement turning his energies in a single direction. The most marvelous thing about Scott is the rapidity with which he worked. Carlyle, in his essay, often speaks of the healthiness of the man, which is true so far as his feelings and thought are concerned; but his rapidity suggests morbidity. May it not be connected with the trick nature played upon his brain? Nor can we fail to suspect that it may have had some relation to the disease of which he died. That he died of worry and over-work there is no doubt, but may not an ulterior cause be found in this crowding of the brain into unnatural shape and compass, with the effect of making it unduly sensitive, and predisposed to the malady which carried him off?

The point of these suggestions is that vast and splendid as were Scott's gifts and achievements, he is still entitled to allowance for what Nature intended but failed to do for him through her own fault.

T. T. Munger.

## The Unity of the Sects.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF BOWDOIN COLLEGE.

At first sight the Christian sects seem as unlike as the colors of the solar spectrum, and as different from the simplicity and purity of Christian love as red and blue and violet are different from the white light of the sun. One seeks justification by sound doctrine, and sanctification by long creeds. Another tries to lift itself into the heaven of emotional ecstasy by tugging at the boot-straps of free will. Another finds saving efficacy in cadences and candles, music and millinery. Another insures an entrance to heaven by exclusiveness on earth. Another seeks to take the kingdom by the violence of denial and the boldness of free thought. And, among the illiterate, numerous sects seem to believe in salvation by reflex action; *i. e.*, the transference of sensuous stimulus from the sensory to the motor nerves without the intervention of the brain. Such is the view which the multitudes outside of the Church, who have no sympathy with its life and no insight into its thought, take of the differences which separate its members.

Then there is a large class within the Church having the Christian spirit, but lacking the breadth of view which ought to accompany it, who would explain away these differences. One man signs his name in bold John Hancock style, using plenty of ink. Another writes his with a fine Spencerian pen. Common-sense business men accept either signature as valid; but Baptist and Pedobaptist must split into sects because they differ as to the quantity of material used in an act as purely symbolical as the signing of one's name.

One man goes to a concert because he makes up his mind to go, and expects to have a good time. Another goes because he loves music, and music draws him. They do not require separate musicians, instruments, and concert-halls on that account. Yet on this very question of the relative importance of the two blades of the scissors which cut the threads of our fate,—freedom and determinism, free will and determination,—Calvinist and Arminian, Presbyterian and Methodist, must needs divide.

In a political campaign one class of voters are influenced chiefly by dry, hard presentation of facts and arguments. Another class are roused to political enthusiasm by brass bands, transparencies, uniforms, and kerosene-torches. Separate tickets, however, are not placed in the field to represent these issues. Yet ritualistic and non-ritualistic worshippers resist union as obstinately as oil and water.

This tendency to belittle and explain away the sects is as fashionable within the Church to-day as is the disposition to ridicule them in the outside world. And the one attitude is about as shallow and superficial as the other.

Sectarianism, or the disposition to spend everything in keeping up the fences while the fields go to weeds and briars, is indeed a serious evil; and we may congratulate ourselves on whatever inroads ridicule or reason can make upon it. Yet sectarianism is fast dying out, except in new and rural communities. If I, as an orthodox Congregationalist, prefer to have each stage of the spiritual journey precisely described in the doctrinal guide-book, and choose to verify by chart and compass each step as I proceed, I can rejoice that my more far-sighted companion is able to see and follow some shining banner far ahead, and that another has

within his own breast as reliable a home instinct in religious matters as beasts and birds have in their temporal concerns. And, to speak of differences in substance rather than in method, the more profoundly I believe that Jesus Christ is very God of very God, the giver of divine life, and the incarnation of divine love, the more confidently shall I trust that he is able and willing to impart that life and love to those who with humble hearts reverence his character, and with obedient wills walk in his footsteps, even though with honest intellects they call him merely man.

Our present danger is not that we shall make too much of sects, but that we shall make too little of them. Sects are not the result of either perversity or folly. The fact is, God and his truth are very great; and man and the average mind of man are very small. To grasp the full revelation God has made of himself in Christ and in his Church is beyond the power of average humanity. The best of us get but partial glimpses of his glory. One sees one aspect of the divine; another, another. Yet amid all the diversity of individual view, there are certain great classes into which the individual differences may be grouped. The grouping together of individuals whose points of view most nearly coincide is the foundation of the sects. And the fact that the sect represents to the individuals who compose it that aspect of the divine truth and love which presents the line of least resistance to the communion of their souls with God is its sufficient justification.

Sects are to the Church what parties are to the State. The abstract idea of the State is too vast and vague for the average citizen to grasp. He is not able to deduce from the first principles of government the proper policy on every issue that comes up. Hence arise at least two opposite parties: one, which we call Republican, emphasizes the grandeur of the nation, vindicates its honor before the nations of the earth, and makes its power felt for the education of the ignorant, the relief of the suffering, and the protection of the wronged throughout the length and breadth of the land; the other, which we call Democratic, has for its mission to vindicate the largest liberty of the individual, to guarantee his freedom from all avoidable interference and unnecessary taxation, and to maintain local self-government. The danger of excessive Republicanism is corruption and tyranny; the danger of too much Democracy is rebellion and anarchy.

Now, the average citizen can grasp with clearness and force the merits of one of these parties, and the defects of the opposite one. In doing so, he is able to render to the State an important service as a partizan which he could not render as a mere citizen. Hence all good citizens must be partizans. The so-called independent differs from the regular partizan, not that he cares less for party, but that he cares more for party. He sees the merits and defects of both parties, and endeavors to ally himself with the one whose merits are most needed and whose defects are least dangerous at any given time.

In like manner the sects apprehend various sides of the one great fact of the love of God manifested in Jesus Christ, and imparted to humanity as the spirit of a new life of human love. One apprehends clearly how lost and loveless a creature man is without this love of God; traces minutely the process by which the grace of Christ gains entrance to the soul; marks off precisely the successive stages of the Spirit's conquest; and so



by orthodoxy, or right thinking and right teaching, whether it be Presbyterian or Congregationalist, makes the love of Christ a reality and a power in the world. Its body of doctrine is lacking in grace and warmth, no doubt; but it gives to its adherents strength for patient endurance, noble self-sacrifice, and far-reaching practical endeavor beyond any religious force the world has ever known.

To see the beauty of holiness, and to express worship in worthy and appropriate symbols, to organize human life into an enduring instituted embodiment of the sweetness of charity, is the special mission of the Episcopalian. To protect from change and cheapening the divinely ordained sacraments which signify the reception and communion of this same love of Christ, is the chosen work of the Baptist. To keep live coals upon the altar of Christian gratitude and joy, and to keep the way of repentance and forgiveness ever open to the wandering and the lost, is the glorious service in which the Methodist is an example to us all. To think out freshly and work out practically in relation to present problems this same love of God, is the perilous and arduous path on which the Unitarian ventures.

Evolution, in the words of its prophet, is "a change from an indefinite, incoherent homogeneity to a definite, coherent heterogeneity through continuous differentiations and integrations." The sects are differentiations of the great Christian principle, and are essential to its evolution as a practical power among men. They are the special organs the Church has developed for the performance of special functions. To reduce them to uniformity would be seriously to impair the vigor and vitality of the Church as a whole.

Not uniformity, not union by ignoring differences, but oneness in the midst of differences,—the organic unity of members having features and functions entirely unlike,—is the goal of evolution for the Christian church.

It is the mark of a weak administrator to seek to compel his colleagues and subordinates to share his own views and plans. A strong man will seek to associate with himself the strongest men whom he can find, regardless of whether they agree with him in matters of detail or not, and then let the final policy of his institution or enterprise be the resultant of the wills of all these strong contending forces. The divine ruler of the Church has chosen the collision of sects with their several ideals, in preference to the stagnation of one-man power, and the deadness of uniformity. Sects are evil only when they become sectarian—that is, when differences of apprehension count for more than the object apprehended; when the private preferences of men are of more consequence than the love of God. The sect principle must in many cases be sacrificed even by those who appreciate its worth. In small country villages it is the duty of the members of the various sects to form a union church, since a union church in such villages is the only strong and efficient church possible. This does not imply that a union church is in itself better than a Methodist or an Episcopal church. It is simply the best they can afford; just as the district school where all grades are crowded into one, and the country store where everything from a toothpick to a horse-rake is huddled together, are the best school and store the country village can afford.

In the cities and large towns greater concert of action,

and better division of territory, guided perhaps by a common council composed of representatives of each sect, are needed to coordinate the missionary efforts of the various members of the one church in the place. Greater comity between boards of home and foreign missions is also a crying need.

These sacrifices, concessions, and agreements, however, are by no means inconsistent with a full appreciation of the worth of sects. And it is not by obliterating the lines that separate them, but by deepening our consciousness of the bond that holds them all together as differing members of one organic body, that we must expect to avoid the evils of sectarianism without destroying the life and vigor, the liberty and originality, the independence and enthusiasm, of the Church.

As the State needs citizens who serve party well for country's sake, so the Church needs members whose fidelity to their particular sects is animated and sustained by devotion to that modern Catholic Church of which all sects in whose veins flows the blood of Christian love are useful and honorable members.

BRUNSWICK, ME.

*William DeWitt Hyde.*

#### American Artist Series.

JOHN DONOGHUE. (See page 837.)

ON a Brooklyn dock, in the case in which it came from Rome, and perhaps one day to be sold for freight and custom charges, lies a colossal piece of sculpture, the greatest effort of an art life of over twenty years, a life spent in hard study in America, France, Italy, and England by a man whose artistic intuition can hardly be said to be second to that of any of our sculptors. This statue, "The Spirit," modeled by John Donoghue in Rome, was intended for exhibition at the World's Fair, but such a work calls for large outlay in material, models, casting, etc., and with the shipping of the statue Donoghue's resources were exhausted. As no one was found to do what, it would seem, the directors of the Fair might well have done,—pay for its transportation to Chicago, and for its setting up there,—the chances are that it will never be seen. But I cannot believe that Mr. Donoghue's great work will have this abortive ending. There is no lack of interest in art on the part of our people, and doubtless some one will be found who, for the honor of art, and the credit of the country, will resurrect this statue from its packing-case grave. Its worthiness may surely be inferred from the example of Mr. Donoghue's work reproduced on page 837 of this magazine—"Young Sophocles Leading the Chorus of Victory After the Battle of Salamis"—and from other works by the same artist shown in the United States in former years.

Mr. Donoghue's statues and reliefs are distinguished, dignified, and sculptural. They are builded, doubtless, on a Greek foundation, but are modern, and his own. There is in all good contemporary sculpture (whether from the standpoint of the purist this be a good quality or not) a tendency to the picturesque, in the form of warmth, of fleshiness, and of color. This tendency is felt in Donoghue's work, but is well restrained, for with him the sculptor is above the painter, the artist above the decorator.

John Donoghue was born in Chicago, Illinois. Soon after his twenty-first year he took up seriously the study of art, entering the Chicago Academy of

Design as a student in 1875. Upon leaving the Chicago Academy he went to Paris, and became, at the Beaux-Arts, a pupil of Jouffroy. In 1880 he exhibited at the Paris Salon a bust of "Phèdre," with which he made a success. One year later circumstances compelled his return to his native city. In 1883 he again went to Paris, to study under Falguière. From there he went to Rome, and set up an atelier, where the work which we engrave and several other statues were made. All these were exhibited at the Salon. After a period of portrait sculpture in Boston, he went to London, where he spent two years, and from there again to Rome, where "The Spirit" was modeled.

*W. Lewis Fraser.*

#### Origin of the Name "Stonewall" Jackson.

GENERAL D. H. HILL'S article in the February CENTURY having discredited the commonly accepted

derivation of General Thomas J. Jackson's nickname "Stonewall" from an incident of the first battle of Bull Run, Major William M. Robbins, on reading the article, wrote to the Charlotte, North Carolina, "Observer" to say that he himself heard General Bee exclaim to a remnant of the Fourth Alabama, in which he was a lieutenant: "Yonder stands Jackson like a stone wall. Let's go to his assistance."

#### A Sharpless Portrait of Washington.

MR. HENRY BOWERS of Brooklyn informs us that he is the possessor of the original crayon by Sharpless from which, evidently, the needlework portrait by Miss Sharpless, printed in the February number, was made. Mr. Bowers's picture was given by General Washington to Mrs. Hannah Cushing, wife of the Justice, and sister of Mr. Bowers's great-grandfather.

## IN LIGHTER VEIN.

### The Department of Athletics.

[PREFATORY NOTE: It is now well known that the decisive factor in the presidential election of 1896 was the issue of Athletics. That this issue was sprung upon the convention by the Hon. G. Hector Braun is also recognized. Hitherto, however, it has been supposed that no verbatim report of his great effort existed. We have lately learned that a student of Wellesley took down a few of the opening and closing paragraphs, merely as an exercise in shorthand, and was fortunately not carried away — as were the press reporters — by the excitement of the scene. Her notes are here given for the first time to the public.]

#### SPEECH OF THE HON. G. HECTOR BRAUN.

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I have listened, I fear with ill-concealed restlessness, to the eloquent speeches of other honorable delegates. While admiring the skill and fervor they have devoted to the championing of bygone issues, I have felt a longing to step forth from the moldy air of antiquity into the fresh breezes of to-day.

The history of mankind is one of progression. Step by step the nations toil up the long stairway of improvement. The printing-press gave a foothold from which to spring to the phonograph. The phonograph in turn raised us to the level from which to clamber to the detective camera, and thence to spring into the saddle of the safety-bicycle, and upon pneumatic tires we glide forward toward — what?

Shall these instruments for the conquest of the world be wasted in renewing the struggles of the past? Shall the rifleman fling aside his repeating firearm to return to the slings and arrows of the middle ages?

There has been progress in other fields. Why should we retrace the beaten paths of politics? Enough — ay, more than enough, has been said upon questions of petty finance. Tariffs, treaties, silver — all these touch little but the pocket. Education, copyright, civil-service re-

form, ballot systems — these are questions of more moment, no doubt, but they belong to the realm of intellect and morals. They have had their day. In vain are these issues stuffed anew with oratorical straw. The people refuse to be moved by them.

A deadly lethargy is creeping with gigantic strides over the prostrate body politic. Do you deny this? Come then to the proof!

Take up that great barometer of public opinion, and consult its lengthening columns. Interrogate the press. "What moves our people to-day?" With the united voices of ten thousand cylinder-presses comes the unanimous reply, "Athletics!"

For us of to-day it is difficult to realize the benighted state of our forefathers. First fell the daily papers; the weeklies and the magazines offered only a short resistance; and the great reviews longer withstood the advance, and it is only a few months since that the "Revue des Deux Mondes" signalized its surrender by its great article upon "Base Ball dans les États-Unis."

The Renaissance discovered the literature of the ancients; the age of Elizabeth applied the lessons taught by the giants of old; and then there came a pause.

Now as we see the fading of our own century, and feel the quickening of a greater time, we have learned to find in the games of ancient Greece the soil from which sprang the flower of her perfect blossoming! The crown of wild olive overshadows the puny laurels of Homer, of Phidias, of Æschylus. For us Leonidas is Greece. We see now why they reckoned by Olympiads!

Even did we so wish, it is too late to stem the advancing tide. It remains only to direct it. The tariff, silver, banking, centralization — yea, even the great woman question, pale into insignificance before the looming grandeur, glory, and supremacy of Athletics. With the eye of faith the patriot may see the blessed day when every citizen is a perfect athlete — when the President may turn from breaking the hammer-record to affairs of state; when the presidents of our colleges may