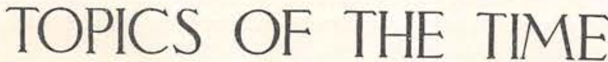


TOPICS OF THE TIME

"The Century's" Quarter of a Century.

THIS number of THE CENTURY marks the twenty-fifth anniversary of the magazine. The date may be supposed to have interest to others than those whose life work has been performed in connection with this periodical. The interest may, furthermore, be presumed to extend beyond the circle of those original readers of the magazine who are still living, to the larger and world-wide circle of its present readers and friends.

It is not our intention to present here a history of the periodical, but to refer rather to its character and aims and to some of its accomplishments. The magazine from the beginning has felt the impulse and molding of its founders. Dr. Holland, Roswell Smith, and the firm of which Charles Scribner, Sr., was the head, were men not satisfied in taking up an enterprise like this merely to follow in the footsteps of others; nor were they content to strive for a success based purely upon ideas of business profit. The magazine at once, therefore, struck out new paths in various directions, notably in the discussion of questions of public interest, and in original and more refined methods of illustration. There was, in fact, an earnest endeavor to lift the standard of popular periodical literature. At an early period large themes were selected for literary and illustrative presentation, and these were treated so as to contribute toward important results of an educational, moral, and patriotic nature.

It was with methods and purposes like these that such subjects have been undertaken as the Great South series; the papers on the Great West; the remarkable series of articles on the Civil War, written by leading participants in its events; the only authorized Life of Lincoln, by his private secretaries; the Californian series; Kennan's extraordinary description of the Siberian exile system; and the Life of Napoleon, which is now appearing in the magazine, and which will correct for our generation many false notions derived in the past from insufficient data.

A periodical like THE CENTURY, even to the persons charged with the duty of its conduct, seems to have an identity which is almost personal. The character apparent in this identity may, perhaps, be spoken of by us without the charge of egotism or undue self-exploitation. There is something in the history and methods of the magazine which differentiates it from its able and admirable contemporaries. This is, in part, its habit of endeavoring to lead opinion in many lines of thought, rather than contenting itself with the mere record of current opinion. In many matters of religious and moral import, of political policy (using the word in a meaning different from the ordinary partizan signification), of economic device, of civic reform, of education, it has sought to precede rather than to follow public opinion. It has naturally taken an active part in various reforms, such as those of the civil service, of copyright, of forestry. It has had the frequent pleasure of speaking its mind frankly on occasions where such frankness was not immediately gratifying to certain of its readers. But on the whole its readers have seemed to appreciate and commend just such frankness.

In the matter of illustration THE CENTURY, as generously acknowledged by its rivals, led in the revival of the art of wood-engraving. To-day it cherishes that art to a greater extent than any other of the similar publications of the country, and at the same time it fosters and attempts to improve the newer and more autographic methods. The art of steam-printing has reached in connection with it a mechanical perfection hitherto unattained. It claims also to have taken part in the birth—hardly a new birth even—of the arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, and decoration in America.

In the purely literary field of fiction, essay, and poetry the magazine has particularly interested itself in the discovery and development of American authors. The literary history of America during the past twenty-five years involves to a very large extent the history of THE CENTURY MAGAZINE. At the same time the magazine has numbered in the past and will in the future number among its contributors many of the best writers of the old world.

With the founding of the magazine, was also founded what is now known as The Century Co. At the beginning the company published only the one magazine. After a short time Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge was induced to undertake the management of a young people's magazine, «St. Nicholas,» and for years these were the only interests of the company. In later years, however, The Century Co. has taken its place among the great publishing-houses of America through its publication of notable works which have appeared in the two magazines, and by separate enterprises of the magnitude of its hymn and tune-book publications, and «The Century Dictionary,» as well as of a long and constantly increasing additional list of books sold by subscription or in the general trade.

As to the future, all we need here say is that it seems to us rich in possibilities. Literary and artistic schemes of very deep interest are constantly opening up before us. During the next ten years there should be in America especially a revival of creative literature. If there is, or should be at any particular time, a lack of energy, or a lack of quantity or quality, in the American literary output, it can be merely temporary; for our condition is full of social, political, and industrial problems; life in the new world is replete with strenuous exertion of every kind, of picturesque contrasts, and of innumerable themes fit to inspire literary art. Am-

erican life is rich in feeling and action and meaning. Moreover, there is an increasing earnestness of interest in public affairs throughout the country—a new spirit of patriotism, which has aroused old and young alike to the conviction that no country is «saved» but once, that every country must be saved continuously. It is more and more understood that, if abandoned, the machinery of government will fall into the hands of men of low and selfish methods, whose corrupt rule demoralizes the masses and destroys liberty. Out of this new spirit, marking a crisis in our national history, comes a seriousness, and with it may come a new literary movement. At least, a literary renaissance, arriving in a recurrent wave, may gain something of power from this new-born national and civic patriotism. Especially may this be so because along with the new enthusiasm for city and for nation there is a deepening sense of human brotherhood, leading to the sympathetic study of social problems which pass the boundaries of nations to those of humanity itself.

The Silent Protest against the Theater.

WE have indicated in a previous article our conviction that the present debased condition of the American stage is due chiefly to the greed, ignorance, and incapacity of a large majority of the men who have established a virtual monopoly in the control of the theater, and, temporarily at least, have put an end to healthy competition. One of the greatest obstacles in the way of reform is the inability of those same men, for obvious reasons, to discern the trend of intelligent, to say nothing of cultivated, public opinion, or to inform themselves of the existence of the wide-spread craving for higher and better entertainment. In their councils this demand is not only not suspected, but it would scarcely be comprehended. For them the most obvious object-lessons seem to possess neither significance nor value. Over and over again it has been demonstrated, beyond possibility of cavil or question, that the play-going public will pay double or treble prices for the privilege of witnessing a good performance of a good play, and yet the managers fail to profit by the experience, and persist in adhering to their fatuous and destructive policy of cheap and coarse sensationalism, or nonsensical extravagance, contenting themselves with an occasional whine about the lack of patriotism on the part of Americans who fill the pockets of foreigners and treat home talent with contemptuous neglect. The simple fact, of course, is that the development of native ability has been checked, if not altogether crushed, by the star and circuit system, which has made a few speculators rich, and has deprived the great body of actors of nearly all opportunity for instruction or advancement. Things, indeed, have come to such a pass that if any manager should become inspired with an ambition to form an American stock company, capable of satisfactory all-round work,—capable, that is, of giving competent representations of old and new comedy and poetic tragedy, as in the days of the preceding generation,—he would be puzzled sorely where to look for native acting material.

Just now in all the local theatrical world there is a bitter cry of hard times. The last season ended prematurely and in general disaster; the coming one is late in opening and not too rich in promise. What there is to commend—and it is almost wholly of foreign origin—will throw into cruel relief the intellectual and dramatic poverty of most of our theatrical exhibitions. The triumph of a few real artists may be regarded as the outward and visible expression of the deep and constant protest which the intelligent part of the public—upon whose support the rational theater is mainly dependent—is making against the foulness and the foolishness blazoned of late before the footlights. This is not to be confounded with the undiscriminating denunciations of the stage which issue now and then from the pulpit, but voices the weariness and disgust of true and ardent lovers of the theater, who regard it in its proper estate as a repository of all manner of treasures of literature and art, a most charming and influential school of manners, a source of varied and delightful entertainment, and, withal, a potent and beneficent teacher both of morals and learning.

It is no small and exclusive class of prudes, or pedants, or faddists which is revolting against the uses to which the stage is now put, but a very large proportion of the best kind of citizens ever found within the walls of a theater—scholars, clubmen, lawyers, merchants, and thinking men generally. They are beginning to absent themselves, not only on account of the offensiveness of many of the plays presented, but also on account of their general feebleness and emptiness, the vanity and vexation of it all. They are sick of seeing the same play over and over again under different titles, of the interminable procession of old and tiresome types reproduced from an original which was popular three or four seasons back, of cheap or stale melodramatic expedients, and of the buffooneries which lost all their power of amusement long ago. They are weary of the leading men who change their coats and trousers, but not their manners, evidently thinking that the charm of their own private personality is too precious to be hidden under the disguise of an assumed character; and of the leading ladies who have but one set of airs and emotions for all emergencies. In short, they are bored inexpressibly by actors who do not act, and by plays destitute of real merit, however startling they may be as expositions of millinery or of queer social sentiment.

Nobody pretends that the theater ought to be solely, or even primarily, a vehicle for mere solid instruction. All playgoers wish to be interested, and most of them wish to be amused. But the bulk of them wish to have some legitimate excuse for their interest or their merriment, and resent even a successful effort to amuse them, if the subject fails to commend itself to them upon later reflection. This winter, apparently, the local managers, unmindful of the past, intend to adhere to the policy which proved so unprofitable last season. Their main reliance seems to be upon plays which achieved a very moderate share of success in London, even when presented by actors of much higher repute than will appear in them here. For some of them foreign stars have been engaged, and their presence may stimulate public curiosity. But there will be no hope and no real prosperity for the American stage as a free and independent organization so long as it is used simply as a provincial adjunct to the London theaters. There is no

good reason why Americans should be expected to exhibit special and perpetual interest in plays dealing with the social conditions, types, and humor peculiar to another, even though it be the mother, country. What they have a right to look for, and what they are beginning to look for, in their theaters is capable representation of the masterpieces of English dramatic literature, of plays by native authors treating of timely topics and national characteristics, and of pieces of general, romantic, or historic interest. There is a virtually illimitable field to be worked by playwrights, and, with a little wise managerial encouragement, plenty of writers would be found willing and able to work it. Such American plays as have been produced, even those of inferior quality, have been received with unmistakable favor, and have brought large profit to everybody concerned. Let the American theater be devoted first to American interests, and it will not be long before the race of American actors will be revived, or before the institution will regain the public favor which has been diverted from it. If it continues on its present course it will lose its hold upon the educated classes altogether, and will sink gradually to the level of the music-halls which it has been imitating.

A Good Year to Fight the Bosses.

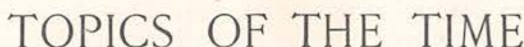
IT is safe to say that fewer voters by many thousands will be influenced by extreme partizan considerations in deciding their course at the polls this month than at any previous election since the war. During the past few years, party ties have been relaxing steadily, chiefly because of the lapsing or settlement of issues which appealed to partizanship. With the passing of these issues there has grown up a desire for good government which is really creating throughout the land a third party, composed of the non-partizans of the two great political parties. The members of this third party, although they have not united except on unusual emergencies and for temporary purposes, are really in complete sympathy with each other. Half of them continue to call themselves Republicans and the other half continue to call themselves Democrats, but both are dissatisfied with boss leadership and with the low level of political morality which it enforces upon party action.

It is mainly the party boss who is responsible for this state of mind. Respectable men in both great parties are so weary of bosses and boss methods, so ashamed of having to follow the lead of such men and to make choice between the candidates whom they put forward for office, that they come naturally together on the issue of good government. It seems to us that the elections of this year afford these dissatisfied voters an exceptionally good opportunity to weaken, if not to destroy, the dominion which the bosses exercise over them. There are no great issues at stake. No Congress is to be chosen, and in nearly all the States which hold elections the issues are mainly local. The bosses will appeal for support on the ground that the result of the elections this year will have an important moral effect upon the national contest of next year; but this familiar method of arousing partizan feeling is not likely to meet with much success. The appeal ought to be met in a quite different manner from that which the bosses desire. Let the voters who are dissatisfied with their party management reply, « Yes, we agree with you. This year's elections will have a great moral effect upon the campaign of next year. We intend that they shall, and we mean to decide the character of that moral effect. We mean to make it clear that the party which makes nominations most clearly in the interest of good government next year will stand the best chance of success.»

How can this be done? Simply by voting against the bosses without regard to their party affiliations. Let the great body of independent-minded voters combine everywhere to defeat the candidates who are put forward by the bosses. If there are two of them to choose between, vote against the more objectionable. Let the lesson be enforced everywhere that extreme boss dictation is certain of defeat at the polls, and the bosses will be made so meek that their part in the nominations of next year will be a minor one.

It should be borne in mind that public opinion is far more powerful in national than in State nominations. We pointed out this fact in a recent article on the timidity of presidential aspirants. No matter how systematically and astutely a boss may lay his plans for controlling a national convention, if public opinion runs strongly counter to his candidate he is certain to fail. The delegates know that in a campaign which includes the whole American people something more potent than mere party machinery is necessary to insure victory. This is certain to be true in a larger sense of the campaign of next year than of almost any of its predecessors. The great questions of that campaign are easily discernible now. They are to be the inflexible preservation of the public credit as the very foundation of national prosperity, sound money, and good government. The voters in both parties who desire the triumph of these issues next year can exert a powerful influence upon the selection of the next presidential nominees by showing that the more a boss has to do with the choice of a candidate the worse will it be for the candidate.

Then, too, by defeating boss candidates for legislative and other offices this year great service will be done directly to the cause of good government. It is a safe rule to follow always, that a boss candidate for the legislature cannot be a useful public servant. He goes to the legislature, if elected, not as a free man, or as the representative of his constituents, but as the agent of his boss, and the boss is always against good government, because under such rule he could not exist.



TOPICS OF THE TIME

Congress and the Currency System.

CHIEF of the questions of large public importance pressing for solution upon the new Congress is the reform of our currency system, which the last Congress refused to change in any way. That body even refused to uphold the President's hands in his efforts to maintain the public credit, endangered solely by our currency system, and declined to give him such additional legislation as would have enabled him to save for the country $16,000,000 in interest on a single issue of bonds. The new Congress ought to be wiser and more patriotic than this. Its members will come together in the light of the experience of the last few months—an experience which has shown more clearly than ever that we cannot hope for a stable financial condition until we reform our currency system.

Our readers will remember that in previous issues of the magazine we have pointed out the fact that so long as our banking business is conducted by the National government we shall be subject to these recurring periods of anxiety about our ability to maintain the gold basis. All our troubles of this kind arise from the $100,000,000 gold reserve which the Government undertakes to maintain as a guarantee that our nearly $500,000,000 of outstanding currency will be redeemed in gold. When the reserve is intact everybody is confident that all is well with our financial system; but the moment it begins to drop below the hundred-million limit a tremor is felt throughout all commercial, industrial, and financial circles, and the restoration of confidence is impossible until the loss is made good either through a new issue of bonds, or the offering of gold by the banks, or the aid of a syndicate which has agreed to help the Government out in such emergencies. So long as anybody can obtain gold for legal tenders at the treasury, and so long as the treasury cannot cancel these legal tenders, but must pay them out again, to be again presented for gold, just so long will these periodic troubles with the gold reserve occur.

No other nation in the world has trouble of this kind, for the simple reason that in no other nation is the banking business conducted by the government. In all of them the gold reserve which sustains the circulating medium is maintained by commerce through the operations of banks. Being an essential element in commerce, the gold reserve adjusts itself automatically. In all countries except ours the government has nothing to do with the money of the country save to certify to its weight and fineness, and to decree that it shall be accepted in the discharge of debts and obligations. The banks have entire control of it, under such regulations as guarantee the people against deceit and loss. It was the same in this country before the war. We departed from the universal custom because of the exigencies of war, and it is more than time that we returned to it, since those exigencies long ago passed away.

It is absurd to claim that the fundamental principles of finance are different in this country from what they are in all others, or that their operation now is different here from what it was prior to 1862. We are engaged in commerce and trade with the rest of the world, and we cannot, if we would, shut our eyes to the results of their experience as embodied in their financial systems. They have no troubles like ours, and it follows that since ours occur under a peculiar system, it must be the system which is at fault. On this point experience has left no room for argument. No other nation in the world could have gone on as long as we have with such a system and escaped financial collapse. Nothing has saved us but our virtually boundless resources, and the faith of the world in our ability and disposition to keep our credit unimpaired.

But it is flying in the face of Providence to continue in this way. It is a reflection upon our sagacity as a people, upon our ability to conduct our financial and business affairs in accordance with the established results of civilization, to go blundering along in our present course, actually piling up a public debt of more than $150,000,000 in order to escape the consequences of our own folly. And this entirely needless debt is the least harmful of the consequences of our course. Business is kept in a constant condition of nervous apprehension, so that permanent prosperity is made virtually impossible. Foreign capital, which is eagerly seeking investment, holds aloof from our securities, though it would most gladly come to us were there absolute assurance that all our obligations would be kept as surely as other civilized nations keep theirs.

The remedy is simple. It is to take the banking business away from the National government and put it into the hands of private banks, where it will rest, as in the case of other nations, not on credit, but on actual assets. The Baltimore plan, evolved by the American Bankers' Association last January, and described in this department of THE CENTURY for February, supplied a system which Congress might well make the basis for the needed change. It was accepted by Secretary Carlisle and Comptroller Eckels with certain modifications; but though they impressed upon the last Congress the need of some action of the kind, nothing was done. It is to be hoped that the new Congress will have a livelier sense of the perils of the present condition of affairs and of their own duty in the premises.

Fruits of Civic Spirit.

THE first year of the reform administration in New York City is drawing to a close, and it is well to survey the field and see what has thus far been accomplished through the overthrow of Tammany in the election of

1894. This is a subject which interests the whole country, for the problem of municipal government is pressing steadily more and more each year upon public attention, and any development in one city which throws light upon it is instructive and helpful for all other cities. New York's achievements are specially valuable, since in this city the problem is a more difficult one than it is anywhere else.

When Mayor Strong assumed office in January last, the entire city government was under Tammany control. The various departments were manned from top to bottom with members of the wigwam. The police-justice bench was nearly filled with them. The police board and the police force were under their absolute control. The street-cleaning department was in the same hands, and so on down through the entire list. Over one department, as its president, a homicide was installed. Upon the police-justice bench were several men who had for many years been the associates of the disorderly and criminal classes of the community. In the police board sat men under whose administration the police force had become a vast machine for the collection of blackmail and tribute from the vice and crime of the city. In every part of the municipal service incompetent men were in positions of authority; in many parts of it those in authority were worse than incompetent.

What is the condition of the service to-day? The departments are in the hands of men of good character. Whatever may be said of their qualifications, no one has questioned their personal honesty. Not a murderer or criminal of any degree is to be found in high place in any department. The police-justice bench is occupied by men who were experienced lawyers and reputable citizens for many years before their appointment to this place. These are administering justice in behalf of the people, and not in the interest of political rascality. In the police board sit four men of ability and character, with Theodore Roosevelt at their head, whose doings have attracted the attention of the whole country. They have abolished blackmailing from the force. They have established the merit system as the basis for all appointments and promotions, in place of the bribery system which prevailed for many years previous to their advent. Almost for the first time in the history of the city, they have succeeded in enforcing the law forbidding Sunday liquor-selling, and in doing it have given the community a valuable lesson as to the wisdom of upholding all laws without regard to their character. If they had the power, which the last legislature refused to give, to reorganize the force by weeding out its dishonest and unfit men, they would be able within the remaining two years of Mayor Strong's term to supply the city with a model police force. The new legislature ought to give them this power, for without it they are greatly hindered in their work.

Under Colonel Waring, as the head of the street-cleaning department, New York, for the first time in its history, has clean streets throughout its limits. They are not merely clean in the business and fashionable sections, but in the tenement-house districts and elsewhere. They are cleaned daily, and kept clean. This is an object-lesson in government which will not be forgotten. No future street-cleaning commissioner, be he Tammany or other, can fall below the Waring standard and escape popular condemnation.

The importance of the work of the building department of a city like New York can hardly be overestimated, though it is often overlooked. This department not only applies the laws as to construction to every new house and every alteration, but supervises all these innumerable new buildings and alterations, and protects life by looking after unsafe buildings, and by inspecting theaters, lodging-houses, etc., and by seeing that fire-escapes are put up wherever needed. Mr. Constable, in this department, has been confronted by an increase of work amounting to nearly one hundred per cent. in excess of any previous year. He has struggled heroically with difficult and adverse circumstances, and has brought about improvements which could not have been made under Tammany domination.

In the health department valuable reforms have been made; and in certain other departments better methods have been introduced, and examinations have been carried on which will lead to needed reforms.

The great value of these improvements in municipal government lies in the demonstration which they make of the need of intelligence and character in public office. They show that in public as in private business operations the best ability is the cheapest, in that it produces the best results. There has been a great outcry by the Tammany defenders in New York City over the alleged extravagant expenditure by Colonel Waring; but as a matter of fact he has shown that he can keep the streets clean for the same amount of money that his Tammany predecessor demanded for not keeping them clean. He has results to show for his work, whereas his predecessors spent money and produced no results. In the long run, when the evils accruing from years of maladministration shall have been eliminated entirely from the service, the city is certain to discover that the more honest and intelligent its government is, the lighter will be the burden of its taxes. There can be no other result. It is a palpable absurdity to argue that while merit and character are necessary to the highest success in private business, they are not only unnecessary, but undesirable, in public business.

The lesson for the other cities of the country to draw from New York's experience is that civic pride, active interest in the government of the city in which you live, does produce palpable results. Every New York citizen holds his head higher to-day than he did a year ago. If his government is not all he would like to have it be, it is certainly not a cause for shame to him in the eyes of the world. That it is no better than it is, he realizes now, is entirely his own fault and the fault of his fellow-citizens, who for so long a time neglected their civic duty and allowed their city to become a byword and a reproach the world over, a disgrace to free government, and a reflection on the capacity of American citizens to conduct with credit their public affairs.

A Citizen by Adoption.

To the readers of this magazine the name of Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen has been long familiar. More than twenty years ago he brought to these pages the charm of his enthusiastic literary beginnings in a new world and a

new language. His earlier writings united the idyllic romanticism of his Norwegian ideals with the freshness and hopefulness of a new life. He loved the country of his birth, and desired to portray its strange beauty; but not less passionately he loved the country of his adoption, which to him held, more than any other, the future of the race. Many of his stories were stories of the pilgrimage from Norway to America. Some of them had a singular force and a moving pathos. It was a unique field of fiction; to many these short stories, along with «Gunnar,» his first long tale, and some of his lyrics, had more impulse and charm than some of his later essays in a different field and manner.

At his untimely death, many of his accomplishments as a scholar, lecturer, author, and professor at Cornell and later at Columbia College were promptly chronicled by the press. But there is a phase of his career which should be specially dwelt upon in this crisis of our nation's history: Professor Boyesen was one of the most devoted of American patriots. His love for the country of his adoption was not a pallid flame, devoid of heat and motive power. Whenever good citizenship required the urgent action of every decent member of the community, this scholar-citizen did not merely «stand up to be counted» as one man: he could be counted as doing the work of a dozen men. His advice, his effort, his voice, were given quickly and effectively to the cause of good government. The country that he loved was not only dear to him for what it was, but for what it might be—for what, indeed, it must yet be, unless failure shall be written upon its brow. He did not regulate his political action in America in reference to the condition of his native country. He stood in America for America. This citizen by adoption was an example to all citizens, whether native or adopted. Would there were more of his kind!

"The Century's" New Type.

IT is agreeable to believe that the magazine in its monthly visits comes to many a home like an old and pleasantly expected friend. What would be the use of denying that there is a deal of sentiment in the way a magazine is regarded by those who have welcomed it, year in and year out, the half or the whole of a lifetime; and a deal of sentiment in the making of it, especially if those who make it have been at the work a quarter of a century or so, and feel themselves in touch with a great and kindly audience of unseen faces?

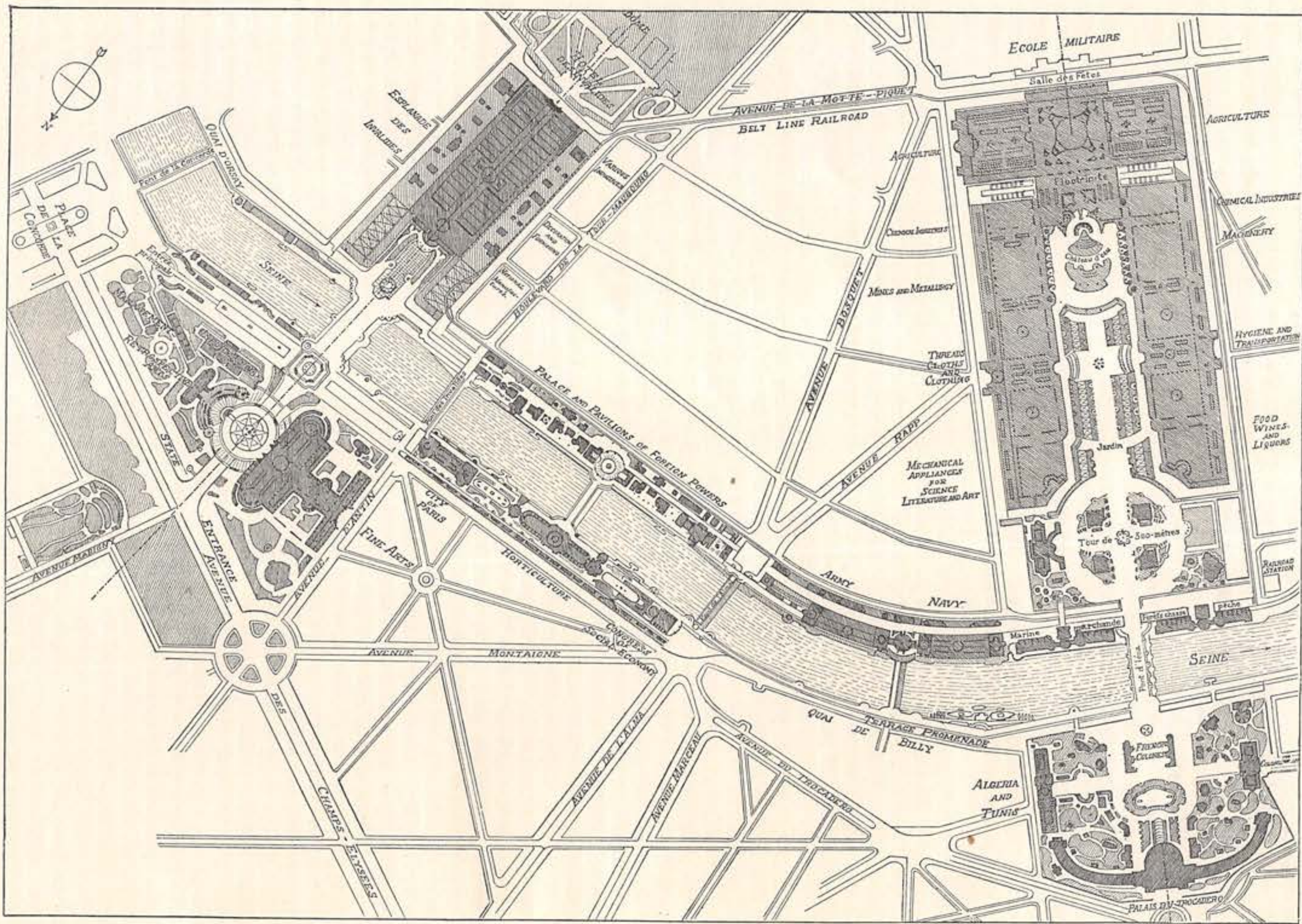
This impersonal personality of a magazine has not only an individuality derived from its history, but from its appearance. We therefore trust that our readers were pleasantly affected by the appearance of the November pages of THE CENTURY, when the new type was put in use for the first time. The story of the designing of this type would perhaps not be an uninteresting one; there are not many superior «artists in letters» available for this work, and the consultations and cogitations and changes and final adoption, for THE CENTURY exclusively, of the present form is a chapter in the technic of typography which perhaps Mr. Theodore L. De Vinne ought to record, if not here, at least for the benefit of a technical audience.

Meantime we hope our readers like the change; we hope they find the new type clearer and more elegant.

The International Exhibition of 1900.

THE French government sent out in September last the official invitations to the various nations of the world requesting their participation in the international exhibition to be held at Paris during the spring, summer, and autumn of 1900. This document must have reached our State Department some time ago, and the subject should come up for consideration at the present session of Congress. The part which the United States government and the American people is to take at Paris four years hence is now, therefore, a «live question,» so that some account of what the coming exhibition is to be, and a few suggestions as to what we ought to do there, are quite in order. In the first place, let me briefly describe the next «world's fair.»

The plan given on the opposite page, and kindly furnished for this letter by the commissioner-general, M. Alfred Picard, shows where the exhibition will be placed, how the grounds will be divided, and what will be the names of the principal buildings. It will be seen that the spacious Place de la Concorde is to be made the vestibule, so to speak, of the fair, while at the point in the Champs Élysées where now stands the Palais de l'Industrie is to be located the grand entrance. This structure will be removed, as shown in the plan, in order to make room for a broad avenue which is to connect the Champs Élysées with the Esplanade des Invalides by a fine new bridge over the Seine. Thus the site of the coming exhibition will be drawn nearer to the heart of the city than was the case at any of the three previous ones, and the Champ de Mars, which was the center of attraction in 1867, 1878, and 1889, will be supplanted in this respect by the fine sweep of space extending from the Champs Élysées across the Cours-la-Reine and the Esplanade to the Hôtel des Invalides. The Trocadéro palace and garden with its splendid fountain, and the beautified Champ de Mars with its fa-



ECOLE MILITAIRE
Salle des Fetes
AVENUE-DE-LA-MOTTE-PIQUET
BELT LINE RAILROAD
ESPLANADE DES INVALIDES
QUAI D'ORSAY
PLACE DE LA CONCORDE
SEINE
STATE
ENTRANCE AVENUE
AVENUE D'ANTIN
FINE ARTS
CITY OF PARIS
HORTICULTURE
CONGRESS OF SOCIAL ECONOMY
PALACE AND PAVILIONS OF FOREIGN POWERS
BOULEVARD DE LA TOUR-MAUBOURG
AVENUE BOSQUET
AVENUE RAPP
AGRICULTURE
CHEMICAL INDUSTRIES
MINES AND METALLURGY
THREADS CLOTHS AND CLOTHING
MECHANICAL APPLIANCES FOR SCIENCE LITERATURE AND ART
ARMY
NAVY
Jardin
Electricité
Château d'eau
Tour de 300-mètres
Marine
Pont d'Iéna
MACHINERY
HYGIENE AND TRANSPORTATION
FOOD WINES AND LIQUORS
RAILROAD STATION
AVENUE MONTAIGNE
DES CHAMPS-ELYSEES
AVENUE DE L'ALMA
AVENUE MARCEAU
AVENUE DU TROCADERO
QUAI DE BILLY
TERRACE PROMENADE
ALGERIA AND TUNIS
FRENCH COLONIES
PALAIS DU TROCADERO

mous Eiffel Tower, will, of course, still form important parts of the fair grounds; but they will be subordinated to the other half of the site, and especially to the portion lying on the right bank of the Seine, where will be erected the new and permanent Fine Arts Building.

The classification of exhibits has always perplexed the organizers of international exhibitions, and although M. Picard has not modified essentially the system adopted in 1889, he has not hesitated to introduce some new features, in the hope of making the classification of 1900 better than those of its predecessors. Perhaps the most radical of these changes is the placing alongside of exhibits, when possible, the machinery, in motion, by which they are manufactured. By this means life is to be given to galleries which were dead and unattractive under the old arrangement, and the real nature and origin of the exhibits will be easily and thoroughly grasped by the visitor. Several new classes[1] have been introduced into the classification of 1900, either because of the progress made along certain lines of human activity since 1889, or because of fresh developments in French life and institutions. Thus, electricity, «that fairy of the nineteenth century,» as M. Picard happily expresses himself, which was disposed of in one class at the last Paris exhibition, will now have a whole group devoted to it. This is doubtless largely due to the example set by Chicago in 1893, where, it will be remembered, a special building was given up to electricity.

The chemical industries, which have also made such great strides during the present century, likewise rise to the dignity of a group for the first time in Paris international exhibitions. But one cannot record without a feeling of regret the expansion to be given to the army and navy side of the fair. «The development of military life among all the chief European nations justifies this extension,» says M. Picard. So European militarism is to monopolize in 1900 a whole distinct group of six classes.

Of better augury for humanity is the extension to be given to the department of social economy, which, if I am not mistaken, in 1889 first received distinct recognition at international exhibitions, thanks to the initiative of that distinguished economist, M. Léon Say, to whom is also due this development for 1900. The most significant feature of this enlarged group is the space devoted to what concerns the laboring classes and the amelioration of their condition. The titles of some of the new classes speak for themselves: «Protection of Working Children,» «Workingmen's Homes,» «Institutions for the Moral and Intellectual Development of Workingmen,» etc.

The greed for colonial extension on the part of continental Europe, and of France in particular, is reflected in the classification of 1900 by the institution of an entirely new group, «The Moral and Material Work of Colonization.» So, too, is mirrored another dominant feature of French activity—the decorative and industrial arts, which call for a number of classes or fractions of classes. Here is found one of the most notable innovations in M. Picard's classification. All the classes devoted to these arts will be divided into two distinct sections in the matter of awards. In one will be placed the artists who produced the drawings, cartoons, or models, in the other the manufacturer who exhibits their work; and the judges will confer honors on them independently. Thus an artist may receive recognition for his labor, while the manufacturer is passed over.

A separate feature of the classification is the proposed Centennial Retrospective Exhibition, to be composed of productions covering the period extending from 1800 to 1900. It will not be concentrated in a single collection, as was the case in 1889, and attractive, consequently, only to the learned and the inquisitive student, but will be scattered through each group in such a way that each class, where this is possible, will have as its vestibule a sort of little museum showing the various stages of progress made in its special field since the beginning of the century. The fine arts and decorative arts division of this Retrospective Exhibition will be particularly interesting, as it will consist of a series of rooms in which will be grouped the masterpieces of painting, engraving, sculpture, architecture, pottery, stained glass, etc., characteristic of the different periods of the nineteenth century.

The managers of international fairs have always encountered a grave difficulty in solving the problem of awards to exhibitors. Even French authorities are far from agreeing on the subject,[2] and the serious discord which it caused at Chicago in 1893 has not been forgotten. Though M. Picard recognizes all the objections which have been formulated against the French system, and especially against its base, the international jury on awards, he believes that the merits outbalance the demerits, and so has decided to retain the system in 1900. Thus there will be three distinct bodies of jurors or judges—the class, group, and superior juries. The members of the first of these are named by the French government in the case of the Frenchmen,—who are in a large majority on every jury,—and by the commissioners-general of each country in the case of the foreign members. It is the class juries which come into direct contact with the exhibitors and prepare the reports on awards, which are sent up for approval or revision to the group juries, made up chiefly of the presidents, vice-presidents, and secretaries of the class juries, and finally to the single superior jury which acts in last resort, composed of three or four members of the ministry, the commissioner-general of the exhibition, many high French officials, and the foreign commissioners-general. Moreover, it may be stated in this connection that in 1900, as in 1889, diplomas and not medals, for reasons of economy, will be awarded, though they will be considered the equivalents of medals. These diplomas will be of five classes: grand prizes, gold, silver, and bronze medals, and honorable mentions.

A new spirit, or rather a return to the early custom of international exhibitions, is to prevail in 1900 in regard to the position and treatment of the exhibitor. At the beginning he played the principal rôle, and was properly regarded as the *raison d'être* of the enterprise. But there has been a growing tendency to push

[1] The exhibits are divided into "classes" and "groups," which may be respectively likened to the terms "species" and "genus" of the natural historian. There will be 120 classes and 18 groups in the exhibition of 1900.

[2] See M. Berger's article in THE CENTURY MAGAZINE for April, 1890.

him into the background in order to make way for amusements of one kind or another which are entirely foreign to the true aim and nature of these international enterprises, but which «draw,» and thus act as a powerful aid toward financial success. This objectionable feature obtruded itself to such a degree in 1889 at Paris, and in 1893 at Chicago, that the management of 1900 has determined to check it, and return to the more legitimate course of early days. As the president of the Paris chamber of commerce has well put it, «An exhibition is for the exhibitors, and not the exhibitors for the exhibition.» This is also the view of M. Alfred Picard.

Such, briefly given, are the principal outlines of the Paris Exhibition of 1900. But a word remains to be said in regard to the part that the United States should take in it.

We have never had at the European world's fairs an American section which fitly represented the power, wealth, and civilization of the United States. We have often been surpassed in this respect by third- and even fourth-rate nations. Our exhibit at Paris in 1889 was, as a whole, simply pitiable when compared with what it might and should have been. Mr. Depew graphically expressed the general opinion of American visitors when he said that he entered the grounds with the stars and stripes flying, but came out with the flag in his pocket! Mortification at this Paris fiasco, and a desire to show the world what we could do, were the primal causes of the popular movement which culminated in the Chicago Exhibition.

But how can our failures in the past be prevented in 1900? In two or three ways. Congress should vote promptly a liberal appropriation to promote our representation, and not fetter the future American commission with a niggardly sum like that granted for the exhibition of 1889; for money makes fairs as well as mares go. Then the President should appoint without delay our commissioner-general, who should go immediately to Paris, form the personal acquaintance of the official world and the eminent specialists, like Say, Mascart, Brouardel, and others, who are devoting their time and knowledge to the development of the exhibition, see the grounds, study the plans, and learn what France expects of us. Having returned to this country, where he would then be able to speak with authority and enthusiasm of the enterprise in which he would henceforth be an interested and important factor, the commissioner-general should visit all parts of the Union, address the chambers of commerce of our cities, call in person upon the chief manufacturers and business men, and while stating the scope and high aims of the exhibition, should answer questions, remove objections, and urge participation. In a word, he should imitate the example set by the imperial commissioner, Herr Wermuth, in Germany, before the opening of the Chicago Exhibition, and thereby obtain a similar result; for just as the Germans surpassed all other foreign sections on the shores of Lake Michigan, so would the United States in 1900 not only far outdo all its previous efforts at Paris, but might equal, if not excel, many European nations.

But some readers may ask, Is it really necessary to begin our preparations so soon? Yes; if we are to carry out to a successful end the plan here sketched. Some countries began to move even before the official invitations were sent out. Early last September the Japanese minister at Paris laid before M. Picard the drawings for Japan's special building. The Congo Free State has already begun to prepare a remarkable exhibit of its resources, which will far outshine the mediocre one of 1889; while members of the cabinets of Belgium and Holland publicly informed the commissioner-general last summer that he could count on the participation of their respective nations.

Finally, the question may be asked, Why should we make this extra effort at Paris in 1900? Several answers might be given. France was the first European state to accept our invitation for 1893;[1] and though the high-tariff fever was then at its worst, several of her manufacturers exhibited at a loss, in order that the French section should not be inferior to those of other foreign countries. A regard for the comity of nations should, therefore, prompt us to do our best at Paris in 1900. Then, again, we ought to strengthen morally the hands of republican Europe, surrounded and almost choked by unsympathetic monarchies, by showing with éclat what a free democratic people has done in every field in which it has won high distinction. Thirdly, we owe it to ourselves no longer to suffer the élite of these Paris world's fairs to form their opinion of us from the mirror which we ourselves have held up on four or five successive occasions. When a Trollope or a Dickens or a Bourget puts our shortcomings into print, many of us are immediately up in arms; and yet when we exhibit ourselves at their international justs of trade we more than justify much that they have said of us. The exhibition of 1900 will be a good occasion on which to raze forever the Chinese wall with which America is prone to surround herself.

Theodore Stanton.

"Masculine Heads" and "Feminine Hearts."

APROPOS OF SONYA KOVALEVSKY.

HOWEVER interesting the details put together by Miss Hapgood in her article on Sonya Kovalevsky in the August CENTURY, the account as a whole is in more than one respect misleading. While there are a number of points upon which I should be glad to comment, I shall venture to ask the hospitality of the columns of THE CENTURY for two criticisms only, and these upon the two closing paragraphs of Miss Hapgood's article:

> «Notwithstanding her genius, Professor Sonya Kovalevsky was always mentally dependent upon a man. We have her written confession that she lectured better when Professor Mittag-Leffler was in the audience. Notwithstanding her solid contributions to applied mathematics, she originated nothing; she merely developed the ideas of her teachers.
>
> «What is the conclusion of the whole matter? Setting aside all partizan questions, it would seem to be

[1] On the evening of the day when the French government voted to respond favorably to the Chicago invitation, M. Ribot, at the time Minister of Foreign Affairs, said to the then United States minister to France, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid: "I believe France has acted before any other power; at least, I hope so."

this: that a masculine head united to a feminine heart is likely to prove a very unhappy combination for a woman.»

Now, as regards the matter contained in the first of these paragraphs, Miss Hapgood labors under the disadvantage of not being a mathematician. The present writer, while a very humble worker in that field, has at least been for a number of years a professor of mathematics in the Johns Hopkins University, and has had the opportunity of knowing something about the leading mathematicians of Europe and their work. To «originate» anything in mathematics which shall not be capable of being classed as a development of the ideas of those who have gone before us is an extremely rare achievement; there are very few, indeed, in any age, of whom anything approaching this can be asserted. Surely the general reader, however intelligent, would get the impression from the above quotation that Kovalevsky's mathematical work was very like a failure, after all; but this is as though one were to pronounce every scientist a failure who did not reach the rank of Newton or Darwin. No one would conjecture (what is, however, the fact) that her work was of a far higher grade than any that has as yet been achieved by any American mathematician, astronomers possibly excepted; or that among Russians, who have not been deficient in the cultivation of mathematics, there have been only two who rank distinctly higher than she. As to her lecturing more effectively when in the inspiring presence of a sympathetic listener who is at the same time a master of the subject, I fancy that few who have ever lectured upon mathematics will find it necessary to ascribe this phenomenon to any peculiarity of sex.

As regards «the conclusion of the whole matter,» in the second paragraph above quoted, is it not based upon obviously and almost grotesquely insufficient grounds? Are we to understand that the possession of a «feminine heart» usually carries with it such consuming intensity of passion as was evinced when Sonya, in her childhood, «bit Olya's fat little arm until it bled, out of pure jealousy»? Or is it ordinarily the case with feminine hearts, at the age of thirteen, that their «fervent adoration» can be secured upon «the frail foundation of a bit of egregious flattery,» to quote Miss Hapgood's account of the Dostoevsky incident? Evidently Sonya Kovalevsky's moral and emotional nature was even more different from that of the average American or western European woman than were her intellectual endowments; and to base any general conclusion as to the fate of women who have «a masculine head united to a feminine heart» upon her experience is the height of rashness. It happens, too, that we have the record of the life of a woman with just this combination of attributes; but the sober British blood ran in her veins, and she grew up in the tranquil atmosphere of English life, not in the midst of the fierce revolts, the enthusiastic aspirations, the undisciplined imaginings of young Russia thirty years ago. It is true that Mary Somerville never attained distinction at all equal to Kovalevsky's; but when we compare her total want of proper instruction with Kovalevsky's privilege of studying under the greatest mathematical master of his time, it is difficult to assert that the Englishwoman was not capable of equal achievement. In any case, in spite of her disadvantages, she showed mathematical ability which was recognized by the greatest men of her time, though she made no positive contribution to mathematical knowledge; and it is certainly putting it very mildly to say that she had a «masculine mind» of a very high order. But she was an excellent wife and a model mother, and her life was one of the happiest and most lovely, as well as one of the busiest, of which I have any knowledge. Mathematics or no mathematics, man or woman, the human being of extremely high-strung nature, full of poetry and passion and ambition, is apt to have a thorny passage through this world arranged for every-day people; and those who would rather judge wisely than quickly will not infer much as to the fate of future Mrs. Somervilles from the history of Sonya Kovalevsky.

Fabian Franklin.

Titian's "Flora."[1]

THE so-called «Flora» of Titian, hanging in the second Venetian room of the Uffizi Gallery in Florence, usually has a small group of tourists gathered about it, probably because, as the catalogue tells us, it is «a splendid figure» and «one of the most admired paintings of Titian.» Certainly this robust young woman, with flowing hair caught back by a silken cord, one hand holding the light clothing slipping from her shoulders, the other hand extending flowers to an unseen person, is an attractive creature. She has the attraction of personal charm and loveliness, and to those of romantic mind she is doubly interesting for the mystery of her history.

Titian painted the picture about 1520; it belonged at one time to Don Alfonso Lopez, then it disappeared in the store-rooms of the palace at Florence, where it was not found again until 1793. At that time all record of the painter and the painted had been lost. Short-sighted critics said that the work was by Palma Vecchio; then, when Titian was credited with the picture, it was said that the subject at least was Palmesque, because it was Palma's daughter, Violante, with whom Titian was in love. That tradition still obtains about the picture, but unfortunately there is a stubborn fact in the way of its acceptance. Palma never had a daughter. The other guesses at the young woman's identity are highly problematical, not to say unfounded. There is no reason to believe that the picture represents the Duchess of Urbino, or Laura Dianti, wife of the Duke of Ferrara, or any other person than a beautiful Venetian model—perhaps one of the Muses of Aretino. The face appears frequently in Titian's figure pictures, and it was used by Palma more than once, which has led to some confusion over the pictures of the two men. For example, it is shown in the «Bella di Tiziano» of the Sciarra-Colonna Gallery, but the picture (attributed to Titian) was painted by Palma. Contemporaries and fellow-students, probably both painted from the same model.

The beautiful Venetian was a type that appealed to Titian as the «Mona Lisa» to Leonardo and the «Fornarina» to Raphael. The Uffizi picture is simply a variation of the type—a picture of Venetian loveliness rather than an accurate portrait of an individual. In that respect it is a striking illustration of the Venetian as opposed to the Florentine ideal. There is nothing religious,

[1] See page 264.

mystic, psychologic, or austere about the face of the «Flora», as about the female faces of, say, Filippino, Botticelli, Leonardo, and Michelangelo. It is radiant with life, luxurious in its fullness of material beauty, noble in its physical perfection. That was the Venetian conception of beauty in art. It would have no mystery, no solemnity, no great intellectuality. The things of this earth and the beauty thereof were carried through all Venetian art, and nowhere more emphatically than in the works of Titian. This Venetian ideal may be thought lacking in loftiness, but is it? Look at the «Flora» again, and say if either the type or the art is open to reproach. The nobility of the spiritual, yes; but why not the nobility of the natural too?

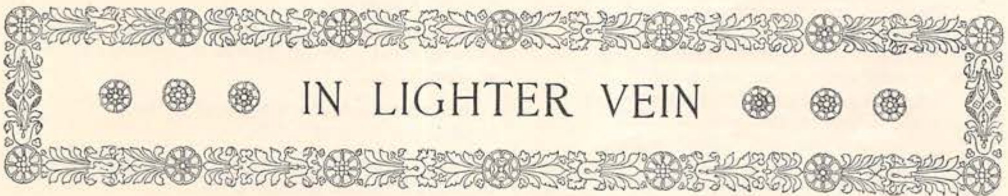
The face of the «Flora» is of great purity in its lines, the drawing of the eyes, nose, mouth, and the oval of the cheeks being of surprising delicacy and charm. There is, too, great grace in the inclination of the head, the sway of the figure, the fall of the hair, the rhythm of the drapery—the hands breaking the folds into circles to offset the sweeping lines about the neck and shoulders. The light is clear, the shadow meager, the color quite as delicate as the drawing, with an indescribable violet tone running through it all. This delicacy of rendering, corresponding to the subject in hand, Titian thought to complement, not by lightness of tone and color merely, but by lightness of touch. The handling is careful, the brush thin, the modeling a trifle frail. Titian neither designed, nor can he be held responsible for, the present smoothness of the canvas. There is in every large public gallery a picture Inferno called the «cleaning-room,» where pictures are flayed of their surfaces that they may always look bright for the passing public. Titian's «Flora» has been in the cleaning-room more than once. It has suffered therefrom, like the «Mona Lisa» of Leonardo, but the virile beauty of each still breathes from the canvas to provoke present-day admiration.

John C. Van Dyke.

Notes.

TOM KEATS'S DEATH: In the article on «Keats in Hampstead» in the October number, in part of the edition, the death of Tom Keats was referred to as having taken place during the poet's absence in Scotland, the fact being that Keats was not only with his brother during his last days, but tenderly nursed him. For this error the author of the article was in no way responsible.

LONGFELLOW'S MARRIAGE: The title of the cut on page 558 of the August number should have been, «House in Pittsfield where Longfellow married his second wife» (instead of «his first wife»). The poet's first marriage took place in Portland, Maine.



IN LIGHTER VEIN

Caught.

As «friend»—'t was thus she forged the fetter
  For heart that never more is free.
She locked it—Love was her abettor—
  And gaily threw away the key.

But ha! aha! I often twit her—
  Contrivancing my heart to twine,
That pranky Cupid, with a titter,
  Had fettered hers along with mine.

Ansel Brewster Cook.

In Days Gone By.

(RONDEAU REDOUBLÉ.)

In days gone by, when you were here,
  I little heeded what you said;
I watched the skies above me clear,
  I listened to the thrush instead.

To this same spot my feet are led
  By thoughts of you another year.
The selfsame pine-trees rose o'erhead
  In days gone by, when you were here.

Their slender forms to-day they rear
  Aloft in the same beauty spread;
But ah! the thrush's song I fear!—
  I little heeded what you said.

And now, as starving man for bread,
  I 'd spring to catch one word of cheer;
Yet when with love my heart you fed
  I watched the skies above me clear.

Once more on the same pine-leaves sear
  And fragrant 'neath the summer's tread,
I lie and think, with many a tear,
  «I listened to the thrush instead!»

I listened to the thrush instead.
  Ah! might I now one accent hear
Of that loved voice forever fled!—
  I knew not that you were so dear
    In days gone by!

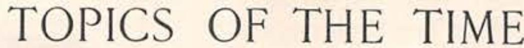
Lilla Cabot Perry.

An Outline.

A MAN had an enemy whom he hated. Every day he passed by his enemy's gate, and every day a child stood at the gate. And the man hated the child because she was the child of his enemy. And every day the child stood at the gate.

But one day the man saw that it was not a child, but a woman, who stood at the gate. And his hate for her vanished in that moment. And his hate for his enemy, her father, was gone as though it had never been.

Berry Benson.



TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Jubilee of the New South.

NO patriotic American could have read the reports of the opening exercises of the Atlanta Exposition last September without feeling a thrill of joy run through his veins. It was the formal birth of the new South, founded on free labor, and the burial forever of the old South and negro slavery. The free negro was not only represented in the exposition by a department filled with the evidences of the progress which he has made as a freeman, but by an orator of his own race,[1] who spoke from the same platform with white men and women, and spoke with such lofty and impassioned eloquence as to arouse the assembled «beauty and chivalry» of the South to a perfect tumult of enthusiasm and delight. His color was forgotten, and the race which had been his oppressor avowed itself not merely his equal, but his hearty and frank admirer.

This was a demonstration the making of which alone would have justified the holding of a great exposition. It showed that slowly but surely the negro is making progress not only in moral, intellectual, and material condition, but in the esteem of Southern white people. The position which the managers of the exposition assigned him in it was evidence in the same direction. They gave his race a building for itself, and encouraged the filling of it with his handiwork. This was, we are glad to be assured by experienced observers, symptomatic of what is going on all over the South. The negro is coming more and more to be recognized as a desirable economic factor in the development of the new South. His labor is sought in many fields of industry, instead of being despised and rejected, as it was a few years ago, and is winning for itself the right to be considered as the equal of other labor. The day is not far distant in the South when the negro will be judged not by his color, but by what he can do.

The Atlanta Exposition will stand as the jubilee of the new South—a South of industrial development and agricultural progress. While not pretending to be of international dimensions, it will rank as a great exposition. Its beauty of location and surroundings has been rivaled only by the Chicago Exposition. Its Government exhibit has rarely or never been surpassed; and its forestry exhibit, occupying a separate building, with its wonderful collection of minerals and timber, has been equaled by nothing of the kind previously made. The new industrial South is revealed in the great variety of small industries exhibited, as well as in the space devoted to cotton manufacture. Everywhere is felt the spirit of a new time. The people are joyous and confident, and are proud of the proof they are offering that they are now enrolled in the ranks of the industrious and prosperous of the land.

Surely there is in all this great cause for national rejoicing. If the negro problem, which since the war has constituted the darkest cloud hanging over the nation, is to be solved in a way so just and beneficent, there is nothing left for the South to fear. All else in the way of progress will be trifles. Of course only the beginning has been made, but the nature of it is so unmistakable that it is only a question of time when success, complete and lasting, shall be achieved.

[1] Mr. Booker T. Washington. For an account of his work at Tuskegee, see THE CENTURY for September, 1895, p. 797.

Encouraging Developments in College Life.

IT was encouraging to note at the opening of the present college year that, one after another, nearly all the colleges in the United States announced that the incoming class was the largest in the history of the institution. This was notably the case with the smaller colleges, some of which will have this year double the number of students that were within their walls a quarter of a century ago. With all allowance for the factitious attractions of college life, the thirst for knowledge is clearly not diminishing among the youth of the land. This is an omen of hope for the future, for nothing can contribute more to our progress as a people than a steady growth in the number of our educated men.

That our colleges are becoming better qualified each year to fit young men to be useful citizens cannot be doubted. The standard of admission is much higher than formerly, the teaching corps is not only much larger, but covers a far wider field of knowledge and investigation; and while the multiplication of special courses and the extension of the elective system may give additional facilities for merely «getting through college,» still, for the youth of to-day who is earnestly in search of higher education the colleges undoubtedly furnish advantages superior to any which have hitherto existed in this country. They are, in fact, justifying what James Bryce said of them in the «American Commonwealth» six years ago:

> Of all the institutions of the country they are those which seem to be at this moment making the swiftest progress, and to have the brightest promise for the future; they are supplying exactly those things which European critics have hitherto found lacking to America; and they are contributing to her political as well as to her contemplative life elements of inestimable worth.

Even the so-called «craze» for athletics has had its good effects. It has convinced many people who had not given much thought to the subject before, that if athletics carried to an extreme produced undesirable and even pernicious results, a moderate and systematic indulgence in them would be decidedly beneficial. In creating an abnormal and disproportionate admiration for the leaders in foot-ball and other sports, the craze has

spread among the undergraduates a desire to appear and to be as robust and strong as possible, which has led naturally to more outdoor and other physical exercise. We have no doubt that the craze has touched its highest point, and is now subsiding. One by one the colleges are regulating athletic sports, and they are not only confining them within narrower limits, so far as contests among the colleges are concerned, but are striving to have a larger number of the students take part in them. A president of a New England college, who has succeeded in thus including virtually the whole body of his students, says that one of the first results noted of the general participation in athletic exercise was a falling off in the annual bills for the breaking of windows and other injuries to the college property. The boys must work off their superfluous energy in some way, and if sports were not within their reach, windows or doors would be smashed, or fences demolished. There has been a noticeable lapsing of «hazing» during the last few years, and this is directly traceable to the more manly spirit which athletic sports have introduced. It is no longer considered to be a brave thing for a squad of ten or more boys to fall foul of a single freshman, make him sing and dance, and subject him to various other indignities. The general and indignant condemnation which sporadic outbreaks of the old brutality call forth on every hand bears testimony to the new order of things.

This more manly spirit is felt also to greater effect each year in the field of college morality. It is considered very bad form for a student to get drunk or to be «tough.» In the old times such men were too often regarded as college heroes; a man who was brilliant was expected to be more or less dissipated. Nowadays a student who drinks heavily, or who is notoriously immoral, is looked down upon as disgracing his college, and soon becomes an outcast in the college world. Another development of manliness scarcely less beneficent in character is the position which the students in many colleges have taken toward the offense of «cribbing» in examinations. The college authorities have thrown the responsibility of maintaining student honor in this respect squarely upon the students themselves, by leaving them alone together in examinations, with no supervision or restraint of any kind, except the obligation of honor to see to it that no student receives aid from any other. The students have justified this faith by repudiating and reporting the names of the very few of their number who proved unworthy of confidence.

There could be no more encouraging development in college life than this spirit of true manliness. Nothing could better fit a boy for the trials, temptations, and burdens of life than to pass four years of his formative period in an atmosphere of this bracing kind. No parent need fear to trust his son in a college in which this is the prevailing atmosphere. The overpowering distinction of great wealth, which penetrates even to the college grounds, cannot prevail against this. If true manliness be the supreme test, then the poor boy will stand on an equal footing with the rich in the eyes of his fellow-students, and if his abilities place him in the first rank, he will hold his place undisputed. This is the only spirit which can overcome the mere money distinction which is leading in some of our colleges to the founding of luxurious dormitories which can be used by the sons of rich men alone.

As a matter of fact, we believe there is not a college in the country in which a poor boy by his talents cannot command a higher respect than money can give him. It is also a fact that a poor boy can «work his way through college» now—even through the largest and most expensive ones—as easily as ever he could. If the expenses are greater than formerly, the opportunities for earning money are greater. In every college the boy who does this is respected, provided he has the qualities of general character which command respect everywhere. It would be a great pity if this were not the case, for it has been the glory of the American college system that it places a liberal education within the reach of every boy who has the pluck and ability to exert himself to obtain it. The small colleges, planted all over the land, almost at the doors of farm-houses and workshops, have been the most useful feeders of its educated class which any great nation has possessed. It is most encouraging to know that these institutions are growing more powerful year by year, and are exerting their enlightening influence over continually widening circles. What this nation needs above all else are respect for and willingness to profit by the results of human experience in the world, and these can come only through education. Whenever a college sends a thoroughly trained mind into a community it despatches a missionary of this gospel, and he begins a work of reformation which never stops. With their present facilities and tendencies our colleges are sending out each year a great army of these men, whose qualifications and character, we are glad to believe, are improving steadily with time. So long as this continues to be the case, no man need be anxious about the future of the Republic.

New Corrupt Practice Laws.

IN this country, for obvious reasons, progress in the enactment of corrupt practice laws is slow. Our legislatures are controlled by men whose political welfare would be seriously injured by thoroughgoing laws of this kind. Every political boss scents danger in a statute which limits the expenditure of money in elections, and compels a public accounting for every dollar received or spent either in an election, primary, or nominating convention. All the men whom he has caused to be elected to the legislature fear such a law as much as he does, for if it were to be enforced it would reveal the exact sums which he had contributed to their nomination and election, and thus show to the people exactly what it had cost him to «own» them. His business would be ruined, and his creatures would be driven out of political life to make room for legislators who would serve the people, and not a boss.

Every year since the passage of the present corrupt practice law of New York State in 1890, efforts have been made to have it so amended that it would be of service in exposing and restricting the use of money in elections. As it stands it requires sworn publication after election of all expenditures by candidates, but makes no such requirement of campaign committees. Again and again has an amendment to include the committees been proposed in the legislature, but both

Democratic and Republican legislatures have refused to pass it. Last winter Governor Morton, in his first message, strongly recommended the adoption of such an amendment; but although several bills were presented in the legislature embodying that and other most desirable changes, the legislature voted them all down. There were two strong, comprehensive, and very carefully drawn corrupt practice acts, designed to take the place of the State's practically useless one, but both were rejected with shouts of derision by the lower house of the legislature.

The only new acts of the last legislative year were those of Minnesota and Connecticut. These two swell the number of corrupt practice acts to ten, in the following States: California, Colorado, Connecticut, Indiana, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, and New York. All these laws, except the two of last year, have been discussed by us as they have been enacted from time to time. As our readers may remember, we have shown that the two most thorough-going of the series are those of California and Missouri. The poorest are those of New York, Indiana, and Michigan, which are very inadequate. Those of Kansas, Colorado, and Massachusetts are fairly good, and are moderately successful in practice. Of the two new laws, that of Minnesota is much the better. It is, in fact, second only to the California and Missouri laws in merit, following closely upon the latter in most of its provisions. It requires sworn publication after election by both candidates and committees, and places maximum limits to expenditures by all candidates.

The Connecticut law is of very little account. When it was first introduced in the legislature it was a very good measure, fixing limits to expenditures, and decreeing loss of office to successful candidates convicted of violating its provisions. As passed, it fixes no limits, fines instead of removes from office the guilty candidate, and requires sworn publication after election by both candidates and committees. Like the Massachusetts and other laws which require such publication, the Connecticut statute is likely to be of use only in giving a certain amount of publicity to the amounts of money spent. There is no machinery for enforcing the law, and it is made nobody's business to enforce it, and at its first trial it was ignored with impunity by many of the candidates.

We wish we were able to say that there are signs of a growing popular interest in this most important subject, but few are visible. Indeed, in those States in which sufficient interest has been aroused to secure the passage of corrupt practice laws there has not been enough public sentiment in their support to compel their enforcement. In California the law is a dead letter on the statute-books. The politicians either treat it as a joke or ignore it entirely, and nobody calls them to account for it. In Missouri there is a somewhat better condition of affairs. The provisions of the law are moderately well enforced, but to nothing like the extent that they should be. The New York law, poor as it is, is openly defied, and nobody pays attention to the falsehoods and evasions committed under it. There is too often a disposition to take a jocose view of such proceedings. The Massachusetts law, for example, requires the publication of the names of all contributors to the State campaign funds. In the last Presidential election several heavy contributors in both parties evaded this provision by sending their offerings to the national campaign committees in New York, and having them returned to the Massachusetts committees as contributions from the national committees. This was regarded as a «good joke» on the law.

The trouble is that as a people we have not yet begun to realize the evils which flow from the excessive use of money in elections. We are too ready to explain it away by saying that so long as one party has a large fund, the other must have one or be defeated, and that not so much harm is done, after all, since you cannot expect to get work done and arouse enthusiasm without spending money. If we stopped at reasonable expenditure, this defense would be adequate; but the mischief of it is that we never do. On the contrary, as the campaign advances and excitement increases, nearly everybody loses temporarily his moral sense and becomes eager for the use of money to any extent and in almost any form for the sake of winning. The opposite party at the close of a campaign becomes a monster of such hideous mien that the wholesale bribery of voters to keep it from getting into power becomes a moral act in which all good men should join! We shall not get good corrupt practice laws and have them enforced till the public conscience becomes incapable of lapses like these. Sooner or later that time will come, for the American people are honest at heart, and need only to realize a danger or a defect in their political methods in order to set about its removal.

Daniel Webster on Turkish Oppression.

It is a significant comment on the sluggishness of affairs in Turkey that with the substitution of the word «Armenian» for «Greek» the great speech of Daniel Webster on the Greek revolution, delivered in the House of Representatives on the 19th of January, 1823, would virtually stand for a description of the condition of things in eastern Turkey at the present day. Mr. Webster's speech was not wholly occupied with the discussion of the character of the Turks, but so far as it relates to that phase of the subject, it presents a curious correspondence to the paper by Prof. James Bryce published in The Century for November. The significance lies in the fact that what was true of the tyranny and the barbarism of the Turkish government seventy-three years ago has to-day lost none of its accuracy.

Mr. Webster was not of those who felt that the United States was not in any way concerned with the mistreatment of a Christian population by a so-called semi-civilized power, and when we consider that our interests in Turkey are made still more vital by the necessity of defending the lives and property of American citizens, there would seem to be ample occasion as well as precedent for the vigorous policy which has been undertaken by the United States government.

Mr. Webster's voice, if we mistake not, was the first to be raised in the Congress of the United States in behalf of the oppressed Greeks, and he went to the heart of the matter in the following passage:

« ‹The Turk,› it has been said, ‹has been *encamped*

in Europe for four centuries.) He has hardly any more participation in European manners, knowledge, and arts than when he crossed the Bosphorus. But this is not the worst of it. The power of the empire is fallen into anarchy, and as the principle which belongs to the head belongs also to the parts, there are as many despots as there are pachas, beys, and visiers. Wars are almost perpetual between the Sultan and some rebellious governor of a province; and in the conflict of these despotisms the people are necessarily ground between the upper and the nether millstone. In short, the Christian subjects of the Sublime Porte feel daily all the miseries which flow from despotism, from anarchy, from slavery, and from religious persecution. . . . There exists, and has existed, nothing like it. The world has no such misery to show; there is no case in which Christian communities can be called upon with such emphasis of appeal.»

When it is remembered that this system of barbarism has existed, and still exists, by the sufferance of the European powers, it is an indication of progress that the Christian world has come to the end of its patience, not only with this abomination, but with the way it has been sustained.

OPEN LETTERS

The Eastern Question and Questions.

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW.

IT is increasingly evident to the Christian world that the Turkish empire is rapidly crumbling, and even the Sultan himself must feel that it will not be long before it has either entirely disappeared, or has shrunk to the dimensions of an Asia Minor kingdom scarcely the size of the Seljuk domain. Certainly at no previous time has there been such a general attack upon the integrity and independence of the Ottoman empire. Whether Lord Salisbury told Rustem Pasha in so many words that further refusal to accept the plan of reforms would involve the dismemberment of the empire is of little importance. The English premier is not given to ill-considered speech, and his words in Parliament, followed by his speech at the Guildhall banquet, could mean nothing less than those plainer expressions attributed to him in private conversation. Not less significant are the indications of a concerted plan on the part of the Mohammedans of India to unite with Arabia in the recognition of a calif who shall restore the true succession, so arrogantly appropriated by the Tatar chieftains from beyond the Caspian. If this culminates, the last prop to Turkish pride as the defender of Islam will be gone, and the Sultan become no more than a sheik.

The world is thus brought face to face with the solution of the famous Eastern Question, a problem which has vexed and perplexed the diplomats of Europe for a full century. Just what that solution is to be is as yet hidden in the counsels of a very few men, if, indeed, it has taken complete shape even with them. There are many elements in its present form which were unknown —perhaps unthought of—a half or even a quarter of a century ago. Some of them simplify it, some render it more complex and difficult.

Up to the Treaty of Paris, and for some years after, the question was chiefly as to the occupancy of Constantinople and the control of the Bosporus and the Dardanelles, and there were practically but two sides, the Russian and the European. In the Crimean war France fought cordially with England against Russia, simply because all alike dreaded the appearance of Russian fleets in the Mediterranean. The unanimous feeling was that no southern European coast would be safe if those straits were once thrown open to the great power of the North. Magenta and Solferino, Gravelotte and Sedan, changed the situation, and France has come to think that Russia may be a positive help rather than a danger. England, too, is apparently giving up the idea that it is necessary for her peace to coop Russia up in the Black Sea, and there seems to be a general consensus that while Russia should not be allowed to make that sea an inland lake, she may claim untrammeled passage to the markets of the world. As to Russia herself, she keeps her own counsel, as she always has done; but it seems probable that she has come to the conviction that this free passage will bring internal development of far greater value than the actual ownership of the straits at the expense of constant political unrest, not to say danger. So far as these three powers and their relation to Constantinople are concerned, the question is undoubtedly simpler. The Turkish capital would be made a free city, and the straits put under international guaranties.

Other elements, however, have come in, and other interests must be considered. There is, first, the Balkan peninsula, with its curious congeries of semi-independent states, each anxious to keep up a national existence with its concomitants of political influence and territorial expansion, and each liable at any moment to fall a prey to any one of the surrounding greater states. For a time it seemed as though Bulgaria was going to develop into the coming southeastern state of the Continent, but her most enthusiastic friends are hiding their heads in shame and discouragement. Greece has long been out of the race. Bosnia and Herzegovina have yielded to Austria, and Servia would be glad to do so to-morrow if Francis Joseph would but open the door. The sturdy men of Montenegro are trying to flatter themselves with an occasional sop from St. Petersburg, but not even a Kara George can stay the movement when it is once under way. Rumania alone seems to have any staying power, but that is probably due to the innate hostility between her Latins and the surrounding Slavs and Magyars.

What is to become of all these? Were it possible to unite them into one coherent mass under a centralized government, England, Germany, and perhaps Russia would be glad, even though it should involve the further postponement of the Panslavic ideal. That, however, is impossible. Shall Austria be allowed to extend herself indefinitely to the southeast? She would be glad to hold Saloniki and the rich valley of the Vardar; but whether her associates in the Triple Alliance would cordially assent may be doubted, although Italy might be appeased by the gift of Trieste—an easy thing for Austria, since she would still hold Fiume. On the other hand, Austria would scarcely care to add the Bulgarians to her already heterogeneous collection of subjects, especially as both Magyars and Germans would object to the possible reinforcement of Czech obstreperousness. Can Bulgaria be bolstered and educated into a kingdom, either alone or welded together with Servia, by some sort of diplomatic pressure? If so, how much of Macedonia fairly belongs to her? Can Albania, with its sturdy descendants of the Castriots, be safely committed to the rival followers of the Greek leaders, Trikoupis and Delyannis? These are some of the questions that come up the moment any plan for a general division of the Balkan peninsula is up for discussion.

Crossing into Asia Minor, the situation is even more perplexing. Here there is a dominant race, strongest not merely in numbers, but in force—a race, however, which absolutely cannot be intrusted with rule over any other race. There are only two ways in which a country can be governed with any success—by the strongest inhabiting race or by external power. The inhabiting race may be strong either in numbers or in force of character, but strongest it must be in some way. As a matter of fact, there is no race, or possible combination of races, in Asia Minor that is not overbalanced by the Turks both in numbers and in force of character. Were it possible to unite Armenians and Greeks, they might accomplish something; but racial and ecclesiastical jealousies absolutely forbid that. The other Christian populations need not be taken into the account at all. The question, then, lies between the continued rule of the Turk and foreign occupation. For some time it was thought that the Sultan might continue to rule in a contracted territory, with his capital at Brusa or Konieh. The events of the last few months, however, have pretty thoroughly dispelled that idea, and it appears as if the absolute overthrow of the Ottoman government would be necessary. In that case there must be foreign occupation. By whom? The first answer would undoubtedly be, Russia. This, however, would satisfy nobody. It would quench forever any hope of the development of either Armenian or Greek national life, and it would arouse the jealousy of all southern Europe; for the power that holds western Asia Minor and the archipelago dominates the Mediterranean and northern Africa. Greece and Italy would be at her mercy, and the Suez Canal be practically in her hands. Ambitious as Russia is, and attractive as such a position would be, if available, it is scarcely probable that the Czar would undertake it now. The expense of the civil and military administration of a thoroughly and intelligently hostile country of that size would be enormous, and strain her finances to the breaking-point; and the perplexities introduced would be so burdensome as to hamper, if not absolutely prevent, the development of her internal resources. The suggestion has been made lately that France be the occupying power. This would certainly be more acceptable to the Armenians and probably even to the Greeks, who, however much they may enjoy the Czar's protection against the Turk, have no liking for his autocratic rule. Germany, too, might favor it in the hope that it would help to weaken the French passion for the *revanche*.

Aside from Asia Minor, there are questions of more or less difficulty concerning Syria, Egypt, Palestine, Arabia, and Mesopotamia. Ever since the Druse massacres France has held Syria as her special field of influence, as England has occupied Egypt; and there would probably be little difficulty in making her virtual protectorate actual but for the fact that naturally Palestine goes with Syria, and it is scarcely probable that the Greek Church would willingly see Jerusalem and the holy places come under Roman Catholic influence. What shall be done with Jerusalem is a problem scarcely less difficult than that presented by Constantinople. The Egyptian question is too well known to need more than the statement that any solution which would guarantee to England the safety of transit through the Suez Canal would probably be acceptable to her. Arabia the powers can well afford to leave alone for the present. There is little probability that the mutually hostile Bedouin tribes will unite in any such way as to endanger their neighbors. Mesopotamia offers certain difficulties. The oppression which has forced the Armenians into such prominence bears with almost equal severity upon the Jacobites, Chaldeans, Yezidis, and other non-Moslem races and sects, and even upon the agricultural Kurds of the regions of Suleimanieh and Kerkuk. At present there is no rule of any kind worth the name from Jezireh to Bassorah. The most important foreign interests are connected with the Catholic missions holding Mosul as their chief center, and under French protection, and the general Russian interest in keeping a way open to the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. Turkey being eliminated, to which of these shall the rich Tigris and Euphrates valleys belong, with the railways which will surely connect the eastern Mediterranean with the Indian Ocean, and possibly revive the commercial importance of Antioch and Bagdad? Here, however, the suggestion that France occupy Asia Minor comes in as a disturbing factor. To make her mistress of practically the whole, certainly the best part, of the Sultan's dominion, would be to give her at no distant day, if not at present, a power and prestige to which all her neighbors would undoubtedly seriously object.

It becomes, thus, very evident that the Eastern Question, which was originally a simple trial of strength, chiefly diplomatic, between Russia and the rest of Europe, has become a most complicated series of questions, involving racial and commercial as well as political interests. What the solution will be it is premature to say. That the leaders are most seriously considering it is certain, and there are indications of a general agreement along certain lines. These are the entire overthrow of the Ottoman dynasty, and its replacement by some European government or governments. Austrian influence will be predominant in the Balkan

peninsula, though Greece and Bulgaria will be somewhat enlarged and given another opportunity for national development, with the assurance that, unless they improve it better than they have those hitherto given, their ultimate absorption will be inevitable. Constantinople, with the Bosporus and Dardanelles, and a small territory on each side of the Sea of Marmora, will be made free territory, with some sort of government under international guaranties. Eastern Turkey will be added to Russian territory, and Russia will find a path to the Indian Ocean, though whether through Persia or Mesopotamia will depend very largely upon what terms can be arranged in regard to Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt. It is scarcely possible that any of the rival Christian churches can secure full control of Jerusalem, and we may again see a principality of Judea. The Khalifa may find a potent rival in a new calif with his residence at Mecca, and the famous mosque school of Cairo may find its occupation of railing at English oppression of Islam gone. Of course these are mere surmises, which to some may seem utterly improbable. The cabinets at London, St. Petersburg, and Berlin, however, are dominated by positive, venturesome men—men, too, who are tired of much of the bickering of the last half-century, and would be glad to see the new one come in with a better mutual understanding and larger opportunities for peaceful development. There are many indications of their accomplishing this desire, and some who are in a position to surmise correctly intimate that the agreement will be substantially as outlined above. It may be deferred for a time by yielding on the part of the Sultan; but sooner or later he will find himself in a position where no yielding in form will secure obedience on the part of turbulent Kurds, Circassians, and even Turks. Then stronger hands will be compelled to take hold of the problem, and some solution, prompt as well as complete, will be necessitated.

Edwin Munsell Bliss.

Advice to a Young Lawyer.

WEBSTER, CALHOUN, AND WILLIAM WIRT ON COURSES OF LEGAL STUDY.

In a valuable package of letters which has just been found in a forgotten desk in a Washington garret, among other literary treasures in the shape of letters from James Madison, Josiah Quincy, Jared Sparks, Jefferson Davis, Chief Justice Taney, and others, are certain letters from Webster, Calhoun, Wirt, and B. W. Leigh which possess a peculiar interest for lawyers and for students of jurisprudence. They were elicited by a member of the family, two generations ago, who requested the views of these eminent men on the best course of study for one who wished to prepare himself for the legal profession. The list of studies referred to in Daniel Webster's reply has disappeared, but the letter contains a thoroughly «Websterian» expression on the relation between the lawyer and the Republic, which deserves to rank with the famous utterances of «the great expounder.» The emphasis which Calhoun lays on the close study of particular cases in actual practice will recommend his letter to thorough lawyers of every age. Mr. Wirt's more detailed suggestions come with the great weight of his authority, and illustrate the profound wisdom of their writer. The letters, arranged chronologically, are as follows:

WASHINGTON, July 22, 1822.

SIR: I regret extremely that I have to answer your very polite and obliging letter of the 3d inst. *currente calamo.* It arrived while I was absent on a professional tour, and I have returned only in time to equip myself for an expedition to the Bedford Springs in Pennsylvania, rendered necessary by the state of my health.

It is not entirely certain whether I shall myself be a resident of this place at the close of the next winter, the earliest period at which you speak of being here. I have some thought of moving to Baltimore before that time. In this uncertainty I can only say that if I should be here and your inclination hold, I shall be very willing to receive you as a student and to assist you with my opinion in the direction of your studies.

The plan of study which I have used has depended on the time which the student proposes to devote to it. For every plan, however, Blackstone is the best introductory author, as opening to the student all the original sources of his science, besides giving him a clear and comprehensive view of its present state. In all studies, historical, political, or any other dependent for their perfection on the march of mind, a synopsis like that of Blackstone is of great value. Geography, for example, is best taught by stamping, in the first place, on the mind the great outlines of the different countries and their relative position towards each other. The details are afterwards encountered with more intelligence, and consequently with more enjoyment; for the student at every step knows, afterwards, of his whereabout with relation to the whole, and is in no danger of being bewildered or confounded by the apprehension of interminable labor or inextricable labyrinths. So it is with the law. Blackstone, therefore, thoroughly understood (the best edition being Judge Maher's, to be used with his notes and appendixes), I direct the attention of the students in the next place to the great sources from which all the laws of civilized countries are derived, and take them through the following course, which is enlarged or contracted in proportion to the time they have to bestow on their preparatory studies: 1. The law of nature and nations—Rutherforth; and, if there be time, Grotius and Vattel. 2. The Roman civil law—Brown's lectures; and, if time, the references in the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, as they are made by Brown, and Huber's prelections. 3. The Common Law—Bacon's Abridgment, as the text-book, read with the references. 4. The Statute Law and State Decisions of the residence and contemplated place of practice of the student. This course, particularly the latter part of it, should be combined with a regular attendance on the rules of court in some well-kept clerk's office, with the advantage of drawing declarations and pleadings in the office of some regular and extensive practitioner,—with the study of Chitty's Pleadings—and Espinasse's *Nisi Prius;* which should be familiar to the student.

I have said nothing of historical studies, belles lettres, composition, reciting paragraphs from poets, and debating, though I deem them all essential in the preparation of an accomplished advocate. Regular days should be set for composition, and the compositions should be submitted to the best critic of whom you can make a *friend.* You should enflame your emulation by the frequent study of Cicero's Orator, and of his Brutus above all, and imagine yourself to belong to that splendid galaxy of Roman orators which he there displays. Quintilian's Institutes, too, should be thoroughly studied, and the dialogue *de causis corruptæ eloquentiæ*, the work, I believe, of the same author, but which has been incorrectly published with the works of Tacitus. The letters of Pliny the younger, especially those to Tacitus, with the orations of Demosthenes, Cicero, Erskine, and Lord Chatham. I do not mean that these should be read merely, but that they should be studied and analyzed according to the model which Mr. Blair has furnished of Cicero's Action for Cluentius. These exercises, with a debating society under the direction of an experienced man of vigorous intellect and correct taste, accompanying your law course, will diversify your employments most agreeably and usefully, and recreate and cheer you on your ascent up

the arduous steep which leads to the temple of the goddess you so properly worship.

I beg you to excuse this scrawl, the effect of haste, and believe me, with warmest wishes for your success, your obedient servant, WM. WIRT.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 18, 1823.

To THOS. J. JOHNSTON, Esq.

SIR: Before I left home I received yours of the 21st of November, in which you very flatteringly asked my opinion on some subjects connected with professional studies. It is unfortunate for you, my friend, that you are your own solicitor in this case, since your manner of asking for that which you say you need shows that you do not need it. It is quite obvious that you have both employed your own thoughts and had the benefit of those of others on the subjects about which you write.

I shall only venture to enclose you a copy of a paper exhibiting a course of study which has been generally pursued by students under my care. It is substantially, I think, a good course, and if it shall suggest anything useful to you I shall be very glad. Our profession, my friend, is a noble profession, and our country, more than all others, favorable to its respectability and advancement. Free institutions afford the atmosphere and aliment for good lawyers, and good lawyers have proved themselves in all times and all countries the most strenuous, as well as the most intelligent, supporters of free institutions. Let us all endeavor to requite our country for the blessings she bestows upon us. Yours, etc., DANL. WEBSTER.

WASHINGTON, 20th March, 1836.

DEAR SIR: It at all times affords me much pleasure to render any aid to youths seeking information and improvement, and I only regret my incompetency to advise your young friend on a general course of reading on law and jurisprudence. I remained only two years at the bar, and have not read a law book in twenty-five years, so that I am far in the rear of the profession as it now stands. But I would say to your young friend, study attentively all the best elementary treatises, be assiduous in his attendance in court, and attentive to the routine of office. He will, of course, make himself master of the particular laws of the State where he intends to practice. But no previous attention can supercede the necessity of the minutest and closest attention to the cases he may undertake, after he is admitted to practice, both as to the facts and law. On this point the success of a lawyer mainly depends. The study of particular cases is better calculated than anything else to give full and accurate legal knowledge.

As to history, he will, of course, study all the ancient classics, to be followed by Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, to which the history of England and that of our own country ought to succeed. Both ought not only to be read, but studied. Add to these some good general history, and a foundation will be laid which may be built on from time to time by reading at leisure the histories of the more celebrated states of modern times. With respect, I am,

J. C. CALHOUN.

THOS. J. JOHNSTON, Esq.

The date of Mr. Calhoun's letter, it will be noticed, is some years later than that of the others, and it was probably called forth by the needs of a younger friend of the recipient.

In addition to these expressions is a letter from ex-Senator B. W. Leigh of Virginia, giving in detail a course of studies in law, history, politics, and literature, which is interesting, though it traverses ground which is familiar to most students, being, as he says himself, « general and elementary.» Senator Leigh, however, proceeds to speak as follows of the value of the Bible to a lawyer:

I advise every man to read the Bible. I speak of it here as a book which it behooves a lawyer to make himself thoroughly acquainted with. It is the code of ethics of every Christian country on the globe, and tends above all other books to elucidate the spirit of laws throughout the Christian world. It is, in fact, a part of the practical law of every Christian nation, whether recognized as such or not.

It is worth while adding that the young man who thus gained the attention of these distinguished authorities subsequently proved himself deserving of their notice by attaining a leading position at the bar in the city of Washington, D. C., where he practised.

Elizabeth Elliot.

The New Lady.

THE misuse of the word «lady» has driven it into the background, and the abuse of the word «woman» has pushed it too far to the front. The word «lady» has come to be regarded as a weakling, and the class of humanity which it represents has shrunk into insignificance before the pretentious claims of the new woman. But the old-time lady has not gone away to stay; she has merely stepped aside to avoid being run over by the wheel of the new woman, and will reappear when the dust has settled. The word «lady» suggests nobility of origin, or, at least, nobility of character. Both the title and its possessor were once regarded with reverent respect. A renewal of the popularity of the title would awaken a revival of the sentiment which the title evoked, and the time for a reaction in its favor is at hand.

This is a time of wild agitation concerning the portion of power that belongs to woman, as well as of wild conjecture concerning the limits of the sphere within which her power is to be exerted. Her interpretation of her sphere and of her privileges distinguishes the woman of the new school from the lady of the old. The woman of the new school claims rights that are separate from the rights of man, and opposed to his; the lady of the old school claimed no rights that were in conflict with the rights of man, and in defense of her own rights she desired the protection that is due to her sex from men. She gratefully accepted the chivalrous courtesy that has been shown to her in all ages until now. That she does not receive it to the same extent now is the fault of the advanced woman, who scorns it, who is ambitious to direct the affairs of state, and who, in order to gratify that ambition, is willing to forego to some extent the usual courtesies which women have hitherto expected and received.

As a result of her advancement, her more unassuming sisters are obliged to witness a marked decline in politeness to women as women. The lady deplores the dawn of such a day, and is looking for a better day, which she may reasonably hope is coming through the very education which the advanced woman is perverting to her own ends.

In times past the lady has been able to influence the affairs of men because she has not attempted to direct their affairs; in the future she can maintain her power only by being as well educated as men are, «by knowing the things that men know as well as men know them,» and by using her knowledge to supplement man's work in the world, not to usurp it. When the elements of the present agitation shape themselves into a new type of womanhood, the characteristics of the lady will be

stamped upon the composite, which will differ in its essential features from the type anticipated by the present theories of the coming woman. If the new type is the lady of Ruskin's portrayal, «enduringly, incorruptibly good, instinctively wise,» her education must make her so. «She must know sciences to be accurate, mathematics to be logical, history to be sympathetic, and languages to be hospitable.» «She must have the same kind of education for social service that man has for business and for professional service,» and then she must use it to accomplish her own purposes, not his. The new type will not be the mere housewife: the breadwinner she may be, but not the imitator of man, nor the woman who is ambitious to usurp his rights. She will be loyal to her womanhood, and as proud to retain the title «lady» as women once were to assume it.

Sculpture has realized the ideal in art—«to assemble into a whole the characteristics of different individuals, excluding the unseemly.» Photography has interpreted the ideal in the composite picture. So the new education will produce the new lady, the type of everything that is strong and sensible and intellectual and noble and pure in womanhood. In her broader sphere she will be the lady of the old school revised and improved.

Rebecca L. Leeke.

Critic and Poet.

«THOU shalt do this and undo that,» the toilsome critic said;
But the poet strayed to Helicon and touched his lips instead.
Across the mirror of the fount he saw fair visions pass,
But never once the critic's face dark frowning from the glass.
The poet seized his tuneful lyre, and joyfully sang he;
«O hear! O hear!» the critic cried, «he learned that song of me!»

Ida Whipple Benham.

Forbidden.

"ES IST STRENGSTENS UNTERSAGT."

(From the note-book of an American tourist in Germany.)

A YANKEE in Deutschland declared:
«I know a fine Fräulein here;
Of the Bangor girls she 's the peer.
I 'll wed her at once,» he declared.
«Oh, no!» said the Polizei.
Said the Yankee, «Why?»
«You cannot at once be wed,
It is strengthily undersaid;
You first must be measured and weighed, and then
Tell where you were born, and why, and when.»

Then the Yankee in Deutschland declared:
«Well, instead we will go on a spin
Through the beautiful streets of Berlin,
On our ‹bike,› » the Yankee declared.
«Oh, no!» said the Polizei.
Said the Yankee, «Why?»
«You cannot go cycling instead,
It is strengthily undersaid;
You first must be measured and weighed, and then
Tell where you would wheel, and why, and when.»

Then the Yankee in Deutschland declared:
«Never mind, we will go to the play,
Your pretty new hat to display.
It is worth it,» the Yankee declared.
«Oh, no!» said the Polizei.
Said the Yankee, «Why?»
«We object to the hat on the head,
It is strengthily undersaid;
It first must be measured and weighed, and then
Tell where it was made, and why, and when.»

Then the Yankee in Deutschland declared:
«If one must forever be worried
Like this, he had better be buried,
And be done with it!» he declared.
«Oh, no!» said the Polizei.
Said the Yankee, «Why?»
«If you do we will break your head,
For it 's strengthily undersaid;
You first must be measured and weighed, and then
Tell why you were born at all, and when,
And promise never to do it again.»
Said the Yankee, «Which?» and «Why?»
«Both,» answered the Polizei.

G. W. R.

Aphorisms.

TACT is intelligence condescending to oil a poor machine instead of devising a better.

«YOU are the first woman I ever loved,» is an avowal that must have been made often before it can be true.

A MAN who affects to despise love passes for a person of experience; but a woman who makes light of love is thought never to have inspired it.

MAN makes friendship a means and love an end. With woman it is the reverse.

J. Spottiswoode Taylor.

In an Ancient Copy of Herrick's "Hesperides."

YELLOW and frayed and torn; but mark within,
The sparkling rhyme
That, like a dimple in an old dame's chin,
Laughs out at Time!

Robert Gilbert Welch.

TOPICS OF THE TIME

How to be a Congressman after Election.

EVERY one who has made personal efforts to induce Congress to take action upon some question of large public importance has been surprised and disheartened by the lack of interest which the average congressman has shown in his appeals. There are a few members in both houses who are always ready and willing to help in such causes, but the great mass of members are either indifferent or passively hostile. They really take no interest in these matters, because they do not see behind them a perceptible, concrete body of voters in their own districts, whose support will be influenced by their conduct in regard to them. The average congressman, as soon as he is elected, begins to shape his course in the way which he thinks most likely to secure his reëlection. He bends his mind entirely upon his own district, and divides that district in his mental vision into blocks of voters whose allegiance is to be secured only by careful attention to their various demands, and careful avoidance of all offense to their prejudices.

In other words, instead of becoming a public servant, the average congressman becomes a slave to his constituents. When a question comes before the House of which he is a member he does not ask, «Which side of this is right and just and best for all the people?» but «Which side can I take and thereby get the largest number of votes in my district?» He makes no attempt to lead the people, but follows them, no matter whether they be right or wrong. For the sake of placating this block of voters he stifles his convictions on one question, and to win over that block he dodges and trims so on another question that nobody can tell where he really stands. His mind is so completely absorbed in this personal business that he is able to give little thought to the public business of the country; hence his indifference toward it when his support is sought.

Thus it comes about that few congressmen attain national prominence by making for themselves reputations which lift them above their fellows. The great mass of people take no interest in the subjects to which most congressmen devote their time and energy, but they do take a great deal of interest in large questions, and look eagerly to see what position individual members hold upon them. Generally they look in vain so far as the great majority of congressmen are concerned. A few well-known leaders appear at the front, but scarcely any one else shows a head. The result is that the people come to the conclusion that Congress as a whole is an incompetent body, and when election day arrives go to the polls in disgust and vote to give the other party a trial. They usually do this in such an irresistible mass that all the painstaking efforts of the congressman to keep himself «solid» with the voters amount to nothing. General disgust with his incompetence overcomes all the individual favor which he has secured by his absorption in petty political devices.

It is passing strange that the invariable failure which attends this policy has not long ago convinced every intelligent congressman of its folly. We have said that the people look eagerly for decisive action by their congressmen when important questions are under consideration, and this is unquestionably the fact. Like all other nations, we are hero-worshipers, and are on the watch for heroes whom we can worship. The poor substitutes with which we are compelled to put up at times afford pathetic evidence of the strength of this desire. During the last year, especially, a great majority of the people of the country—the entire body of men who represent its commercial and industrial stability and wealth—have been looking with strained and hungry eyes for congressmen, or any other variety of statesmen, who could be trusted to lead us out of our currency slough of despond, but they have found not one. It is possible that by the time these lines reach the public a Moses of this kind may have revealed himself in the new Congress. Let us hope he will, and we venture the prediction that if he does he will be hailed with joy by the country, and started at once on the road to political eminence and glory.

As we have pointed out in previous articles in this place, the people have never failed to reward courage and high principle in public life. A signal instance of this kind occurred in the career of the late Justice Lamar. When he was senator in 1878, the legislature of his State—Mississippi—passed joint resolutions instructing him to vote in favor of the repeal of the Resumption Act and for the remonetization of silver. He declined to do so, gave the reasons for his course in the open Senate, and then resigned his seat and appealed to the people of the State for judgment on his course. He took the stump and explained to the people why he thought he was right and the legislature wrong on the financial question, and made the campaign so completely one of education that at its close he was reëlected to the Senate by the new legislature unanimously. The people had listened to him attentively, recognizing in him a true leader whom they were willing to follow.

No one can doubt that if all our congressmen were to take this course on public questions we should have a far abler body of statesmen than we have to-day, and should have to spend far less time in fighting popular delusions or «crazes.» Suppose the majority of Southern and Western congressmen had followed Mr. Lamar's example when the silver question came into prominence seventeen years ago,—had gone to the people and had shown them the truth of the matter, instead of following them in their error and aggravating their delusion,—would we not have escaped nearly or quite all of the

monetary troubles from which we have suffered and are still suffering?

Suppose, further, that there should appear in the present Congress a few men who from the outset should devote themselves intelligently, studiously, and fearlessly to the advocacy of the right side of all great public questions, such as sound finance, a reformed currency, the merit system, forest preservation, and other subjects of a non-partizan sort vitally affecting the happiness and welfare of the whole people, and the true greatness and glory of the country: does anybody doubt that the people would joyfully rally to their support, and that within a few years they would be recognized as national leaders, and would become the leading candidates for the highest offices in the land? There can be no question whatever of this. The people are yearning for leaders, and mourning because they find them not. Why cannot some of our congressmen see their opportunity in this situation, and improve it?

The Craze for Publicity.

It is a strange thing to see how deeply certain people of our time have been smitten with a form of insanity which may be called, for want of a dictionary word, publicomania. The name is rather ugly, and altogether irregular, being of mixed Latin and Greek descent; but then it is no worse than the thing it describes, which is, in fact, a sort of mongrel madness. It has some kinship with the Roman Grandio's passion for celebrity which Seneca satirized, and not a little likeness to the petty ostentation of Beau Tibbs at which Goldsmith laughed kindly in London a century ago. But in our own day the disease has developed a new symptom. It is not enough to be pointed out with the forefinger of notoriety: the finger must be stained with printer's ink. The craving for publicity is not satisfied with anything but a paragraph in the newspapers; then it wants a column; and finally it demands a whole page with illustrations. The delusion consists in the idea that a sufficient quantity of this kind of notoriety amounts to fame.

It is astonishing to observe how much time, energy, ingenuity, money, and life people who are otherwise quite sane will spend for the sake of having their names and unimportant doings chronicled in a form of print which can be preserved only in private and very inconvenient scrap-books. In England, where they have a hereditary aristocracy and a «Court Journal,» the mania seems less difficult to understand. But in this country, where the limits of the «smart» set are confessedly undefined and indefinable, changing with the fluctuations of the stock-market and the rise and fall of real estate, it is impossible to conceive what benefit or satisfaction reasonable beings can derive from a temporary enrolment among the assistants at fashionable weddings, the guests at luxurious banquets, or the mourners at magnificent funerals.

Our wonder increases when we consider that there is hardly a detail of private life, from the cradle to the grave, which is not now regarded as appropriate for publication, provided only the newspapers are persuaded to take an interest in it. The interest of the public is taken for granted. Formerly the intrusion of reporters into such affairs was resented. Now it is their occasional neglect to intrude which causes chagrin.

If we could suppose that all this was only a subtle and highly refined mode of advertisement, it would be comparatively easy to account for it. There would be method in the madness. But why in the world should a man or a woman care to advertise things which are not to be sold—a wedding trousseau, the decorations of a bedroom, a dinner to friends, or the flowers which conceal a coffin? We can see well enough why a dealer in old silver should be pleased at having his wares described in the newspapers. But what interest has Mr. Newman Biggs in having the public made aware of the splendor and solidity of his plate? We can understand why a Circassian father should wish to have his daughter's portrait published, although, if it were like the prints in our daily papers, he would probably be disappointed in its effect on the chances of a good sale. But why should an American father like it or submit to it?

Of course we recognize the fact that there is such a thing as public life. It is natural and reasonable that those who are engaged in it should accept publicity, and even seek it within proper limits, so far as it may be a necessary condition of success in their work. Authors and artists wish to have their books read and their pictures looked at. Statesmen and reformers desire to have their policies and principles discussed, in order that they may be adopted. Benefactors of mankind wish at least to have their schools and hospitals and libraries received with as much attention as may be needed to make them useful. But why the people who are chiefly occupied in eating and drinking, marrying and giving in marriage, should wish to have their lives turned inside out on the news-stands passes comprehension. They subject themselves to all the inconveniences of royalty, being, as Montaigne says, «in all the daily actions of life encircled and hemmed in by an importunate and tedious multitude,» without any of its compensations. They are exposed by their own fantastic choice to what Cowley called «a quotidian ague of frigid impertinences,» and they get nothing for it but the disadvantage of being talked about. The result of their labors and sufferings is simply to bring them to the condition of a certain William Kenrick, LL. D., of whom old Samuel Johnson said, «Sir, he is one of those who have made themselves public without making themselves known.»

But if we are inclined to be scornful of the vagaries of publicomania, this feeling must surely be softened into something milder and more humane when we reflect upon the unhappy state of mind to which it reduces those who are afflicted with it. They are not as other men, to whom life is sweet for its own sake. The feasts to which they are bidden leave them hungry unless their presence is recorded in the «Daily Eavesdropper.» They are restless in their summer rest unless their comings and goings are printed in the chronicle of fashionable intelligence. Their new houses do not please them if the newspaper fails to give sufficient space to the announcement that they are «at home». It is a miserable condition, and one from which all obscure and happy persons should pray to be delivered.

There is, however, a great consolation for true lovers of humanity in the thought that the number of people who are afflicted with this insanity in an incurable form is comparatively small. They make a great noise, like

Edmund Burke's company of grasshoppers under a leaf in a field where a thousand cattle are quietly feeding; but, after all, the great silent classes are in the majority. The common sense of mankind agrees with the poet Horace in his excellent praise of the joys of retirement:

Secretum iter, et fallentis semita vitæ.

One of the best antidotes and cures of the craze for publicity is a love of poetry and of the things that belong to poetry—the beauty of nature, the sweetness and splendor of the common human affections, and those high thoughts and unselfish aspirations which are the enduring treasures of the soul. It is good to remember that the finest and most beautiful things that can ever come to us cannot possibly be news to the public. It is good to find the zest of life in that part of it which does not need, and will not bear, to be advertised. It is good to talk with our friends, knowing that they will not report us; and to play with the children, knowing that no one is looking at us; and to eat our meat with gladness and singleness of heart. It is good to recognize that the object of all true civilization is that a man's house, rich or poor, shall be his castle, and not his dime museum. It is good to enter into the spirit of Wordsworth's noble sonnet, and, turning back to «the good old cause,» thank God for those safeguards of the private life which still preserve in so many homes

Our peace, our fearful innocence,
And pure religion breathing household laws.

The Ethics of Yachting.

Of the large sports, outside the field of athletics, which have stirred the pulses of men, there is only one which, according to the standards and tastes of the present time, may be called a noble sport. Those that are brutal, like pugilism and bull-fighting, are now generally held to be ignoble, and those that stimulate the gambling passion of the age are more or less degrading; it is only yachting which in the realm of large sport continues to raise men to a sense of self-mastery and a mastery of nature's forces, with no other aim than the crowning of emulation with the laurel of honorable victory.

Yachting is the large sport above all others in which the unquestioned honesty of the contestants is a primary matter of course. With the gambling sports it is different. They are to some extent hedged about by rules made for the purpose of keeping the contestants and their employees within the bounds of fair dealing. It is true that men of the highest sense of honor engage in them, but the majority of the devotees who follow the sport as gamesters are satisfied with what is known as gamblers' honor. With them an imputation of fraud leaves no stain on the sport if the charge cannot be proved.

But in yachting the slightest breath of scandal capsizes the pleasure of the contest. Its rules do not assume the liability of a deviation from the ordinary lines of honorable conduct; they provide merely for a basis of measurement by which the relative force of the contestants may be determined, and for a common understanding as to rights of way, so that accidents may be avoided, or, if they occur, may be accurately charged to somebody's account. They provide for a remeasurement in case an opponent thinks a mistake has been made in the intricate computation, or through negligence. They prescribe that the «trim» shall not be altered, and that certain minor adjustments shall not be made, within a fixed space of time. In effect everything is left to the honorable disposition of the contestants, and in recognition of that fact a winner of a prize makes formal acknowledgment before taking it that he has adhered to the rules. In match contests an owner's representative, with, perhaps, a member of the governing committee, sails on each yacht, not for the purpose of spying a possible propensity to alter ballast or gain an advantage by some ingenious bit of smartness or meanness, but to observe from the point of view of each contending yacht mistakes as to the course, obstacles that may unexpectedly appear, and accidents which from the nature of the sport are always to be apprehended.

In yachting the responsibility for a dishonorable action cannot be shifted from an owner, in charge, to his officers and crew. The latter have it in their power to weaken a stay or a rope, or to do some malicious injury calculated to impair the efficiency of a yacht; but they can do nothing outside the strict performance of their duty which would give their yacht an advantage over a rival. The discipline essential to the successful handling of a great yacht, no less than the mechanical factors involved, precludes the possibility of effective dishonesty by subordinates. So if a greater insult than an imputation of personal dishonesty could be offered to a yacht-owner, it might be conveyed in a vague charge that his officers and crew had assumed the responsibility of cheating in his behalf. That not one man among a large crew would be found willing to safeguard the honor of an employer would be a supposition quite preposterous.

Under the moral conditions which prevail in the sport of yachting an unsportsmanlike suspicion is as much out of place as a dishonorable action. A yachtsman who lodges a suspicion of dishonesty against a contestant is in honor bound to rest from the contest. There could be no true sport in such a match. Somebody must be ruled out—either the accused as a dishonest yachtsman, or the accuser as being in a state of mind inconsistent with honorable competition. If the accuser, from easy notions of other people's sense of honor, should fail to see the impropriety of racing with an imputation of dishonesty in the balance, the regatta committee ought to act instantly and with decision. Investigation might exculpate the accused, but that would not of itself exonerate the accuser; to proceed with a contest under those conditions would be to invite disorder, for a yachtsman capable of an unsportsmanlike suspicion would be prone, in case of defeat, to find other sources of dissatisfaction, and in the end to revive the charge of dishonesty as a cloak for his chagrin. A committee which would allow such an incident in yachting to be smoothed over, either out of mistaken courtesy to a guest or to save a great contest from collapse, would not be equal to its duty, and would merely run the risk of exchanging an unfortunate failure for a disgraceful fiasco.

In a common respect for sportsmanlike honor, international yachting has shed a new luster on the nautical

inheritance of Englishmen and Americans; but if the sport must be conducted according to the ethics of the race-course, with suspicions of unfairness and unmanly bickerings, we believe the yachtsmen of both countries would prefer to know that the *America's* cup, and all other international trophies, were lying at the bottom of the sea.

A Model Dramatic Performance.

THE recent performance in this city, by Sir Henry Irving, Miss Ellen Terry, and the London Lyceum company, of Mr. Comyns Carr's play «King Arthur» was a complete demonstration of the falsity and absurdity of the various pleas advanced by the majority of our so-called managers in extenuation of their failure to provide wholesome and rational entertainment. These autocrats of the footlights claim that they are obliged to cater to the public taste; that there is no popular demand for, or appreciation of, the serious, poetic, romantic, or literary drama; that they produce the best plays to be had in the market; and that they cannot justly be held responsible for the lack of able playwrights and competent actors. The exact reverse of all this is the fact. As we have pointed out in previous articles on this subject, the public has no voice in the selection of the theatrical fare set before it, but invariably patronizes the best dishes, of whatever kind they may happen to be; whereas our managers, with very few exceptions, do not know good from bad, have no independence of judgment, and are absolutely terrified by anything like originality on the part of an unknown author. They have discouraged native writers by importing nearly all their plays from Paris or London, and have stunted the artistic growth of young actors by a system which debars them largely from opportunities of proper training.

If Sir Henry Irving had been a manager of this kind, instead of being a man of force, ambition, and intellect, devoted to his profession and resolved to establish its right to a place among the arts, he would not now be the most famous actor playing at this time, as he undoubtedly is, in spite of his faults; nor would the London Lyceum be the only real dramatic school worth talking about in the English-speaking world. What is and what has been the secret of his success? Not his dramatic genius, for no actor of his eminence has owed so little to natural inspiration. Not inherited fame, for he is the first of his family to win renown upon the stage. Not chance, for his upward progress has been slow and steady, and from the first he has been the architect of his own fortunes. The simple explanation is that he has had faith in the eagerness of the public to patronize the best work, and courage enough to act upon his convictions. This may sound like a truism, but it is one that cannot be insisted upon too strongly. There never was an actor who has been assailed more vigorously or more persistently by the critics than he. His warmest admirers must admit that he has essayed characters for which he is unfitted physically and temperamentally; and yet, in spite of occasional personal failures, his managerial career has been one long and unbroken record of triumphant prosperity.

Many of the most striking characteristics of his liberal and enlightened theories of management were exemplified in his representation of «King Arthur,» which was a delight not only to cultivated men and women, but to the great mass of fairly intelligent theater-goers. The public crowded the house at every performance, although the ordinary prices of the seats had been nearly doubled. Yet it appealed, not to that love of the morbid, the sensational, the grotesque, or the vulgar which is supposed by our modern managers to dominate the popular mind, but to the natural admiration, common to mankind at large, of what is beautiful, romantic, poetic, heroic, or ennobling. If the play had been presented through the combined efforts of a check-book, a dry-goods house, a decorator, and the ordinary stage manager only, the appeal probably would have been made in vain; altogether too much would have been left to the imagination. Sir Henry Irving knew how to surround the personages of the playwright with the atmosphere and spirit of the place and period to which they were assigned. To secure all possible accuracy and consistency in the designs of the costumes and scenery he employed the services of one of the greatest experts in such matters—Sir Edward Burne-Jones. For the incidental music, used with such admirable effect, he went to one of the most popular and gifted of modern composers, Arthur Sullivan. To the general preparation he contributed his own extraordinary intelligence and energy, his keen sense of pictorial and dramatic effect, and his intense appreciation of the value of minute detail. The result was an entertainment of the rarest excellence in all its distinctive features, whether literary, artistic, or theatrical. More than one of those beautiful stage-pictures will live long in the memory of those who witnessed them. The scene at the magic mere, with its background of rugged rock and glimpses of darkened landscape, its storm-clouds streaked with red, its chorus of spirits, and the flashing brand «Excalibur» rising from the silver waters, was full of the atmosphere of romance and mysticism, through which the figures of *Merlin* and the *King* moved with majestic effect. What, again, could be more in consonance with the spirit of the play than the noble and picturesque hall at Camelot, with its groups of knights in clanking armor, and the fluttering array of pennons encircling Arthur's throne? The whole thing was instinct with the very breath of chivalry. Certainly no lovelier woodland picture than that of the «Queen's Maying» was ever set on any stage, while the final tableau of the «Passing of Arthur,» fit conclusion to so refined and imaginative a pageant, was a triumph of theatrical illusion.

In this rich and appropriate, but never profuse or gaudy, setting the literary and poetic qualities of Mr. Comyns Carr's scholarly and elevated play found perfect expression, while the dramatic elements were duly emphasized and interpreted by a company of experienced, but not brilliant players, drilled in the observance of the nicest coöperation. It was this delightful harmony of purpose and achievement that constituted the charm of the performance, quite as much as the noble, tender, courtly, and pathetic *Arthur*, or the charming and sympathetic *Guinevere* of Miss Ellen Terry.

The potency, versatility, and profound insight of the actor have won for him present and lasting renown. His fame as a manager will be still more enduring, for he will leave behind him a standard by which his suc-

cessors will be judged long after he has retired from the scene. He has proved that management is an art, not a speculation, and that the elevation of the stage is not only practicable, but immensely profitable.

The Effect of Large Ideas on Small Minds.

ONE of the most interesting of psychological studies is the effect of a large idea upon a small mind. A large idea entering a large mind balances and dignifies it; its effect upon a small mind is often completely upsetting. The man becomes intellectually top-heavy and unsteady.

When one becomes observant of this phenomenon he finds much to amuse, and again much to deplore. He is amused, for instance, to notice the results of this overloading throughout a long career. Where a subject is thus acted upon by a succession of ideas, each embodying an important truth which the man is incapable of carrying, his receptivity to impression proves to be his bane. The sudden realization for the first time of a fundamental principle makes a monomaniac of him. Another sudden realization of still another fundamental principle, and he is spinning off at a new tangent.

But there are times when this effect of large ideas upon little minds is most mischievous and deplorable. Thus is bred the race of incurable cranks in philosophy, theology, art, and politics. The word «crank» has been maliciously misused for purposes of cynical ridicule; but it is too descriptive a name to be set aside. The congenital crank is always started on his career of inutility by this application of a big idea to a small brain. The most tiring thing about him is his self-complacency, owing to his knowledge of the fact that better men have been miscalled by his own accurately descriptive cognomen.

A large half truth is as upsetting to a small intellect as a whole truth. A half truth in such a mind rapidly turns into a complete lie, and the poor brain throbs and shrills on like millstones grinding air.

Such a description of certain psychological phenomena should perhaps be illustrated with actual incidents. But, after all, the statement will give satisfaction to more persons without, than with, such illustrations. History is full of facts which go to prove the thesis, and each reader will remember cases which fall in with his own theories and prejudices. And as for the present, every community teems with illustrations; they are so numerous and so close at hand that the cap will find more heads to fit if the latter are unnamed than if it were possible to point them out with individual minuteness.

It should be remembered that few men have done their whole, fearless duty in the community without at some time being mistaken for fanatics and cranks. But this does not diminish the danger to which a community is subjected when some of its most well-meaning citizens betray a tendency to eccentricity, owing to the impinging of large thoughts on small intellects.

The Plight of the Arid West.

THE conquest of arid America, as outlined in the May CENTURY, will scarcely be realized unless there is an early and radical reform in existing land laws. If these arid wastes are to be changed into fertile fields; if those who give their labor and means to the work of reclamation are to have an adequate reward; if the irrigated home is to have the same security as that in regions of abundant rainfall, then there must be laws and institutions in conformity with physical conditions and industrial needs. This is not the case at present. The extension of irrigation has been marked by continuous controversies and disastrous litigation over water rights. Throughout the entire arid region the nature of these rights is as yet involved in confusion and uncertainty, if not open controversy. The adoption of the doctrine of ownership of water apart from land, already recognized in more than half of the arid States and Territories, makes it a speculative commodity, and threatens its users with exactions which no lover of his country can contemplate with satisfaction.

Thus far this conquest has been one of spoliation as well as development. With the creation of homes has gone the destruction of the mountain forests upon which their prosperity largely depends. Not since the strife between the herdsmen of Abraham and the herdsmen of Lot have there been more serious contests over range rights than those now prevailing in many sections over the possession of the free grazing-lands—contests which cannot be ended like the biblical one, because there is no unoccupied land to the right hand or the left.

These evils have their origin in inadequate land laws. The attempt to extend to this region the operation of a land system framed for a region of abundant rainfall, ignoring the changes in climatic conditions, is so serious an error that the best results are impossible. It prevents the best use of either irrigable, forest, or grazing-lands, and by ignoring wholly the water-supply opens the way for endless abuses. The truth of these statements can best be shown by considering each of these classes of land separately.

IRRIGABLE LANDS.

ABOUT one tenth of the arid region can be reclaimed. The ultimate percentage will depend upon the methods employed to secure the conservation and proper use of the water-supply. The success and prosperity which at-

tend this reclamation will depend largely on the methods employed in its distribution and control.

The history of irrigation shows that to prevent abuses water rights must inhere in the land and pass with land titles. It is only where the irrigated home controls both elements of fertility that success is assured. Successful land laws must recognize these facts. In disregard of manifest requirements and of the teaching of experience, we have a land system which divorces them at the outset. The public land of the arid region belongs to the General Government; the water-supply is owned or controlled by the several States. Title to land comes from the nation; title to water from the State. No right to water goes with a land patent. Each arid State has a different law governing water rights, and in none are the titles adequate or satisfactory.

Under the present land system there is neither supervision over the location of canals, limitation of their number, or protection for the investments made in their construction. As a result, canals are improperly located and streams are often notoriously over-appropriated. A visitor to St. Vrain Cañon, Colorado, will find three canals leaving the east side of the stream, so near each other that a stone can be thrown across the whole. They parallel each other for miles, reclaiming a region which could have been watered equally well from a single channel. It needs no acquaintance with irrigation to recognize the waste of money in constructing three canals instead of one, in the maintenance of three headgates and supervision of three diversions, where one would have served every purpose. To one familiar with the subject the enormous loss of water from seepage and evaporation becomes the most serious evil of this haphazard development.

This is not an isolated instance. The last report of the State engineer of Colorado estimates that sixty per cent. of the water wasted in irrigation is due to the needless multiplicity of canals. Eighty-five ditches have been built to divert the water of the stream which supplies the capital of Wyoming. Nine months in the year the city's appropriation absorbs its entire flow. The water secured by the other eighty-four appropriators is entirely accidental. One of the largest ditches, which it cost thousands of dollars to construct, has never secured a gallon of water from the stream. Nine tenths of the ditches, with the money spent in their construction, are not only wasted, but are a prolific source of mischief in promoting water-right controversies. In every arid State the significance of these facts is understood. The importance of limiting the number of ditches, and the gain which would come from their location according to a prearranged plan, are fully appreciated; but so long as there is no local control over public land, State supervision is impossible.

Under the present land system much of the best land and the largest rivers are unused. The Platte, Yellowstone, Missouri, Snake, and Colorado are all examples of the extent of our wasted resources. This is because of lack of protection for the money required to divert and distribute their waters. Small streams can be diverted by individuals, but coöperative effort or corporate capital is required to control a river. The outlay thus made must be returned by the use of the water. It can be insured only by reserving the land under canals for actual cultivators of the soil and users of water. Except where provided for in lands under State control, there is no way of insuring this result. The homestead law does not require reclamation, but only nominal residence for a brief period. By means of this law all the land under a canal may be absorbed by speculative filings, while its builders, deprived of its source of revenue and subjected to heavy charges for maintenance, are driven into bankruptcy.

Intrinsically there is no more meritorious or secure investment than the construction of irrigation works. There is scarcely an instance in which the increase in land values has not been far greater than the cost of the work; but because this increase does not go to those who make the outlay, results have been unsatisfactory. In all the West, though millions of dollars have been invested in canals, there is not, to the writer's knowledge, a large irrigation work built to water public land which has not been financially disastrous to its builders.

There is no necessity for this condition of affairs. There are thousands of home-seekers willing to occupy and use the irrigable lands, and to pay for the works to reclaim them. The lands should be reserved for them. The remedy is simple. *Make the title to all irrigable land depend on reclamation.*

THE FOREST LANDS.

ALONG with the proper management and use of the water-supply is the problem of its preservation. It is this which gives value to the forest lands. All perennial streams have their sources among the snow-clad summits of the mountains. It is also in this region of summer frosts that the timber lands are found.

The head waters of the streams are covered by the forests' cooling shade; here the snows are held and the waters retained until the time of greatest need on the thirsty plains below. The value of a river for irrigation depends not on its yearly discharge, but on its proper distribution. A mountain torrent in May, if followed by a dry channel in August, is of little value. Yet this is the result which will follow the removal of the forests from our mountain slopes.

The greatest menace to their preservation is fire. The industrial value of the timber is, as a rule, limited; and the actual use of a century would be less than the destruction wrought by two fires witnessed by the writer. The latter of these destroyed fully one third of the timber along the eastern slope of the Big Horn Mountains. In the thirty days during which the fire raged there was greater loss to the available water-supply of this region than will be replaced by all the reservoirs constructed within the lifetime of this generation.

The question to be solved is, Can these areas be protected from fire? To do this will require comprehensive action and adequate governmental supervision. The forests will all be destroyed before these lands pass into the hands of private owners and have their preservation assured by the incentive of self-interest. Left, as they now are, exposed to the carelessness of tourists and hunters and to the indifference of those using them as grazing-areas, their destruction will increase with the facilities of travel and the settlement of the lands below.

THE GRAZING-LANDS.

THE irrigable and forest lands comprise but a small fraction of the arid region. Between the valley which can be watered and the mountain snows is an expanse of hill and plain, embracing nearly one third of the United States, which has no agricultural value except for the pasturage it affords. In the aggregate this is very great. The live stock supported thereon has in the past constituted more than half the taxable wealth of several arid States, and has given employment to a large percentage of their people. For the past few years the press of this region has been filled with accounts of conflicts over the possession of this range. In the autumn of 1894 flocks of sheep driven from Utah into Colorado met with armed resistance from the settlers of the latter State. In the spring of 1895 similar resistance met an attempt to occupy the grazing-land of Colorado by flocks from Wyoming. Eight hundred men were reported as under arms in the region in dispute. For several months there was daily danger of an armed conflict, and it was finally averted by an agreement which, without any warrant of law, divided the occupancy of the region in dispute among the warring factions.

At the last session of the Wyoming legislature a bill was introduced making it a misdemeanor to graze sheep on public land within two miles of the boundaries of a settler's home. Although the State has no control over these lands, so strong was local feeling that it came near passing. Since its failure force has largely taken the place of law in an attempt to prescribe boundaries on the open range.

This condition results from the absence of any statute providing for the management of the grazing-lands. At present they are an open common; there is not a line in our land laws which recognizes their existence or provides for their disposal. Those using them pay nothing for the privilege, either to the State or the nation, nor do they observe any rules as to the limit of territory occupied or the number of animals grazed thereon. The temptation to overstock the range, to make the most of the present, regardless of the future, is too great to be resisted. While the owners of herds of cattle, as a rule, observe fixed boundaries, flocks of sheep range from Oregon to Nebraska and from Arizona to the British possessions. The native pastures are grazed over until every vestige of vegetation disappears. In Eastern meadows, where the recuperative forces are tenfold greater than those of the arid plains, rest and reseeding are required: they are much more necessary in a region parched in summer by continual drought. The destructive effects have become, therefore, too marked to be mistaken. Where the early emigrants to California and Utah found abundant support for their teams and attendant live stock, one can now travel a day's journey without securing support for a single animal. Ten years ago nearly one million cattle were returned for taxation in Wyoming; in 1894 only one third that number were assessed.

In many places the profitable cultivation of irrigated land depends on the preservation of the contiguous pasturage. Lands remote from railways or local markets, as is much of the reclaimed area, can be profitably used only to provide the winter food-supply for stock grazed on the open range in summer. With the destruction of the latter is lost the greater part of the value of the irrigated holdings, and in many cases the possibility of occupying them at all. Because of this there has been growing friction between those having homes of this character and the owners of nomadic flocks who disregard their necessities. A continuance of the present policy means a continuance of the warfare for possession, and the ultimate destruction of the native grasses, with all that it implies.

Where the development of a country requires that force shall take the place of law, where the reward of toil spent in the creation of homes and adding to the country's permanent wealth is endangered by a pursuit which improves nothing, develops nothing, and which, if continued a thousand years, would leave this region less populous and productive than it is to-day, a change in conditions cannot be too swift or comprehensive.

The arid West does not reflect the best tendencies of irrigated lands. Our water laws are inferior to those of both Canada and Australia, countries in which the practice of irrigation is of more recent origin than with us. The time has come for a more adequate appreciation of the importance of this subject, and for national pride in securing the best possible results.

CHEYENNE. *Elwood Mead,*
State Engineer of Wyoming.

Were Colonial Bricks Imported from England?

IN THE CENTURY for December, 1894, John Williamson Palmer, in his article «Old Maryland Homes and Ways,» says that «here [in Maryland] stood the sturdy domicile, broad and square, *built of bricks brought over from England* in the ships that came for tobacco.» Now Maryland was settled in great measure by Virginians, and Mr. Palmer repeats only what is current as an accepted tradition in Virginia.

But traditions are not history, and if Mr. Palmer has any facts from the Maryland records to support the tradition, I, for one, would like to know what they are. On the contrary, the facts from the Virginia records are all the other way. In spite of the tradition, there is not a case to be found in the annals of Virginia of bricks imported from England.

Indeed, the objection to the tradition is at the threshold. It stands to reason that it was easier to import brickmakers than brick. Moreover, the importation of settlers was a paying business, since for every immigrant there were allowed fifty acres of land to the importer. Many ships went to England yearly with tobacco from Maryland and Virginia, but they came back freighted, not with brick, but with immigrants, servants, and dry-goods. There is no lack of bills of lading giving evidence of such cargoes. Sober thought seems to repudiate the idea of importing across 3000 miles of water, in the little vessels of that day, a commodity like brick, which in damp weather would absorb vast quantities of water, endanger the vessel, and bring no adequate return.

We know that there is no lack of good brick clay in Virginia and Maryland; and the truth is that if there was anything, after the making of tobacco, in which the

planters were well versed, it was in the making of brick. But I must quote the records.

Now it seems that brick was made use of almost contemporaneously with the first settlement. To quote the Rev. Alexander Whitaker, who wrote, in 1612, of Virginia: «The higher ground is much like the moulds of France, clay and sand being proportionately mixed together at the top; but if we dig any depth (*as we have done for our bricks*) we find it to be red clay, full of glistering spangles.» (Brown's «Genesis of the United States,» Vol. II, p. 584.) Again, in the «New Life of Virginia,» published by authority of the Council of Virginia at London, in 1612, there is this statement: «You shall know that our Colonie consisteth of seven hundred men at least, of sundrie arts and professions. . . . The Colonie is removed up the river fourscore miles further beyond Jamestown, to a place of higher ground, strong and defencible. . . . Being thus invited, here they pitch; the spade men fell to digging, the *brick men burnt their bricks*, the Company cut down wood, the carpenters fell to squaring out, the sawyers to sawing, the souldiers to fortifying, and every man to somewhat.»

The first brick houses in America made by Englishmen were built at Jamestown; and in August, 1637, Alexander Stoner, who calls himself «brickmaker,» took out a patent for an acre of land in Jamestown Island, «near the brick-kiln.» That the soil on the island was prime for making brick is shown by the letter of the council in 1667, who, when the king required the fort at Old Point to be repaired, argued in favor of that at Jamestown, «which hath great comodity of Brick Turfe or mudd to fortifye wth all» (Sainsbury MSS.). The fort at Jamestown, like all the rest, was to be *homework*, since in 1673 there is a complaint on record that the contractors, Mr. William Drummond and Major Theophilus Hone, had «made the brick,» but had not erected the fort. (General Court MSS.) And in the York County records there is a suit in 1679 «about a house for the saveguard of the bricks made upon Col. Baldry's land for building Fort James at Tyndall's Point» (now Gloucester Point).

In 1649 there was printed a little tract entitled «The Description of Virginia» (published in Force's «Tracts»), wherein it is stated that «the people in Virginia have lime in abundance made for their houses, store of Brick made, and House and Chimnies built of Brick and some wood high and fair, covered with Shingell for Tyles; yet they have none that make them [tiles], wanting workmen; in that trade the *Brickmakers* have not the art to do it, it shrinketh.» Cypress shingles are still preferred in Virginia to clay tile for roofs of dwellings. In the act of 1662 providing for brick houses in Jamestown, not only are «brickmakers» mentioned, but the prices for «moulding and burning bricks.» (Hening's Statutes.) And in the York County records, in 1692, John Kingston, «brickmaker,» is allowed £7 against the estate of Robert Booth «for makeing and burning Bricks.» In the inventories of dead men's personal property there are several mentions of «brick moulds» necessary in making the brick.

The three great public buildings of the colony during the eighteenth century were the college of William and Mary, the capitol, and the palace. I have the manuscript accounts of the expenses entering into the erection of the first, but among them I cannot find any evidence that the brick was imported. I infer, however, from the items for «brick moulds» that the brick was made on the spot. The committee appointed to superintend the building of the capitol was invested with power to buy certain materials in England; if brick had been one, it would certainly have been mentioned, contributing, as it did, the largest element in the structure. The first capitol building was burned down, however, fifty years later, and a great contest arose as to its future location. Some were for abandoning Williamsburg altogether. Finally it was decided to rebuild at the old place, and in John Blair's diary we read: «Nov. 15 [1751].—Fair. Skelton fired the last kiln for the Capitol.» The same fact is noted concerning the other buildings.

In addition I may say that I have carefully examined the files of the Virginia «Gazette» for three years, from 1736 to 1739, recording the ships entered in the James, York, Rappahannock, and Potomac rivers; but there is not a single cargo of brick reported in all that time, except one of 100,000 brick from New England, which came, doubtless, in response to some pressing demand.

How, then, did the idea of houses made of imported brick become so firmly fixed in the popular fancy? I conceive that the impression arose from mistaking the meaning of «English brick.» Houses in Maryland and Virginia were, it is true, made of «English brick," but this did not mean imported brick. The statute for building up Jamestown in 1662 called for «statute brick,» which meant brick made according to the English statute. In the early days of the colony, previous to the passage of the navigation law, there was a large trade with Holland, and a great many Dutchmen came to Virginia, where they became useful citizens. I find, in the Virginia records, mention made of «Dutch brick,» meaning brick made after the Dutch fashion—a large order of brick, such as, I am informed, one sees in the walls of houses in Charleston, South Carolina. Sometimes, it seems, the colonists preferred Dutch brick, and the reason for the distinction between the two kinds was obvious to them. When in the course of time the circumstances of society had changed, the phrase «English brick» came to be understood as «brick imported from England.»

Lyon G. Tyler,
President of William and Mary College.

adapt ourselves to existing conditions, and be always ready to take advantage of every change and opportunity. In the export of our cereals, cotton, dairy products, meats, provisions, and petroleum we are meeting active competition in European markets with the products of other countries, and our exports of some of these articles have decreased considerably of late years. India, with her cheap labor, is largely increasing her exports of wheat; Egypt, those of cotton and Indian corn; South America, meats and wheat; Australia and New Zealand, wheat, meats, and dairy products; and Canada, cereals, fish, cheese, and butter. In the article of cheese Canada has made wonderful progress, and has forged far ahead of us in her exports. In 1893 her exports of dairy products amounted to $14,704,282, as compared with $9,267,937 from this country. In fish and fish products our exports are also falling off very materially. In 1893 we sent abroad $4,750,769, and in 1894 only $3,492,201; while Canada in 1894 exported $8,743,050. As our home consumption of these articles is increasing, and will continue to increase with the growth of our population, the shrinkage thus caused in the volume of our exports must be made up by increasing the exports of domestic manufactures, to which there is no reasonable limit, provided that they are not hampered and restricted by duties on raw materials and by unwise legislation.

Fenton T. Newbery.

TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Anachronism of War.

THE traveler on the Riviera who rambles over the picturesque promontory of Monaco—that puny principality of less than six square miles, with a military band of 350 musicians and a standing army of 90 men—is struck with the ludicrousness of finding on its ramparts a lot of Spanish cannon of a past age, bearing the inscription, *Ultima ratio regum*—«The last argument of kings.» To a man of reflection the sentiment seems as antiquated as the brass on which it is engraved. Not that war is a practical impossibility: even as we write the world seems to be torn anew with wars or rumors of wars. The impossibility lies rather in the revolt of the mind against the retrogression in civilization which is implied by war, when there is at hand so potent, so tried, and so honorable a substitute as arbitration. With this short cut to justice in mind, it is inconceivable to a civilized man that the laborious achievements of generations of peace should be given to the torch in one mad hour through the revival of the barbarous instincts of fighting.

That public opinion in England and America has quietly made extraordinary progress toward this humane ideal is indicated by the force of the shock with which the wise and good of both countries have recoiled from the awful spectacle, the unforgivable wickedness, of the two great English-speaking nations giving up their position side by side in the vanguard of civilization to embroil themselves over any question, much less over a complicated question of boundary dispute in South America. The demonstration of this conservative attitude among the sedate elements on both sides of the water affords a new aspect of kinship beyond sea which is more than an offset to the wild, flippant, and provincial talk about war as though it were a pastime, of which Americans have recently had cause to be ashamed. The new *entente cordiale* will certainly be the beginning of better things.

That there should have been any difficulty sufficient to turn men's thoughts to war is a grave reflection upon the diplomacy of the two governments; for one of the chief objects of diplomacy has come to be, more and more, the averting of war. Moreover, to be effective, either as between the contending parties, or as before the larger judgment of the world's opinion, such diplomacy must be conducted on the highest plane of manners. However individuals may contend, nations must quarrel like gentlemen. The principle of *noblesse oblige* is more effective than that of immediate advantage. The main object should be to show outward respect for even the wrong contention of your opponent, and to refuse to admit that he would be willing to do less than justice. A breach can be made at any time, and until the ultimate issues of fact have been determined and pleaded to, as the lawyers would say, every avenue of escape from an armed conflict should be kept open. In such precautions the documents in the Venezuelan affair were woefully lacking. The lamentable strain that has been put upon the political, financial, and commercial relations of the two countries might easily have been avoided. What was needed was a large-minded reliance on the good faith and the sense of justice of the two great law-making and law-loving peoples of the world.

Upon such elements, at least, reliance must be placed to pluck the flower safety out of this nettle danger. *The immediate duty before the conservative forces of England and America is to organize for the establish-*

ment of a high-class continuous board of international arbitration. In this matter the lead may well be taken by the representatives of that religion which is «first pure, then peaceable.» With the aid of the great educational institutions and of the vast commercial interests of the two lands, and in the present revived attention to the subject, it ought to be an easy matter to get Parliament's assent to the opinion already formally expressed by the Congress of the United States in favor of the principle of arbitration. What is needed is a permanent system, in place of the piecemeal and haphazard examples to which we are accustomed, admirable as their results have already proved. Once established between England and America, such a system would gradually spread among the nations of Europe, the more rapidly because of the general conviction that another Continental war would show a climax of horrors. Sooner or later arbitration would be followed by disarmament, which is the logical sequence of no other premise, and yet will be the turning-point of the Continent toward true democracy and progress. However near or far the ultimate acceptance of the idea, it would, as between us and our English cousins, take the sting out of the viper of war, to which, like the husbandman in the fable, nations too carelessly give the warmth and nourishment of the hearthstone. In the knowledge that disputes would be automatically settled by an impartial tribunal, it would no longer be possible to play a boisterous tune upon a people by pulling out the stop of «patriotism.» And it is not too much to hope that in the spread of this idea the whole earth would at last realize the great laureate's noble vision of

The Parliament of man, the Federation of the world.

Herein lies a great opportunity for the English-speaking race—to lead mankind to the glorious destiny of peace. It is a mission to kindle the imagination and the heart.

A New Force in Politics.

How can the intelligent and moral people of this country be made to feel a full sense of their personal responsibility in the conduct of public affairs? That is the question which lies at the foundation of all improvement in government, municipal, State, and national. No one who has studied the defects and failures of American government can escape the conviction that these are due primarily to the indifference and neglect of the intelligent and moral elements of the population in regard to their duties as citizens. They do not like politics, they decline to take any active part in them, and they leave the business of government to be attended to by those elements which are the least fitted to carry it on either intelligently or honestly. We are glad to believe that there has been some change for the better in this respect within the last few years. It is not so common now as it was a quarter of a century ago to look upon politics as something no reputable person can afford to take part in; but there is still a very general tendency to shirk individual responsibility for the public weal, and to hold that whatever moral obligations may rest upon a Christian citizen in regard to the other affairs of life, nothing of the kind rests upon him in regard to public affairs.

Slowly but surely the folly and the lack of patriotism in this conduct are beginning to be recognized. It is becoming plain to many people that our morality must be broadened so as to include political with other duties; that a man ought to be a good citizen as well as a good husband, father, merchant, banker, or lawyer, and ought to apply the same moral standards in public affairs that he applies in private and business affairs. This is what James Bryce, in a passage which we have quoted on former occasions, calls the «home side of patriotism,» or the «willingness to take personal and even tedious trouble for the well-governing of every public community one belongs to, be it a township or parish, a ward or a city, or the nation as a whole.» We must not only arrive at the point at which we shall be willing to take this trouble, not one year, but every year, but we must also reach the point of realizing that when we neglect to take that trouble we become responsible for all the bad, dishonest, and shameful government that exists. It could not exist if we did our civic duty, and when we neglect that duty we commit a moral offense against the community in which we live.

An appreciation of this most necessary truth appears in the course which the Christian Endeavor societies have been following since their international convention at Montreal in 1893. The president of the societies suggested to them then, as one of the advanced steps to be taken, «the cultivation of a larger and more intelligent spirit of patriotism and Christian citizenship,» and thus defined his idea of what such citizenship should consist:

> How shall this be done? By all joining, as a society, some one political party? Not unless we know of some party that embraces all the saints and none of the rascals — one that is always right and never wrong. But whether you are a Democrat or a Republican, a third party man or a Populist, it can be done by bringing your vote and your influence to the test of the Christian Endeavor pledge. Then you will not knowingly vote for a bad man or a bad measure, and if need be, you will sacrifice your party rather than your principles. Go to the caucus, get into the legislature, stand for Congress; but when you get there, for God and the church and your country, do what He would like to have you do.

That is precisely the broadening of morality which we are urging. It takes issue with the old and pestiferous doctrine of two moral standards which has prevailed in this country for so many years, one standard for private and business life, and another for politics. This new doctrine says that you must have the same standard for both, and must apply it with equal thoroughness to both. Members of the Christian Endeavor societies in many States of the Union have acted upon this advice on various occasions during the last two years, and in all cases have made their influence felt for good government. With most of them this was probably their first active performance of duty as citizens; but it will not be the last, let us hope. They are sowing good seed, and we are confident that their example will be imitated by other organizations of similar professions and character. If all the churches and religious bodies of the country could be induced to preach and practise the same doctrine, the day of our deliverance as a nation from ignorant, corrupt, and often rascally government would be at hand.

Our churches may well borrow a suggestion from their English contemporaries, and set apart a day to be celebrated as «Citizen Sunday.» Three hundred London churches observed this day on October 27 last, when the clergy preached sermons on the civic aspects of Christian duty. A great deal of good would come from such a practice, if the exhortation followed the simple lines laid down by the Christian Endeavor societies. All that is necessary is to impress upon Christian people the duty of carrying their principles into politics, and insisting that the same rules of morality must prevail there as in every other walk of life. Nobody would recognize the power of this morality vote quicker than the professional politicians. If they knew that every Christian in the land had determined to apply the fundamental principles of morality to every candidate nominated, and had determined to vote against all candidates who failed to conform to them, there would be an instantaneous and remarkable improvement in the character of all nominees. This is not «carrying the churches into politics,» as some timid persons might fear, but making true citizens of the members of churches. To refuse to do this is to shut up citizenship as a department of human activity apart from morality, and thus leave to the immoral elements of society virtually undisputed control of public affairs. Popular government cannot long endure on that basis, and we are glad to see that the American people are awakening to this fact and are preparing to ward off the danger.

Plenty of Gold in the World.

THE figures which the director of the mint gives in his annual report as to the gold product of the world in 1895 must put an end to all apprehensions as to the possible advent of a «gold famine» in case the leading nations of the earth persist in transacting their business on the gold standard. He shows that the product of last year was about $200,000,000, against $180,000,000 in 1894, $155,000,000 in 1893, and $146,000,000 in 1892. Here is a gain of $54,000,000 in three years, and of $45,000,000 in two years. Furthermore, as the annual output of gold is not consumed each year, but is added to the preëxisting supply, the world's stock of gold has been increased during the last three years by $535,000,000, making the total stock on January 1 of the present year $4,286,800,000.

These are overpowering figures, the full significance of which cannot be grasped without comparing them with others. For many years the maximum of gold production was that of 1853, which was $155,000,000. From that time onward it dwindled till it reached $95,000,000 in 1883. After that year it began to increase slowly till 1889, when it started upward rapidly, reaching nearly $131,000,000 in 1891. The increase between 1887 and 1893 was over fifty per cent., and between 1887 and 1895 it was over seventy-five per cent. The annual product of gold now exceeds by $20,000,000 the average yield of both gold and silver in the period from 1861 to 1865, and by $10,000,000 the average yield of both in the period from 1866 to 1873.

That the increase of the last three years will be maintained and added to is the unanimous opinion of all expert authorities. It is estimated that by the close of the present century the annual output of the South African mines alone will exceed $100,000,000, or half the total output of the world in 1895. In the United States the product is steadily increasing, we being next to Africa as gold-producers. When we bear in mind, therefore, that the world's stock of gold is not used up each year, but with the slight diminution due to wear and tear is a perpetually growing fund, and that the tendency of the business of the world to conduct itself more and more with credit instruments rather than with actual money is steadily on the increase, it must be admitted by every intelligent person that the danger of a «gold famine» is too remote to be discussed.

It is claimed by some persons that more gold is used in the industrial arts than heretofore, and that this item must be considered as affecting the supply of gold for money purposes. This is not the fact. The director of the mint gives statistics which show that, so far as this country is concerned, the use of gold in the arts has been declining steadily during the past few years. The amount so used in 1892 was over $16,600,000; in 1893 it fell to about $12,500,000, and in 1894 to $10,600,000. No statistics are kept in other countries, but it is reasonable to suppose that the same causes which have led to a diminution here had a like effect elsewhere, the chief of them being the hard times.

It is not surprising, in view of these facts, that we no longer hear the charge made that the fall in prices of commodities which the world has witnessed during the last twenty years is due to appreciation in the value of gold because of its scarcity. There being no scarcity, but on the contrary a much greater supply than ever, there can, of course, be no appreciation in its value. Hence the fall in prices is shown to have been due to other causes, frequently pointed out in this department of THE CENTURY, the chief of which are improved methods of production and transportation. If this were not the case, and if gold were responsible for the decline, then the increased supply of gold ought to cause a rise in prices all over the world. The fact that this rise has not come, although the increase has been in progress for several years, puts an end to that discussion.

The aspect of the question of most interest to Americans is, Why is it that the United States, alone among the great nations of the world, is having difficulty in obtaining and maintaining a sufficient reserve of gold to preserve its credit? The answer to this is very easy. It is because the United States is the only great nation in the world which is in the banking business as a nation. All others leave the banking business to private banks, to be conducted by private persons under such restrictions and safeguards by the government as insure protection to the people. We are in a continual struggle to get what portion we need of the gold supply of the world because our financial system is working continually to send gold away from us. As Secretary Carlisle aptly terms it, it is an endless chain passing through the treasury and conveying out the gold which has been put in. We pay for this every year great sums in the way of premiums on the gold that we have to buy. We have rolled up a debt of several hundred millions for no other purpose than to enable us to keep up a system which makes the debt a necessity in order to maintain our public credit. In other words, we threaten our credit

by maintaining a defective financial system, and then incur debt to escape the consequences.

When Congress is asked to abolish this system and substitute one more in accordance with our needs, and in accordance also with enlightened finance as practised by the rest of the civilized world, it refuses to do anything of the kind. It not only insists upon retaining the old system, but insists also that we shall pay a far higher rate of interest than is necessary this year upon the debt which we incur to sustain our threatened credit. We paid $16,000,000 more than was necessary on a single item of this debt in 1895, and are likely to pay a larger sum upon another item. Sooner or later the folly of all this will be recognized by the people, and then we shall have a system of national finance which will be a credit to the national intelligence, as well as an incalculable boom to national prosperity. A system which would remove forever all doubt about our credit by making it absolutely certain that all our obligations would be paid in gold, would send through every avenue of trade and industry a thrill of confidence, a feeling of stability, which would be worth untold millions to us as a people. It would bring among us from Europe vast sums of hoarded wealth which are now eagerly seeking investment, but fear to come to us because of the menace which our present currency system holds over our national credit. What this would mean to our national development every intelligent man can picture for himself. We have not sufficient capital to develop to anything approaching their full extent the extraordinary resources of this country. We need the aid of the idle capital of Europe, and if we could get that, as we should get it with a financial system that was above suspicion, we should enter upon a career of prosperity far exceeding anything we have ever known. Why cannot we develop a race of statesmen who will be able to comprehend this magnificent opportunity and secure it for us?

Two Ways of Teaching English.

THERE are few harsher and more melancholy contrasts observable at present than that between the training of French and of American youth in the knowledge of their respective literatures, and between the consequent ways of using language which the public men of the two countries display. In France boys are taught three things of which American school students are mainly ignorant: the political history of their country, the general outline of their literature, and the exact niceties of their vernacular. A Yale or Harvard freshman may know the history of Greece superficially, but he knows it better than the history of England or of the United States; his knowledge of Homer, Vergil, Plato, and Cæsar may be unscholarly, but it is more trustworthy than his knowledge of Shakspere, Milton, and Swift; and whatever the result of his labors may show, he has spent far more time on his Greek and Latin sentences than on his English. Fortunately, public sentiment has become so thoroughly aroused on this subject that just now there is no more interesting educational question than the teaching of English. Recent reports show that the experts are all agreed on the diagnosis; as to the remedy we naturally find the customary divergence.

Two dangers loom up in the path of reform. First, that of exalting pedagogical method at the expense of the teacher's personality; second, that of placing mere training in composition superior to familiarity with good literature. The country is suffering at present from an acute attack of pedagogical psychology in its most malignant form; so that some zealous teachers spend more time on the study of method than on two things vastly more important—their specialty and human nature. Nothing is more vicious than to suppose that a man with a «psycho-pedagogical» method can teach either school or college students without a sympathetic and personal knowledge of his pupils. Much of the popular pedagogy of to-day is all moonshine, because the natural-born teacher (and there are many such) does not need so elaborate an apparatus, and the pedagogue who has no natural gift is deluded into thinking that this new-fangled machinery of soul-development is all that is required. There are really only two things the successful teacher needs to have—knowledge of his subject-matter and knowledge of his pupils. The first of these can be gained only by study, the second only by experience. The man who has never been a real child himself cannot effectively teach children; and he who does not know by experience the warm-hearted, exuberant gaiety of school and college boys cannot successfully teach them. Furthermore, the teacher who spends more time on the method of teaching literature than on literature itself is sure to come to grief. Greatest of all forces is the personality of the instructor: nothing in teaching is so effective as this; nothing is so instantly recognized and responded to by pupils; and nothing is more neglected by those who insist that teaching is a science rather than an art. After hearing a convention of very serious pedagogues discuss educational methods, in which they use all sorts of technical phraseology, one feels like applying Gladstone's cablegram, «Only common sense required.»

The second danger which threatens the progress of reform is the supposition, very generally accepted in some high circles, that the pupil, in order to write good English, may profitably neglect literature, if only he steadily write compositions. We are told that the way to become a good writer is to write; this sounds plausible, like many other pretty sayings equally remote from fact. No one thinks that the way to become a good medical practitioner is to practise; that is the method of quacks. The best way, indeed, to become a good writer is to be born of the right sort of parents; this fundamental step having been unaccountably neglected by many children, the instructor has to do what he can with second- or third-class material. Now a wide reader is usually a correct writer; and he has reached the goal in the most delightful manner, without feeling the penalty of Adam. What teacher ever found in his classes a boy who knew his Bible, who enjoyed Shakspere, and who loved Scott, yet who, with this outfit, wrote illiterate compositions? This youth writes well principally because he has something to say, for reading maketh a full man; and he knows what correct writing is in the same way that he knows his friends—by intimate acquaintance. No amount of mere grammatical and rhetorical training, nor even of constant practice in the art of composition, can attain the result reached by the child who reads good books because he loves to read them. We would not take the

extreme position taken by some, that all practice in theme-writing is time thrown away; but after a costly experience of the drudgery that composition work forces on teacher and pupil, we would say emphatically that there is no educational method at present that involves so enormous an outlay of time, energy, and money, with so correspondingly small a result. To neglect the teaching of literature for the teaching of composition, or to assert that the second is the more important, is like showing a hungry man how to work his jaws instead of giving him something to eat. In order to support this with evidence, let us take the experience of a specialist who investigated the question by reading many hundred sophomore compositions in two of our leading colleges, where the natural capacity and previous training of the students were fairly equal. In one college every freshman wrote themes steadily through the year, with an accompaniment of sound instruction in rhetorical principles; in the other college every freshman studied Shakspere, with absolutely no training in rhetoric and with no practice in composition. A comparison of the themes written in their sophomore year by these students showed that technically the two were fully on a par. That is weighty and most significant testimony.

If the teachers of English in secondary schools were people of real culture themselves, who both knew and loved literature, who tried to make it attractive to their pupils, and who were given a sufficient time-allotment to read a number of standard books with their classes, the composition question would largely take care of itself. Mere training in theme-writing can never take the place of the acquisition of ideas, and the boy who thinks interesting thoughts will usually write not only more attractively, but more correctly, than the one who has worked tread-mill fashion in sentence and paragraph architecture. The difference in the teacher's happiness, vitality, and consequent effectiveness is too obvious to mention.

The Century's Printer on The Century's Type.

THE first number of this magazine (November, 1870) appeared in a modernized old-style type which was then something of a novelty. It had never been used in any similar publication, and it gave distinction to the page. It had authority in its favor, as the outgrowth of a style introduced by William Caslon of London about 1720, and then so pleasingly cut that it broke down every attempt at rivalry. For seventy years it was commended as incomparably the best cut of type,

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuv

STYLE OF THORNE.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzM

STYLE OF DIDOT.

Quousque tandem abutêre, C

STYLE OF BODONI.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzWLNCMI

A FAVORITE FRENCH STYLE.

The Poetic style is more condensed, with more of sharp hair-line.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxy

A LIGHT-FACE STYLE.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzZIB

A SCOTCH-FACE.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzMH

STYLE OF THE FIRST CASLON.

but it went out of fashion. At the beginning of the present century readers complained of its angularity and grayness. They demanded new styles, and type-founders provided them in profusion: the Thorne fat-face, of prodigious blackness; the Didot round-face, not quite as black or fat-faced; the Bodoni face, with round letters and sharp hair-lines; the French poetic-face, compressed to the extreme of tenuity; the so-called Scotch-face (really devised by the late S. N. Dickinson of Boston, although first cut in Edinburgh); and worst of all, the skeleton light-face, with its razor-edged hair-lines and needle-like points at the ends of stems. The types in fashion during the first third of this century were properly stigmatized by Hansard as disorderly, heterogeneous, and disgraceful: readers tired of them.

When Pickering and Whittingham revived the Caslon old-style in 1850, using the identical matrices of the old master, the connoisseurs said, «Now at last we have returned to simplicity and beauty: this is perfection.» Yet it was admired by bibliophiles only; dainty readers did not approve of its angular letters and its disproportioned capitals. Accepted for reprints of old books, it was rejected for modern work. To make it palatable to the general reader, type-founders devised a «modernized old-style,» in which harsh features were modified and new features of greater delicacy were added. So changed, it became a more salable letter, but it never found marked favor with the ordinary newspaper or the book publisher. Critics said of it that the strong features of the Caslon face had been suppressed, and that the new features were no improvement; that it had been made lighter, sharper, and broader, until its true character had been cut to pieces. Bibliophiles still prefer the cut of Caslon; with all its admitted faults, it is blacker,

clearer, and more readable. The average reader rejects the angularities of the old and the new cut, and prefers the symmetry of types of modern fashion.

In the bewildering variety of faces devised during this century, one peculiarity, the sharp hair-line (a fashion introduced by Bodoni and Didot, in imitation of the delicate lines of the copper-plate printer), has never been changed. When printing was done upon wet paper, against an elastic blanket, the hair-line was necessarily thickened by its impress against the yielding paper, which overlapped the sides of every line. Under this treatment the hair-line appeared thicker in print than in type, and was unobjectionable to printer or reader; but when the new method began (as it did in 1872) of printing on dry and smooth paper against an inelastic surface, the hair-lines and light faces of types were not thickened at all. From an engraver's point of view, new types so printed were exquisitely sharp and clean; but from a reader's point of view, the general effect of the print was relatively mean and wiry, gray and feeble. Each letter lost some of its individuality. A reader of imperfect eyesight could not see the razor-edged hair-lines that connected the thicker strokes; he had to guess at the identity of many letters. A new style of delicate but weak presswork came in fashion. The readable presswork produced by all good printers during the first half of this century was supplanted by feeble impressions that compelled continual strain of eyesight.

In the mean time a great change has taken place in the taste of readers, who have wearied of light types and gray impressions. There is an unmistakable demand for bold and stronger print. William Morris has printed books in many styles of letters; all of them are black and rugged, yet they find readers and buyers. American type-founders have recently introduced other styles of bold and black letter—for publishers and advertisers, as well as for bibliophiles. The «Jenson,» the «Monotone,» and the «De Vinne» are in high favor with all, not for their novelty of form, but for their greater legibility. With these evidences before them of a general preference for bolder types, the publishers of THE CENTURY decided that they would swim with the tide, and have new types of larger face and thicker hair-lines.

According to old rules, roman types would be bolder and more readable when made larger and wider. Experiments made with broad letters proved that increased expansion did not always secure increased legibility. The broad and round faces which seemed so beautiful in the large-margined pages of Bodoni and Didot were not all beautiful (quite the reverse) when printed in double columns on a page with narrow margins. To use types in which the thick strokes of each type are unduly spread apart on a page with narrow margins is an incongruity that cannot be justified. When margins are ample, and space is not pinched, types may be broad and even expanded. When the page is over-full, the types should be compressed to suit the changed condition. The fault of over-broad type is most noticed in books of poetry, in which the narrowness of the measure compels an overturning and mangling of lines, a waste of space, and needless irritation to the reader. Experiment proved that a book-type moderately compressed and properly cut was as readable as a round or expanded type. Compressed types, first made in Holland in 1732, ever since have been more largely used than types of any other cut by the printers of France and southern Europe. In dictionaries, and books of two or more columns to the page, the compressed face is a necessity. The slightness of the compression in this new face will be perceived at a glance in a comparison of the alphabets of the old and the new face as here submitted. The new face is as

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzABCDEFGHIJS

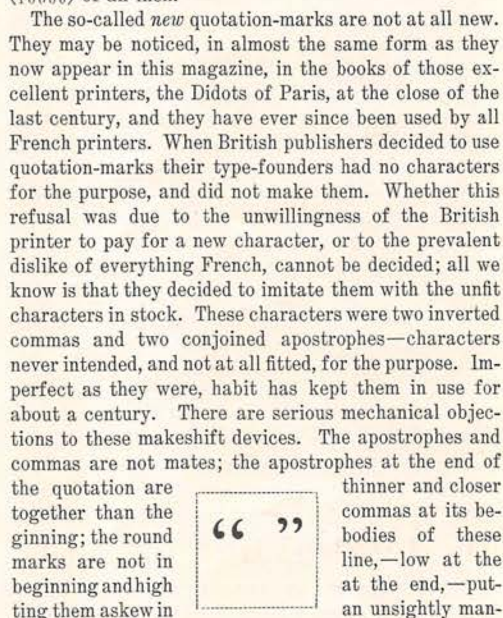
THE NEW FACE.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyzABCDEFGHL

THE OLD FACE.

wide as the old; it has as much open-space within as without each letter, and as many letters to the line; it has the greater clearness of a thickened hair-line. It seems to be compressed only because it is taller, but this increase of height is only sixty-five ten-thousandths ($\frac{65}{10000}$) of an inch.

The so-called *new* quotation-marks are not at all new. They may be noticed, in almost the same form as they now appear in this magazine, in the books of those excellent printers, the Didots of Paris, at the close of the last century, and they have ever since been used by all French printers. When British publishers decided to use quotation-marks their type-founders had no characters for the purpose, and did not make them. Whether this refusal was due to the unwillingness of the British printer to pay for a new character, or to the prevalent dislike of everything French, cannot be decided; all we know is that they decided to imitate them with the unfit characters in stock. These characters were two inverted commas and two conjoined apostrophes—characters never intended, and not at all fitted, for the purpose. Imperfect as they were, habit has kept them in use for about a century. There are serious mechanical objections to these makeshift devices. The apostrophes and commas are not mates; the apostrophes at the end of the quotation are thinner and closer together than the commas at its beginning; the round bodies of these marks are not in line,—low at the beginning and high at the end,—putting them askew in an unsightly manner.



They are the only characters in ordinary use that are thrust up at the top of the line. It follows that they leave an ungainly blotch of white below, and so produce an appearance of uneven and unworkmanlike spacing. For this reason, if for no other, the form should be altered. The German method of marking quotations with special characters is but a trifle more uncouth, viz.: „ “ The simplicity of the French quotes have led to their general adoption in Spain and Italy: their adoption by American and English printers is only a question of time.

For more than fifty years critics have complained of the feeble printing of new books. «Why not use blacker ink? Why not give us the readable pages we find in old books?» It is a sufficient answer to this protest to say that upon the sharp-lined and narrow-stemmed types now in greatest use strong and bold presswork is simply impossible. One might as well try to write boldly with a crow-quill pen. The new type here presented attempts only one correction, and that is the great fault of an

over-sharp hair-line. It is only a short step toward the general improvement desired, yet it is a step in the right direction, as may be seen in the approving criticisms that follow.

Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. write that they «entirely approve of your successful attempt at a text-type with thickened hair-lines.» Of course they prefer the smaller and rounder face devised years ago by the late Henry O. Houghton, after a lifelong dissatisfaction with the weak types of his time; but they admit that THE CENTURY face is wonderful for the effect it produces of a large size on a relatively small body.

Mr. J. A. St. John, an expert designer of many approved styles of type, writes: «I note very little to change in the new face.»

Mr. J. S. Cushing of the Norwood Press congratulates us «upon having at last got the right thing; the types make a handsome page; it is the most readable long-primer I ever saw. The new quotation-marks are a little hard to become accustomed to at first, but on the whole I like them very much when used double; the single quotes are not so pleasing. The small type is remarkably beautiful.»

Mr. J. W. Phinney, manager of the Dickinson Type-Foundry of Boston, writes that «the shapes and widths of the letters are excellent, and the completeness in detail noticeable. The relation between the lower-case, capitals and small capitals is perfect—the most complete that I have ever seen in any roman face. The French quotes, the setwise beveled dash, etc., are pleasing innovations that should have been made years ago.»

The story of the designing of this face is too full of technical detail to interest the casual reader. Perhaps it is enough to say that each character (first drawn on the enlarged scale of ten inches high) was scrutinized by editor and publisher, printer and engraver, and often repeatedly altered before it was put in the form of a working model. Only a maker of instruments of precision can appreciate the subservient tools, gauges, and machines that show aberrations of a ten-thousandth part of an inch; only an expert punch-cutter can understand why minute geometrical accuracy was a work of necessity upon some letters, and why it was discarded in others, for the humoring of optical illusions in the reader. Type-making does not tell its story; like other arts, it hides its methods.

Theodore L. De Vinne.

College Women and Matrimony, again.

THE article by Miss Shinn on «The Marriage Rate of College Women,» published in the October CENTURY, has attracted wide attention. It was of special interest to me, because I had just prepared a somewhat similar article on the careers of Vassar women, which was published in the November «Forum.» Miss Shinn based her calculations on the register of the A. C. A. (Association of Collegiate Alumnæ), which gives the names and addresses of 1805 women, graduates of fifteen separate and coeducational colleges. I took the records of a single college, Vassar,—the only one, so far as I know, from which approximately complete information can be obtained,—and I computed percentages for 1082 women.

As Miss Shinn is a graduate of the University of California and a resident of that State, and as I am a graduate of Vassar and a resident of New Hampshire, we have the advantage of opposite points of view, both as regards location and coeducation. It occurs to me that a comparison of the two articles, with some further statements on my part, may not be uninteresting.

The register of the A. C. A. furnishes the only record of a large number of women graduates of various colleges; and yet the membership,—1805,—large as it is, is only a fraction of the whole number of women who have been graduated from these institutions. Vassar has the largest membership in the A. C. A.,—417,—about 38.5 per cent. of her graduates. Wellesley comes next, with 364 members out of 1066 graduates, a little more than 34 per cent. Smith has 287 members out of a total of 852, a little less than 34 per cent. In all these totals the class of '95 is not included, because it was not eligible to membership when the last register of the A. C. A. was issued. Of the 3000 alumnæ of these three colleges only 1068 are members of the A. C. A.

Twelve other colleges—all coeducational but Bryn Mawr—are represented by a membership of 737. It is not easy to obtain facts about the alumnæ of so many coeducational colleges, but if their representation is no larger in proportion than that of the separate colleges, the A. C. A., important society as it is, contains only little more than one third of the whole number of college women in the country.

Possibly Miss Shinn's conclusions, just as they are in the main, might have been modified if she could have obtained facts about a proportionately larger number of college women. This idea was suggested by several of her statements. She says the majority of college women are school-teachers, and mentions that 63 per cent. of the California branch of the A. C. A. are thus engaged. In the whole number of Vassar graduates, including all those recorded as having taught in any way for one year or more, I find only 37.6 per cent. This may be partly due to the fact, which I have seen stated, that graduates of a coeducational college, of which the California branch contains many, are more likely to engage in a gainful occupation than the graduates of a woman's college. But another reason may be that the A. C. A. draws its membership more largely from teachers than from any other class. In the multiplicity of societies and clubs of the present day women are obliged to make a selection, and perhaps the A. C. A. may appeal more strongly to teachers than to domestic women, especially when the latter live in towns remote from the great centers.

Miss Shinn finds only thirty-four physicians in the A. C. A., and very few graduates engaged in other professions or in business. In this I think either the facts must be wanting, or that the A. C. A. must contain an abnormally large proportion of teachers. In the roll of Vassar alumnæ, which contains less than 60 per cent. as many names as the A. C. A., I found twenty-five physicians, and was surprised to find the number so small. There ought to be at least forty-two in the A. C. A., if it contains the proportion that even one woman's college shows.

The register of the A. C. A., giving, as it does, merely the addresses and advanced degrees of its mem-

bers, furnishes but little hint of their occupations, else I think Miss Shinn would have discovered more variety. In the roll of Vassar alumnæ I find forty-seven literary workers (including authors, editors, and journalists), sixteen teachers of arts, twelve writers of scientific papers (some of them known in Europe as well as in America), and six librarians; of artists and farmers, five each; of chemists and missionaries, four each; of astronomers, dictionary editors, and secretaries, three each; of organists, mathematical computers, and heads of college settlements, two each. There are also nineteen pursuits that engage one member each. Among the members following a unique occupation are a major in the Salvation Army of London, a treasurer of a lumber company, a manager of a manufacturing business, a manager of a newspaper, a bank director, and a superintendent of cooking. There is also a lawyer in practice, which I did not know when the «Forum» article was written.

While this record presents a cheerful variety, I am nevertheless inclined to indorse Miss Shinn's statement that «the present type of college woman is conservative, retiring, and more apt to disappoint expectation by differing too little rather than too much from other respectable, conventional folk—exactly as college men do.» I indorse this statement, because I find that in the whole roll of Vassar alumnæ over seventy-five per cent. are engaged in matrimony or teaching—two time-honored professions which certainly could be followed by women who had never received the degree of A. B., however much that degree may fit its recipients for the better pursuit of these two callings.[1]

Another reason that makes me agree with Miss Shinn that college women are conservative and retiring is the large number of alumnæ who have taken postgraduate degrees. In the Vassar list I find that sixty-four have taken advanced degrees, and that twenty-two are studying with that end in view. This may seem a gratifying evidence of scholarly ability, and in one sense it is. On the other hand, it does not indicate a capacity for initiative, for independent action. There can be nothing more delightful to a person of scholarly tastes than to go on acquiring knowledge indefinitely; but such a course often tends to personal gratification rather than to the benefit of the world. Nearly all these A. M.'s and Ph. D.'s will follow the profession of teaching, a profession that already contains an excess of women. The quality of mind or character that impels a graduate to strike out into new paths seems to me superior to that which simply urges one to continue a little farther in the well-trodden way.

All this is preliminary to the vital question, Do college women marry? Every candid observer must agree with Miss Shinn that college women marry comparatively late in life, and most observers will agree with her that the marriage rate is lower among them than among women in general. Miss Shinn bases her final statements on the matrimonial condition of women of forty years and over. She finds that of the graduates past that age 56.9 per cent. of those from coeducational colleges, and 51.8 per cent. of those from separate colleges, have married.

As I pointed out in my «Forum» article, until a whole generation of college women shall have reached a good old age and been gathered to their fathers, it is impossible to present other than tentative matrimonial statistics. Most of the Vassar graduates are not yet dead, and while there is life there is hope. The four earliest Vassar classes have passed their twenty-fifth anniversary, and on them I rested my conclusion. Of these classes sixty-one of the ninety-seven members, or about 63 per cent., have married. I concluded, therefore, that a college woman's chances of marriage are not quite two to one. I made allowance for the fact, however, that her opportunities increase with age, and that when we are able to compute the percentages for classes that have passed their fiftieth anniversary we may find a larger number of matrons.

It had not occurred to me till I read Miss Shinn's article to make forty years the limit of hope for maiden graduates. Reckoning on that basis, the eleven earliest Vassar classes—those from '67 to '77 inclusive—show a proportion of 53.5 per cent. married, a rate slightly in excess of the 51.8 per cent. record for woman's colleges as shown by the A. C. A. If the marriage rate for Vassar women jumps from 53.5 per cent. at forty years to about 63 per cent. at forty-seven years, everybody ought certainly to feel encouraged.

Miss Shinn makes one striking statement, which I think she did not intend to be taken literally. She says that «there is no station in life (save that of a nun) so inimical to marriage as that of resident teacher in a girls' school.» It is true that teachers in girls' schools are not thrown much into the society of marriageable men during term time; but many of these teachers have homes of their own, and social opportunities during at least a quarter of the year. Of the two classes of school work, I should say that that in the public schools, especially in the East, would be more likely to be inimical to marriage than that in private schools. Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, speaking from the New York point of view, and Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, speaking from that of Boston, have publicly asserted within a year—to our shame be it spoken—that we do not accord social position to the teachers in our public schools.

I tried to find some Vassar statistics that would throw light on this subject, but was only partly successful. Of the 821 members in the classes from '67 to '89 inclusive (I omit the later classes because the records are less complete), I find that 319 are recorded as having taught. Of these 108 are married and 211 are unmarried. This would seem to show that teaching as an occupation is unfriendly to marriage; but when we consider that many of the married graduates neglect to state the fact that they have ever taught, and that many of the now unmarried teachers will ultimately marry, the disproportion is not so great as at first appears. I made no attempt to separate public from private school work or from college instruction, because I found many teachers had been successively engaged in all three kinds.

In addition to the wise suggestions that Miss Shinn makes about the reasons why more college women do not marry, I should like to mention one other, which

[1] At the present time, including all Vassar alumnæ, I find the seventy-five per cent. about equally divided between the two occupations; but after a lapse of twenty-five years from graduation, I find about sixty-three per cent. enrolled as matrons, and only about eighteen per cent. as teachers.

would influence women without fortune, and that is the bread-and-butter problem. Most graduates who must immediately earn money go to teaching. While there is undoubtedly a very respectable minority of college women who teach because they like it, it is probably safe to say that more than half of those thus engaged feel the need of some gainful occupation.

Statistics in regard to the wage-earning power of college women are not yet available; but from my own observation I should say that salaries range from $500 a year in the public schools to $2500 a year in a college professorship. There are many instances where the heads of private schools in large cities earn much more than the latter figure, but the success of schools of that sort depends upon the ability of the principal as a business manager rather than upon her qualifications as a teacher. As a guess, I should say that the average salary of the alumna teacher would be below rather than above $1000 a year. This may seem a small sum to many eyes, but it is sufficient to support a single woman of simple and scholarly tastes. There are many professors, clergymen, and other graduates of men's colleges whose salaries are not much more than twice that amount. If such a woman marries such a man she loses all her own salary without adding to his, and who is to provide for the growing family?

This is a problem that is affecting all classes of society. In many branches of work, such as type-setting, stenography, certain clerkships, etc., women are now paid as much as men. I have heard of a case where a girl earning $60 a month resigned her position in order to marry a man whose salary was $40 a month; but such instances of devotion are rare. It is not college women alone, but women throughout the country, who are yearly looking less and less upon marriage as a means of support. I do not say that the majority of marriages in the past have been mercenary, but as women increase in financial independence the time may come when contracts of that sort may be eliminated altogether.

I would like to bear testimony to the carefulness of Miss Shinn's investigations and the reasonableness of her conclusions. At the same time I feel like repeating what I said in the «Forum» about the impossibility of writing the history of a living institution, especially of one so young as a woman's college. The most that any statistician can do is to throw side-lights on the subject; yet these side-lights are very welcome, especially when they come from various points of view.

One thing is certain: no amount of discouraging marriage percentages is going to deter the modern girl from going to college. Smith, Wellesley, Vassar, and Bryn Mawr have this year, in round numbers, 2500 students. Their doors are filled to bursting, but the pressure keeps increasing. I am afraid the attitude of the modern college youth and maiden may get to be that in the parody of the old song:

> "Then I won't marry you, my pretty maid."
> "Nobody asked you, sir," she said.

But whatever the result, the fact is fixed. Woman, having once tasted of the fruit of the tree of knowledge, will not be content to renounce it. The old universities are everywhere recognizing this demand, and there is scarcely one that does not now provide an annex or postgraduate opportunities for the sex that a few decades ago was thought incapable of mastering mathematics more abstruse than the rule of three, or accomplishments more difficult than that of embroidering mourning pieces on satin.

Frances M. Abbott.

IN LIGHTER VEIN

The Girl in Yellow.

(A COLOR-STUDY.)

«TIRED? Yes, and sleepy. This sort of thing bores me unspeakably after daybreak. Screen me, dear boy, while I yawn. She 's dancing still. Hang it! I try to be at the studio by ten; she sleeps till eleven—twelve—breakfasts in bed, you know. Thanks. Awfully glad you like her. Clever woman? Yes. Fascinating? Yes. Sympathetic? H'm, yes. Diplomatic? Oh, decidedly. Heigh-ho!

«Do you see that long-necked yellow thing lording it over the bric-à-brac on the cabinet over there? Wonderful color, yellow,—dominating, egotistic, tyrannical! Jove! how it cries down and snuffs out the tender beauty of all cool tints and shades! Did n't you ever notice it? Why, just look at that exquisite Dresden, that pale, beautiful stuff—what d' you call it?—paralyzed, simply paralyzed, by that long-necked thing! By the same token, all pink-and-white women, the pearl and lilac-shaded (the truly feminine and clinging type), and all with iron in their blood (the red-haired, you know—and, by Jove! there 's nothing like them for sport), should avoid yellow, ordinarily, as they would a yellow flag hanging out of a window. To the brunette it is a powerful ally.

«You remember the first time I went to Maryland? The day after I got there—Sunday afternoon it was—Phil took me to make a call in the country. What a place for a flirtation! (I 'll take you down some time, and introduce you to the girls.) Well, there was a garden full of nooks, and there was a wharf you could get under in a rowboat at low tide,—nice and cool in the heat of the day, with a crab-line and a girl, I can tell you!—and there were a lot of straw-stacks and hammocks. I got to know it all pretty well afterward. Now I live over its possibilities in my dreams.

TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Possibilities of Permanent Arbitration.

FOR centuries philosophers and statesmen who could look beyond the rivalries and contentions of the moment have hoped for the coming of a time when reason should be substituted for force in the settlement of international differences. As a means to this end, they have suggested the establishment of an international tribunal, to which all disputes that could not otherwise be adjusted should be referred. But to the fulfilment of this aspiration there have been various obstacles, not the least of which were the distrust of new experiments and the various notions comprehended by the term «national honor.»

Nations have felt precisely the same objections to submitting disputes to arbitration that were formerly felt by individuals to submitting their differences to judicial tribunals. In the dawn of civilization we often find, even in judicial processes, an admixture of forcible contention, indicative of the transition from a period when rights were regulated by the strong hand. So, among the early writers on the law of nations we find various measures of force, now practically fallen into desuetude, enumerated among the peaceful methods of redress. While these things show that changes in the conduct of men proceed from changes in their ideas and dispositions, and that changes in their ideas and dispositions for the most part progress slowly, yet they demonstrate the fact that some advance has been made toward the perception of the principle that human reason is capable of solving differences as well as of creating them, and that it is not a mere adjunct to the «fighting and quarreling» propensity. Although the present century was ushered in in the midst of a period of destructive wars, and its history will contain the record of many bloody conflicts, nevertheless it has also witnessed the growth of the practice of international arbitration, and its application to disputes for the adjustment of which it would formerly have been considered entirely inadequate. The method has been shown to be efficacious as well as comprehensive. While in a few instances an award has been voluntarily set aside or left unenforced, in no case have two nations, after having agreed to arbitrate a difference, gone to war about it; and among the controversies submitted to judgment there have been many questions of the greatest delicacy and importance. The possibilities of international arbitration, as well as its beneficent results, have been most conspicuously illustrated in the relations between the United States and Great Britain. In the treaty of 1794, commonly called the «Jay treaty,» which was concluded under the administration of Washington, provision was made for three distinct arbitrations. Of these two related to differences growing out of the treaty of peace of 1783. The third related to claims involving important questions of law, including that of contraband, the rights of neutrals, and the finality of the decisions of prize courts. Since that time all disputes between the United States and England, except those that, springing from the Napoleonic wars, led to the War of 1812, have been adjusted either by direct negotiation or by arbitration. In all there have been between these two great English-speaking nations nearly or quite twenty distinct arbitrations, of which that concerning the Bering Sea dispute is the latest example. It can hardly be considered impracticable to agree to do in the next fifty years what, without agreement, we have uniformly done in the last fifty, and yet it is in this very point of agreement in advance that the highest efficacy of arbitration lies.

Of all the Anglo-American arbitrations that of Geneva in respect to the *Alabama* claims most signally demonstrates the possibilities of the method. Not only were the questions at issue grave and momentous, but they were held to involve the honor of both countries. Yet by persistent, temperate, courteous discussion they were brought at last to a peaceful international judgment, in which, as has justly been said, «two great and powerful nations, gaining in wisdom and self-control, and losing nothing in patriotism or self-respect, taught the world that the magnitude of a controversy need not be a bar to its peaceful solution.»

The real obstacle in the way of international arbitration is not so much a lack of efficacy in the method, as the lack of a disposition to try it. The system of arbitration necessarily presupposes that nations desire an amicable adjustment of their differences. Such an adjustment may be prevented either by a wilful opposition to it, or by the adoption of a style of controversy that renders argument impracticable. Against such obstacles it is difficult to contend, since their direct tendency and effect is to bring about a collision before an arbitrator can intervene. It is obvious that arbitration can no more afford an absolute safeguard against such contingencies than can a system of municipal law absolutely prevent men from attempting to settle their differences by fighting in the street, if they desire thus to revert to primal conditions. Yet severe penalties, strictly enforced, may reduce such chances to a minimum; and it is conceivable that a scheme of international action might be devised so comprehensive as to render a resort to war exceedingly difficult and hazardous.

History affords many examples, now happily becoming less frequent, of aggressive wars or wars of ambition. Against such wars a remedy was suggested in the unratified treaty of arbitration adopted in 1890 by the International American Conference. By this treaty it was proposed to adopt arbitration as a principle of international law, and to make it obligatory not only in controversies concerning diplomatic and consular privileges, boundaries, indemnities, the right of navigation, and the validity, construction, and enforcement of treaties, but also in all other cases, whatever might be their origin, nature, or object, with the single exception

of cases in which, in the judgment of one of the parties, its independence was imperiled. In such cases, for the latter nation arbitration was to be optional, but it was to be obligatory on the adversary power. The object of this provision was to leave to each nation the right of self-defense, while forbidding any to commit aggression. It is sometimes lightly observed that all questions could be settled by arbitration if we could only find a perfect arbitrator. This observation would apply with equal cogency to all judicial proceedings. The question is not whether our judges render perfect judgments, but whether we should obtain better results by abolishing the courts and leaving it to each individual to seek his rights by force. No sane man would advocate the affirmative of such a proposition. Arbitration between nations signifies the same thing as the existence of the ordinary judicial courts. It means the substitution of reason for force as a means of decision. That its possibilities are great has already been demonstrated; that they will grow with the development of a disposition to peace is unquestionable. An indication of this tendency may be found in the abhorrence of war by great commanders. The sentiment of Wellington, «Nothing except a battle lost can be half so melancholy as a battle won,» was expressed more bluntly by General Sherman: «Do you know what war is? War is hell!» while General Grant, speaking with direct pertinence to the subject of arbitration, said: «Though I have been trained as a soldier, and have participated in many battles, there never was a time when, in my opinion, some way could not have been found of preventing the drawing of the sword. I look forward to an epoch when a court, recognized by all nations, will settle international differences, instead of keeping large standing armies, as they do in Europe.»

Patriotism that Costs.

It was the Rev. Dr. John W. Chadwick, we believe, who said that our modern politicians had improved upon Dr. Johnson; for while he made patriotism the *last* refuge of a scoundrel, they had made it the *first*. Pushing this idea a little further, we think it can be said that many persons far removed from either politicians or scoundrels have found in patriotism an easy and ample refuge both first and last from the arduous duties of citizenship. It is so much easier to denounce foreigners than to work earnestly and persistently for better municipal government, so much easier to get into a furor of patriotism over some alleged insult by a foreign country than to drive bossism from State and national politics and secure for the people wise and beneficent laws, that statesmen and journalists and ambitious politicians choose that as the swiftest and easiest road to popularity. Nobody ever heard of a boss or a spoils politician who was not intensely patriotic. An amusing illustration on this point was furnished by the haste and fury with which Tammany declared war against England at the outbreak of the Venezuelan controversy. This was not interpreted as meaning that Tammany's leaders would enlist and go to the front, but that they saw in the excitement which war would engender an opportunity to slip back into possession of the government of the city of New York. They seized upon patriotism as a shield for their political depravity, in the same way that good citizens have too often seized upon it as a shield for their negligence in not extirpating that depravity. In this way patriotism covers a great multitude of sins which are committed in its name against the country's welfare and honor. The patriots of whom the country stands most in need to-day are those who are willing to take trouble—tedious, patient, unwearying trouble—to give us better government. We need to realize as a people that the way to make our country great and to win for it the respect of mankind is not to shout constantly that we are the greatest nation in the world, but to show that we are capable of self-government. It is folly to brag of our greatness and then have to confess that popular government in our cities is a disgraceful failure, that our State legislatures are growing steadily less competent, and that our Congresses are becoming year by year more of a menace to the well-being of the country. We must awake to the fact that our enemies are not without, but within, our borders. No foreign power is doing us a hundredth part of the harm that our bosses are doing; for they, by their control of nominating conventions and legislative bodies, are, in Lowell's phrase, «slowly but surely filching from us the whole of our country—all, at least, that made it the best to live in and the easiest to die for.» We cannot shake off our responsibility for this condition of affairs; for, as Lowell adds in the same address from which we have quoted, «we are certainly responsible if the door to distinction be made so narrow and so low as to admit only petty and crouching men.»

Why is it that as a nation we are so quick to resent an insult to our flag abroad, and yet are willing to bear without serious remonstrance the disgrace of having ignorant and corrupt bosses as our despots, they having really deprived us of popular government by taking power into their own hands? Is there not something the matter with our patriotism when such a condition of mind as this exists? We are not merely indifferent to our political state, but we are able to treat it as a matter for joking, and are scarcely shocked at all by the daily revelations of our abject subserviency. Indeed, an alarmingly large number of people look upon boss rule as the necessary outcome of our form of government, and say that with universal suffrage nothing better can be hoped for

Here is a field for true patriotism the like of which can be found nowhere else. The amount of work to be done is sufficient to command the energies of all intelligent Americans. To overthrow the bosses and their methods, to establish in place of the low and narrow door to political distinction a high and broad one, all men who love their country must go into politics, into the primaries and nominating conventions, and insist upon their right to select the candidates. It is said by some, in excuse of the present indifferent character of candidates for legislative and other offices, that first-rate men will not consent to accept nominations; but experience has shown that this is a mistake. It is very seldom that much trouble is found in inducing men of character to stand for public office, provided they can be assured that they will be faithfully supported, and will have to make no compromising pledges in return for the nomination. Politics can be purified if the people will insist upon the purification. The trouble is that while the politicians work every day in the year to keep politics down to their

level, their opponents work only spasmodically, usually a few weeks before election, and during the remainder of the year dismiss the subject from their minds.

It requires great fervor of patriotism to carry on this work, but he must be a very poor American who is willing to admit that there is not enough of saving grace in our people to produce a sufficient body of men to accomplish it. The kind of patriotism required is of the highest order. It must be willing to give time and labor and money, to sacrifice the best that a man has on the altar of his country. It is undoubtedly more prosaic than dying for one's country on the field of battle, but the man who devotes his life to preserving the honor of his country and perpetuating free government is as much a hero as the one who falls upon the field of battle. Happily there is no demand for him to prove his patriotism in war, while there is a great and pressing demand for him to prove it in the peaceful duties of citizenship. He is not the truest or most useful patriot who boasts of his willingness to fight for his country in a war which may never come or ought never to come, but he who gives her his service in a struggle that is already in progress. What our country is in need of to-day is an army of patriots who will enlist for the extermination of an army of political pirates and freebooters who are slowly but surely filching from us all «that made it the best to live in and the easiest to die for.» We need recruits in every town and village and great city, men who will not give up the fight till the victory is won. This is a patriotism which tries men's souls, for it calls for quiet, self-sacrificing, unremitting labor; but it is the only patriotism which will save American institutions from destruction, and make the American name, as the symbol of human progress, honored throughout the world.

Plain Words to Californians.

It is announced that during the month of May of the present year there will be held in the city of New York a unique and significant exposition consisting entirely of the products of the State of California. But for the short-sighted and unpatriotic policy which has controlled its railway system, California would to-day be as well known in New York as any State of the middle West; and it is in keeping with the commercial enterprise of its people that in spite of such discouragements they boldly undertake to send across a continent a comprehensive exhibit of its imperial resources. It is a scheme in which Americans may well take pride, and to which they will wish the widest publicity and the highest success. From the days of the gold-hunters an air of romance and adventure has been associated with this region as with no other part of the country; and those especially who have visited this wonderful and beautiful State, and whose imagination has been touched by its possibilities of good to the race, can never divest themselves of a personal interest in anything that touches its honor or its prosperity.

Among the exhibits a prominent place will doubtless be given to photographs of the unrivaled scenery of the Yosemite Valley and its environs, as well as of the scarcely less wonderful cañons of the lower Sierra. But it is certain that one of the exhibits will not be a comparative series of views of the floor of the valley, showing it as it was, and in its various stages of deterioration through the disastrous course of «improvements» which have impaired its former beauty—a state of affairs which has come about in part innocently through a lack of knowledge of the proper method of procedure, and in part through a strongly intrenched system of tyranny and greed known as the «Yosemite Ring.»

No traveler will consider this a matter of merely local interest. Mr. John Muir, the Alaska and Sierra explorer, has well called the great gorge «the World's Yosemite Valley,» and its degradation in any respect is as much a matter of general concern as would be the defacement of the Pyramids. In January, 1890, The Century called general attention to the destructive tendencies at work—a condition of affairs long notorious in the State. At intervals since we have noted the continuance of the amateur system of management. That the wide-spread criticisms in and out of the State have had no deterrent effect is evident from the observations made by Mr. Muir during last summer. In reading his remarks which follow, it must be remembered that the valley itself, which technically is held by California in trust «for public use, resort, and recreation inalienable for all time,» has since 1890 been surrounded by a national park thirty-five times as large, which has been under military control; and that adjoining this park on the south, extending along the range, lies the Sierra Forest Reserve of over four million acres, which, for lack of similar supervision, is being desolated by sheep, by fire, and by the ax, as were the environs of the Yosemite before the establishment of the National Park. Mr. Muir says:

> The care of the national reservation by the military has been a complete success. I was delighted to find that since the cavalry have successfully kept out the sheep and prevented destructive fires, the forests are taking on their old beauty and grandeur. Before the cavalry gave protection the floor of the forest was as naked as a corral and utterly desolate. . . .
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> On the contrary, the forest reservations are still being overrun with sheep, and are as dusty, bare, and desolate as ever they were, notwithstanding the Government notices posted along the trails forbidding the pasturing of sheep, cattle, etc., under severe penalties, simply because there is no one on the ground to enforce the rules. One soldier armed with a gun and the authority of the Government is more effective than any number of paper warnings.
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> The only downtrodden, dusty, frowsy-looking part of the Sierra within the boundaries of the National Park, with the exception of a few cattle-ranches, is the Yosemite, which ought to be the gem of the whole, the garden of all the gardens of the park. When I first saw the valley its whole floor, seven miles long by about a half to three quarters of a mile wide, was one charming park, delicately beautiful, divided into groves, meadows, and flower-gardens. The vegetation was exceedingly luxuriant, and had a charmingly delicate quality of bloom that was contrasted with the grandeur of the granite walls.
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> This beauty, so easily injured, has in great part vanished through lack of appreciative care, through making the finest meadows into hay-fields, and giving up all the rest of the floor of the valley to pastures for the saddle-animals kept for the use of tourists, and also for the animals belonging to campers. . . .
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> The solution of the whole question, it seems to me, is to re-cede the valley to the Federal Government, and let it form a part of the Yosemite National Park, which naturally it is. It is the heart and gem of it, and should at least receive as much care and protection as the park surrounding. If the valley were returned to the control of the United States Government, it would be under the care of the military department, which would rigidly carry out all rules and regulations, regardless of ever-shifting politics and the small plans of interested parties for private gain. One management is enough,

and management on the Government basis would be better than one ever fluctuating with the political pulse. If that were done, the State would not be called upon for a dollar. Nearly all the members of the Sierra Club with whom I have talked favor putting an end to this political management. Only those people pecuniarily interested in roads, franchises, and other little jobs are opposed to it, as far as I have found out, though even those would be benefited by the change through increase of travel.

Mr. Muir's suggestion of recession is one that should enlist the support of every public-spirited Californian. It is idle to waste time in considering the causes of the valley's deterioration. The scandal of the present situation is well known. The State accepted the trust from the nation in 1864, but its servants have not observed the fundamental condition of the cession. If the suggestion of recession is thought humiliating, it is not half so humiliating as the continuation of the scandal. And why should the suggestion be humiliating? Continually in every State systems of administration which do not work well are being changed. The commission system has not worked well: whereas, side by side, the system of national control has redeemed the National Park—the very sources of the Yosemite waterfalls. Why should not this treasure of nature have the same admirable protection?

One word in conclusion: if recession is to be accomplished at the next meeting of the California legislature, its advocates must organize and bestir themselves now. If Mr. Muir is not cordially supported in this effort to redeem the valley and remove a blot upon the State, let not Californians any longer boast of public spirit or resent the charge of absorption in material progress.

The New Olympic Games.

IT is not alone in the United States that a reaction has set in against the excesses of athletics. Other countries recognize that the enthusiasm has gone too far, that too much energy has been thrown into play, that brutality has been fostered, and that honor has often been put at a discount in the worship of mere success. Realizing the true value of sport in its widest extension, and hoping to develop and strengthen an international sentiment in support of fairness and moderation, a number of prominent men of various nationalities have set on foot a series of standard and periodic contests to which all the world may contribute. These have already received the name of the New Olympic Games. The first of the series is to be held at Athens during the Greek Eastertide, from the fifth to the fifteenth of April; and if it shall awaken sufficient interest, others will be held at intervals of four years in Paris, London, and New York successively.

The movement began in France, and was largely due to the initiative of Baron Pierre de Coubertin, general secretary of the French Athletic Union. By his exertions a congress of delegates from the leading nationalities, most of them representing amateur associations of importance, met in the Sorbonne during May, 1894. Germany alone of the great peoples sent no representative, but that was due, we believe, to accident and not to intention. The meeting was held under the presidency of Baron de Courcel, now French ambassador in London, and was approved by men famous in public life from all countries, including Germany. The result of its proceedings was in brief the enactment of stringent regulations for the conduct of those who claim to be amateurs, and the appointment of a committee to inaugurate a series of international contests for such persons in all sports. President Cleveland has expressed his interest by accepting the honorary chairmanship of the American committee.

The leaders of this movement have done well to adopt the name Olympic Games. When Western civilization was confined to Greece the participating nationalities were Greek, but the event was international and made for international harmony; the name is invaluable by its reminiscences, and the great territorial expanse of Western civilization pays a just tribute to the international and democratic sport of ancient times in adopting its nomenclature for the modern counterpart. Here, indeed, lies the real importance of the enterprise. It has been generally remarked that the drift of our democratic age is either international or anti-national. The frequent international contests in sport reflect and typify the tendency. Those who believe that the nation, next to the church and the family, is the most beneficent of social organisms must struggle to substitute international for anti-national in the democratic feeling of our time; and any enterprise, however tentative, which looks in that direction deserves sympathy and support. The members of the international committee are not ashamed to be idealists; and they hope, as M. de Coubertin has said, that a well-regulated, honorable athleticism will be a factor not only in a wholesome muscular development of humanity, but in cultivating the finer sentiments of universal brotherhood and social peace. Ignorance is the mother of suspicion and hate; the better our acquaintance the larger our forbearance.

It is to be regretted that there is no prospect of participation in the coming sports by large numbers of Americans. This is due to the distance, the unwonted season, and our consequent inability to send our best athletes. We are informed, however, that the United States will have a few worthy representatives. Apparently our amateurs have not realized just what they owe to their country, and some have not yet learned that dishonor lies not in being beaten, but in refusing to struggle. The prospects are that there will be a considerable concourse of American spectators. It will awaken strange and important sensations in citizens of almost the newest Western nation to sit where the ancient Athenians sat. The contests in horsemanship will take place in the cavalry school, those in target-shooting at the government range, those in fencing and wrestling in the fine rotunda of the Zappeion, those of a nautical character on the Bay of Phalerum; but the most important, the historical representatives of the old Olympic sports, those which we designate as gymnastic and athletic, will take place in the stadium, hoary with age, and suggestive of all that has been most enduring along the whole central course of secular human history.

The readers of THE CENTURY will be interested to learn that these contests will be the subject of a paper in this magazine by M. de Coubertin, with drawings by Mr. Castaigne, which will derive additional attractiveness by comparison with the scenes graphically reconstructed by his pencil in the present number.

OPEN LETTERS

Sarah Austin—A Modern Theodora.

WHEN John Austin died in 1860 even his friends admitted that no life of such talent and promise had ever before seemed more entirely wasted and resultless. Ambitious to be a great lawyer, he had failed completely as a writer, teacher, practitioner, and maker of law. There had been long years of study, but no fruits, so that nothing seemed more certain at his death than that he would remain forever unknown. And yet, before half a score of years had passed, behold, John Austin's name led all the rest! He had suddenly become the greatest figure and the greatest power in the whole history of English jurisprudence. *Dux femina facti.* It was Sarah Austin, his wife, who wrought this change; and it was her industry, intellect, and devotion that made the name of Austin famous throughout the world, and did for English law its greatest service.

Owing to her modest disclaimer of having done anything more than edit her husband's writings, Mrs. Austin has not received the credit or admiration which is rightfully hers. Students of jurisprudence have not suspected it possible that a woman could have done what she did; and it is only since the publication of her letters and of the various memoirs of her contemporaries that her remarkable intellect and the more remarkable use to which she put it have come to be recognized. Gibbon says that many of the laws of Justinian must be attributed to the sage counsels of Theodora, «his most reverent wife, whom he had received as a gift of the Deity.» John Austin was no less blessed, for whatever of note there is in his career is due entirely to the guidance and inspiration of his wife. Immediately upon his death she resolved to devote her remaining years to an attempt to place before the public the scope and result of his juridical studies.

No woman ever essayed a more trying task. Her labors were more than editorial: they were apostolic. All that Austin had left, besides a few old lectures, was a book out of print and out of demand, and a wilderness of marginal annotations in books he had read, together with a multitude of scrawled scraps without order or sequence and for the most part illegible. It was this Serbonian bog that she made blossom as the rose; and what John Austin in the prime of his manhood spent all his strength on in vain, came to pass, as it were, at a touch from the hand of a woman who worked for his sake, not for her own. She knew her husband's views and the value of his notes and memoranda by having discussed them with him, and it was her ambition to put all these together and formulate some rational system of jurisprudence.

That Mrs. Austin, under the circumstances, should have been able to produce the series of volumes known as «Austin's Jurisprudence» proves her possessed of one of the most remarkable intellects known to womankind. The determination of the nature of rights and of positive law and its administration; the analysis of sovereignty, law, sanction, politics; the systematization of English law out of the meaningless elaboration and mass of feudal anomalies and accidents which encumbered it—these were among the problems Austin had set for himself, and the solution of which he left for his wife to complete.

Brougham says that John Austin had the finest legal intellect of his time. But he lacked the qualities that win success; he was gloomy and melancholic in temperament, and in his work was over-refined and wanting in a sense of proportion and completeness. After his failure as a lawyer he prepared a series of lectures on jurisprudence, which had to be given up for want of an audience—a fate that befell a similar series a few years later. Nevertheless, under the influence of his wife, he prosecuted his legal studies for a number of years, although after his earliest lectures she could never prevail upon him to prepare anything for publication. Sickness, poverty, and repeated disappointment had so preyed upon his over-sensitive nature that during the later years of his life he dropped the study of law entirely.

His life failure, however, never discouraged his wife; and perhaps Sarah Austin's strongest claim to distinction lies in her beautiful realization of perfect wifehood. Her career certainly ought to be a living rebuke to those of her latter-day sisters who regard matrimony and motherhood as a bondage for the intellectual, and an obstacle to, the fuller life. For nearly fifty years, in the midst of all manner of adversity and disappointment, she was John Austin's constant inspiration. She cheered him and encouraged him. She did not make Mrs. Carlyle's fatal mistake of refusing to be interested in her husband's studies; on the contrary, she tried to keep him at them, and watched over him with a solicitude that was almost maternal. A few years before her husband's death she complained in a letter to Guizot, the great French statesman, that Austin would not take up those juridical studies on which he had spent the early years of his life. «My husband,» she said, «is to me sometimes as a god, sometimes as a sick and wayward child—an immense, powerful, beautiful machine without the balance-wheel which should keep it going constantly, evenly, and justly»; and she expressed her bitter disappointment that he should not have done what he might have done «for the great cause of law and order, of reason and justice.»

Perhaps she felt even then that she was being prepared to do this work herself, for although her own literary and social labors took up much of her time, her one ambition was to be John Austin's helpmate; and it seems that during all of his later life they lived entirely for each other, spending their days, as she says, in an almost unbroken tête-à-tête. In the preface which she wrote upon the completion of her task she tells her modest story in these words: «I have gathered some courage for this work from the thought that forty years of the most intimate communion could not have left me entirely without the means of following trains of thought which constantly occupied the mind whence my own drew

light and truth as from a living fountain. . . . During all those years he had condescended to accept such small assistance as I could render, and even to read and talk to me on the subjects which engrossed his mind, and which were, for that reason, profoundly interesting to me.» The whole of this preface is a charming revelation of wifely confidence and self-forgetting love. When she wrote it she hardly knew how well her work had been done, for the three volumes which she published attained an immediate and brilliant success. They practically worked a revolution in the study of English law, and although somewhat overshadowed of late by the so-called historical school, their influence on contemporary legal history is still very marked. They have introduced the spirit of precision, exactness, and careful analysis into legal studies, and have swept away nearly all that foolish twaddle of the lawyers which reminded a keen critic of English law of the «gabble of Bushmen in a kraal.»

Sarah Austin was born in 1793, and was the youngest child of John Taylor, a yarn-maker of Norwich, and a grandson of the famous dissenter of the same name. Her parents were eminently superior people, whose home was frequented by the leading men of the day, who loved and admired the «Madame Roland of Norwich,» as Mrs. Taylor was called. Sarah was given a thorough education, but showed no early disposition for intellectual work; and at eighteen she had flirted and danced herself into the exalted position of reigning belle of «England's provincial Athens,» as Norwich proudly called itself. Beautiful, dazzling, imposing, fond of display and flirtation, and devoted to pleasure and society, she was the cynosure of all the beaux of those parts.

Suddenly John Austin crossed her path, and a change came over the handsome, high-spirited girl. «I have just seen Sally Taylor,» says the learned Dr. Fox in a contemporary letter; «and from the extreme of giddiness and display she has become the most demure, reserved, and decorous creature. Mr. Austin has wrought miracles, for which he is blessed by the ladies, cursed by the gentlemen, and wondered at by all. Some abuse the weakness which makes her, they say, the complete slave of her lover; others praise the strength by which he has so totally transformed her manners and habits.» Austin was then a melancholy young law student, habitually grave and despondent, who abjured society and was given only to serious converse. With him she fell violently in love. His intense intellectual yearning at once became hers, and in a faded note-book she has left a summary of her reading during their seven-year courtship. Malthus, Adam Smith, Stewart, Condorcet, Bentham, Bacon, Machiavelli, Hume, and the classic legal authors were studied with great thoroughness. After the manner of Pliny's Calpurnia, she says she tried to keep up with all the studies of her lover; and through all of their long courtship the proud girl's one ambition seems, like *Portia's*, to have been to commit her gentle spirit to her *Bassanio* for guidance.

In 1819 she was married to Austin, and they took a small house next door to James Mill and near Jeremy Bentham. Here Mrs. Austin's special genius at once manifested itself, and her little parlor soon became one of the most famous salons in London. Then and in after years her fireside was frequented by the best men of the time. Bentham, Carlyle, Sydney Smith, Jeffrey, Lewis, Lord Lansdowne, Molesworth, Sir James Stephen, the Mills, Sterlings, Butlers, Romillys, and others,—a mighty host,—were constant visitors, and every one of them has left evidence of his appreciation of her. To Jeffrey she was «my best and brightest»; to Sydney Smith, «the fairest and wisest»; to Sir James Stephen, «my great ally»; to Charles Butler, a «Gross-Mütterchen»; to Heinrich Heine, «Ein liebes Engelkind»; to Carlyle, «Sunlight through waste weltering chaos»; to John Stuart Mill, «Liebes Mütterlein.»

From the very first years of her marriage until her death, nearly fifty years later, Mrs. Austin was one of the best-known women of her day, not only in England, but on the Continent as well. While Austin was pursuing his studies at Bonn and Paris her gatherings there became almost as famous as those of her friend Mme. Récamier; and although she could offer her guests but the barest comforts, she attracted to her home the leading intellects of France and Germany. Niebuhr, Schlegel, Arndt, Heffter, Mackeldey, Comte, Say, Guizot, all paid constant court to «la petite mère du genre humain,» as Chevalier calls her. To have had the intimate confidence of such an array of genius is of itself a sufficient indication of her exceptional character; but Mrs. Austin was not a lion-hunter, Harriet Martineau, who hated her bitterly, to the contrary notwithstanding. These friendships grew out of mutual helpfulness, as the extensive correspondence she kept up with nearly all of these men shows. To Guizot she wrote almost as a mother to her son. He discussed his statecraft freely with her, and appears to have highly valued her shrewd criticisms and suggestions. There are endless letters to and from Bentham, Macaulay, Mill, Southey, Jeffrey, Senior, the Duchesse d'Orléans and the Comte de Paris, Gladstone, and others. All of these admired «den gesunden Menschenverstand» which Humboldt said underlay all her conversation and writings. She kept in intimate touch and sympathy with the life and work of each one of them.

Although Sarah Austin had nothing of the masculine about her, and was, if anything, über-weiblich, nevertheless she did an appalling amount of work. Besides the constant care and companionship she gave her husband and her one child (who afterward became well known as Lady Duff Gordon), Mrs. Austin was always busy at literary work; indeed, until 1849, when the Queen granted her a complimentary pension, she was compelled thus to earn most of the Austin daily bread.

As an author Mrs. Austin does not rank very high; for although she was a genuine literary artist she was by no means a literary genius. Many of her works, like her «Germany from 1760 to 1814,» her «Essays on Education,» and some of her letters to the «Athenæum,» still repay reading; but aside from her matchless work on jurisprudence, most of her energy was spent in translations. There was probably no one in England more familiar with the best literature of the Continent; and next to Carlyle she did more than any one else to introduce German literature into England. An Edinburgh reviewer, with old-fashioned grandiloquence, insisted that he could not properly express his admiration of her German translations «except in language which might be misinterpreted as the diction of indiscreet flattery.» Her translations, he claimed, are reproductions; and with Carlyle's «Wilhelm Meister» and George Eliot's «Jesu»

before him he declared that there was no other translator in England of one tenth her ability.

Her best life was so ungrudgingly given to others, and her modesty was so refreshingly feminine, that Mrs. Austin, either as authoress or as woman, is almost unknown to the new generations. And yet, aside from her peerless juridical labors, she deserves to be well known by her latter-day sisters, if for no other reason than as a possible ideal for the newer womanhood.

Sylvia R. Hershey.

At the Death-bed of Lincoln.

IN THE CENTURY for June, 1890, and February, 1893, were published letters bearing upon the question of who were present at the bedside of President Lincoln when Surgeon-General Barnes, who held the pulse of the dying chief, announced his death at 7:22 A.M. Partly in the interest of the truth and partly as a matter of family pride, I wish to add two names hitherto omitted by THE CENTURY. The names are Richard J. Oglesby, then governor of Illinois, and General Isham N. Haynie, both of Springfield, Illinois, and both warm personal friends of Mr. Lincoln. In a letter written to me by Governor Oglesby he describes the events of that terrible night, and the scene at the bedside as Secretary Stanton broke the silence by saying, «Now he belongs to the ages.»

General Haynie's diary also lies before me, and perhaps I may be justified in quoting a passage which pictures Mr. Lincoln only four hours before his assassination. Under April 14, 1865, General Haynie wrote:

> At five o'clock this afternoon Governor Oglesby and I called at the White House. Mr. Lincoln was not in, but just as we were going away his carriage, with himself, wife, and Tad, drove up. The President called us back. We went up into his reception-room and had a pleasant, humorous hour with him. He read four chapters of Petroleum V. Nasby's book (recently published) to us, and continued reading until he was called to dinner at about six o'clock, when we left him.

The above was written sometime between six and ten o'clock, before General Haynie had heard of the fatal shooting. During that little call Mr. Lincoln was in a specially merry mood. He laughed heartily over Nasby's book, and told his friends of his intention of going to see Laura Keene at the theater that evening. He, in fact, urged Governor Oglesby and General Haynie to accompany him, but a business engagement prevented.

The diary continues:

> At 11 P. M. Governor Oglesby and myself were admitted to the room where the President lay dying. Remained until after the President had passed away. He died at 7.22 A. M. to-day. The excitement baffles description. The horrors of last night have no parallel in memory or history. The cabinet all surrounded the dying chief; General Meigs, General Halleck, General Hardie, Colonel Vincent, Rev. Dr. Gurley—all present. The Secretary of War was busy all night preparing and sending despatches; Surgeon-General Barnes holding the President's arm, feeling his pulse; the cabinet seated around, and some standing; Governor Oglesby at the head of the bed, and myself near the door. The President lay with his feet to the west, his head to the east; insensible; in comatose state; never spoke.

The two friends accompanied the body of the beloved President on its last journey to Illinois. They were a part of the delegation appointed by his native State. General Haynie drafted the resolutions of the citizens of Illinois who met at the National Hotel in Washington to take steps relative to the death of Mr. Lincoln. To Governor Oglesby more than to any other one man is due the fact that the martyred Lincoln sleeps to-day on the green slopes of Oak Ridge in the beautiful city he loved so well. The nation and the national capital claimed his remains, but Governor Oglesby insisted that they belonged by right to Illinois.

Edwin C. Haynie.

«The Century's» American Artists Series.

GEORGE DE FOREST BRUSH'S «MOTHER AND CHILD.»

(See frontispiece.)

THE common belief that the aim of portraiture is to present the likeness of an individual is true so far as it goes; but it is only half of the truth. That a portrait should mean to us the likeness of a certain person is a desideratum; otherwise why call it a portrait? That it should look to us something decorative and beautiful is also a necessity; otherwise why call it a picture or a work of art? In all good portraiture the expressive and the decorative are both present, and because they are happily united in Mr. Brush's «Mother and Child» is sufficient reason for declaring it good portraiture.

Evidently the faces in this portrait group absorbed much of Mr. Brush's interest, for the character of each has been well studied and strongly expressed. It is sometimes supposed that «character» in portraiture is a thing imagined or invented by the painter, whereas it is nothing but the perception and expression of subtle truths of physiognomy. The great Italians understood this thoroughly, and it will not escape notice that there is a kinship between the people of Mr. Brush's «Mother and Child» and the people of Italian art. The tenderness of the mother, the infantile shyness of the child, the unconscious interest of the older child at the left, have appeared many times in the Madonna and Child with the infant St. John. The characterization parallels but does not imitate that of the Italians. The picture suggests no Italian school or painter, yet reminds us of the Italian conception. The forms are modern, living people of to-day, while the sympathetic feeling is ancient, common to all lofty art. Local truths of likeness are apparent (the group represents an American family, and the landscape at the side is from Vermont), but above these we feel the universal truths of maternal tenderness and infantile grace. And just there the painter shows his largeness of view. Great art always bases itself upon universal truths.

Decoratively the picture has been very well handled. The composition is exceedingly simple, and the large oval of the group is restfully placed in the square upright of the canvas. The lines of the child's figure, the indicated angles of the knees and the arm, the modeling of the gracefully turned heads, the broad sweep of the flowing robe, the background of bushes with an outlet into distant hills and sky, are all given with truth, force, and charm. Regarded merely for its distribution of light and shade, the picture will be found equally effective. The lower notes of the older child at the left and the sky at the right are quite as necessary to the central high light as the dark thicket is to the dark robe. The color and the handling of the picture are not conspicuous. The painter has not wished to detract from the

interest in the faces by gorgeousness of garment or brilliancy of touch. He rightly regards these latter as the means rather than the end of art. This is not the first fine portrait group that Mr. Brush has shown us. A pupil of Gérôme, he learned from that master technical skill which was at first applied to pictures of the American Indians with some exactness of form. Later he found this exactness incompatible with sentiment and color, and he changed his style. Recently he has painted portraits that show the spirit of the great Dutchmen without their form or handling; and in the present group we have the Italian spirit without the Italian type or method. Such work may be thought assimilative, yet it is less so than the work of Raphael. To accept the point of view of great men in the past is every one's privilege; to copy their forms is quite another thing. Mr. Brush's ideas are changing as his artistic horizon expands, and his progress is being watched with interest by all art lovers. He is one of the leaders among the younger painters in this country who are giving rank to American art.

John C. Van Dyke.

Boy Tramps and Reform Schools.

A REPLY TO MR. FLYNT.

JOSIAH FLYNT, in the October CENTURY, says that «nearly all tramps have, during some part of their lives, been charges of the State in its reformatories,» and that «the present reform-school system directly or indirectly forces boys into trampdom.»

These assertions are so sweeping that the public is deeply interested in knowing if they be true or false.

There are in the United States eighty-one institutions which Mr. Flynt evidently includes in the class reform schools. They are known as reformatories, reform schools, and industrial schools. The public has invested fifteen million dollars in lands and buildings for them, and pays annually more than four million dollars for their maintenance. Most of these institutions are less than twenty years old.

I desire distinctly and emphatically to deny the above assertions of Mr. Flynt, and to say that in his series of six articles on the tramp question published in THE CENTURY he has signally failed to adduce any facts to support such assertions. He bases his conclusions entirely upon an experience of eight months' tramping with tramps. If there is one place on earth that the cosmopolitan knight of the road abhors above all others, it is a reformatory. A good reformatory is a hive of industry. Here he must work, and that is what he circles the globe to avoid. Naturally, and by common consent, he does and says all in his power to bring such institutions into disrepute.

Most of the reformatories, reform schools, and industrial schools are just such places as Mr. Flynt describes in THE CENTURY for September, 1894, in which he says: «There is a crying need for an institution which shall take the place of the reform school, a kind of industrial home and manual training-school, in which the least contaminated may be separated from the viciously trained and criminally inclined boy, and taught useful employment and obedience to authority.» He here very aptly describes just what the good industrial school, reform school, and reformatory are doing.

Take, for example, the school of which the writer is superintendent—the State Industrial School of Colorado. Here we do just the work that Mr. Flynt indicates that we should do. I believe that most of these institutions are doing this work, and doing it well—some of them, no doubt, much better than we. This is a good school; it is a good home; it is a manual training-school. We have a fine department of sloid; we teach obedience, and enforce it; we teach and furnish useful employment. Each boy is constantly in charge of some teacher. He is constantly employed either at work or in school, with proper allowance for healthful exercise and recreation. Our boys make all their own clothes and shoes, and mend them; do all the washing, ironing, baking, cooking, housework, farming, gardening, dairying, stock-raising, carpenter work, engineering, painting, brickmaking, building, and printing: in short, all of the work about the institution, except so far as it is necessary for the teachers in the several departments to lead and instruct in the work. Our boys average four hours a day in school and four at work. In age they are from ten to eighteen years. I think that our school will compare favorably with public schools generally in deportment and progress.

Statistics recently received from the leading reformatories, reform schools, and industrial schools of the country indicate that about one half of the boys committed to these institutions are practically tramps—boy tramps—when committed. One of the oldest, largest, and best-conducted industrial schools places the percentage at seventy-five per cent. upon admission, and twenty-five per cent. after discharge. The average upon admission is about fifty per cent., and upon discharge about five per cent. A prominent superintendent, who has acted in that capacity for fourteen years, says: «During the past five years I have interviewed over one thousand tramps, most of whom have been quite willing to relate a part of their history. Out of this number but five claimed to have been in reform schools.»

It should be remembered that these institutions carefully look up the antecedents of every boy committed to them, and closely follow every one who is paroled or discharged. The statistics thus gathered and kept show that about seventy-five per cent. of those who are committed go forth and continue industrious, law-abiding, useful citizens. No class of institutions in the country, for the same expenditure, are doing so much to promote the public peace and welfare, and to deplete the ranks of trampdom, as the reformatories, reform schools, and industrial schools.

G. A. Garard.

GOLDEN, COLO.

The Claims of Dr. Horace Wells to the Discovery of Anesthesia.

APROPOS of the signed paper in THE CENTURY for August, 1894, entitled, «Dr. Morton's Discovery of Anesthesia,» we have received a communication for this department setting forth the claims of Dr. Horace Wells of Hartford, Connecticut, to the honor of the discovery. As we find that the publication of this letter would lead to a long controversy in these pages, it is deemed best, in the interest of our readers, not to pursue the subject. It is hardly necessary to say that THE CENTURY is not committed to either side of this controversy.

EDITOR.