



TOPICS OF THE TIME

General Grant's Fame.

WITH most actors on the stage of public affairs, the height of reputation is reached when they retire to private life or are buried with all the honors. They are useful to their time, but their acts are not more significant to posterity than the deeds of their successors in the current affairs of state. They leave behind them no record of greatness—in the case of some, perhaps, because they were not called upon to act in a great crisis; and if they die in the sanctity of a great reputation, their fame fades away like a repeating echo. But when true greatness has put itself on record, the grave becomes but the portal of a new earthly existence; thereafter it serves mankind as a standard of duty and character.

Down to the very grave there were fellow-actors ready to deny General Grant every claim to greatness. When the posthumous testimony of his «Memoirs» appeared they relented a little, partly in pitying respect for the heroic circumstances in which his public testament was written. Every year of the decade since his death has witnessed the steady growth of popular interest in his life, and of admiration for what he did and was. When his worthy monument, grandly placed, is formally dedicated on his birthday in the coming spring, his fame will be commensurate with the extraordinary honor thereby paid to the memory of a great soldier.

It must always be a gratification to the American people that the first one, apparently, to perceive the greatness of Grant, the man of action, was that other type of American greatness, Lincoln, the man of ideas. Testimony to his early insight, and that of one of Grant's fellow-generals, is given in the «Open Letters» of this number of THE CENTURY; and in General Porter's recollections of the personal Grant there will be found data of the highest value and authenticity for a better understanding of his character.

Old English Masters.

HOGARTH'S «Shrimp Girl», the frontispiece of this number of THE CENTURY, is printed as the first example of the new series of «Masters», engraved from the originals by the distinguished American engraver, Timothy Cole. The present unusual interest in the art of the great English painters will give the new series of wood-engravings special acceptability. Mr. Cole has taken up this work in the same spirit manifested in his exquisite and unique reproduction of the Old Italian and of the Old Dutch masters. His literary collaborator is Professor John C. Van Dyke. Not only have some of the best known pictures of the English school been selected from the public collections for reproduction, but permission has

been obtained in behalf of THE CENTURY for the engraving of some of the finest examples of English art in the hands of private owners.

The Better New York.

AT a time when civic patriotism is being so generally awakened in America, and the people are rescuing their municipalities from the hands of political adventurers and jobbers, the careful study made by United States Consul Parker of the government of Birmingham, and printed in this number of THE CENTURY, will be found particularly interesting by inhabitants of the metropolitan districts, as they are now engaged in the work of unifying and remodeling their local government. It should be understood, of course, that our conditions are different, and that every detail of the Birmingham plan is not necessarily a precedent for us. But this one phase of the Birmingham system should not fail to be impressed upon American communities—namely, the necessity of carrying on the local government by means of the best morality and intelligence that the city is fortunate enough to possess. While the Greater New York may be said to exist in law, it will be several years before it will affect the political life of the city; but the Better New York is already an accomplished fact. It represents something more than a material reality, for it embodies the intellectual force of a moral victory.

Until 1893, when, as a climax of degradation, the public reception to a descendant of Columbus was made ridiculous by the leadership of a Tammany mayor, supported at his right hand by the city's most notorious promoter of gambling, another member of the Reception Committee in a box near by being the most conspicuous murderer in public office, it was natural that the country should regard New York chiefly as an exemplar of municipal jobbery. But when, in the following year, the city not only turned the criminal element out of office, but also sent a few of the lesser malefactors to prison, the country was quick to recognize the existence of the forces which have rapidly created the Better New York.

The traits of the Better New York are pleasing and obvious. One feature is as impressive to those who are native to the city as to the thousands who continuously succeed one another as visitors. It is a feature which is lowest in the scale of progress, yet first in physical importance—the never-ending drudgery of municipal housekeeping, the cleaning of the streets. The last manful effort at reform brought to that task a man educated in the art of sanitary improvement, skilled through military experience in the handling of organized forces of men, and, above all, willing to make a personal sacrifice for the sake of showing that it was unnecessary for New York to wallow in its own filth. The never-to-be-effaced

result is a city as clean as that city of model neatness, Paris, and possibly even more exemplary as regards the streets that are the breathing-places as well as the high-ways of the poor; for Colonel Waring applied his rigorous system, by preference, to the quarters which his predecessors had always neglected, in their scheme of producing the greatest apparent effect with the least possible effort by devoting themselves to Broadway and Fifth Avenue. Not since the first review of the paid fire-department, a third of a century ago, has anything been seen in New York so significant of a new era of permanent improvement as the first parade of «Waring's angels.» That public inspection of the first street-cleaning force of the city was a complete vindication of every detail of the new organization, and especially of the white duck uniforms; for one who undertakes the mission of a cleaner should himself have a sense of personal cleanliness.

Another material sign of the Better New York is the improved condition of the streets and parks. It will be claimed for the Tammany régime that these reforms were of their devising, and it is a fact that all the credit they have deserved was in that direction. It used to be said in the days of the Tweed martyrdom that the Tammany «boss» had conferred great blessings on the city by his encouragement of lavish expenditure on the streets and parks. But Tweed deserved no credit. In order to steal by his method, which was merely an exaggeration of the surviving Tammany method, he had to spend the public money lavishly for an obvious public necessity. That some good was attained in the parks depended on his carrying out the plans of honest experts, who then and since have been at the head of the profession of landscape architecture in this country. In fact, there is not a detail in the making of the Better New York, from the construction of the city hall, in the first decade of the century, to the application of honest business methods in municipal affairs under Mayor Strong, that may not be credited to educated men, having special training for their professional or business duties.

In the way of moral improvement no better evidence of advance is needed than the Tammany resistance offered, within and without the police force, to the intelligent and courageous efforts that have been made by President Roosevelt and his colleagues to correct the scandalous evils of that department. In spite of laws obstructive to effective organization, and notwithstanding crafty misrepresentation as to prevailing crime, life and property are safer in the Better New York than during the previous era of blackmail; and the conduct of the various kinds of purveyors of vice has never been so restrained, and so little invasive of public order and decency.

In addition to all this, civil service reform has made immense strides; unsavory tenement-house districts are being cleaned out and small parks are letting in light and air, while the housing of the people is constantly improving.

A city without adequate means of spreading and preserving the knowledge of civilization is a misnomer. To the relatively backward metropolis has come at last a new system of school management, equal, under intelligent and honest direction, to the higher demands of the age. Her two universities are taking on the material

as well as the intellectual aspects of greatness. Her scientific and art museums possess treasures of world-wide importance; the halls of her professional, technical, and art schools are thronged by thousands of talented students; a great public library commensurate with the city's intelligence and wealth awaits only a roof large enough to cover it; architecture and sculpture are offering to wealth and to patriotism the means of monumental grandeur; in short, the Better New York appeals to the pride of the nation with a force which the Greater New York may enhance by political honor.

Cheap Money in Two Wars.

In the very striking paper which we publish in this number of THE CENTURY on «Why the Confederacy Failed» there is a lesson in national finance that is none the less impressive because it is so familiar. It is the same lesson that has been taught, at frequent intervals during the past four hundred years, by every nation that has had the short-sightedness to tamper with its standard of value. «The Confederate government,» says the writer, «was smothered and strangled to death with its own irredeemable paper money.» He does not say that this was the sole cause of the failure of the Southern rebellion, but he places it first among three causes which he enumerates. His argument in support of his views speaks for itself. There may be difference of opinion on his second and third causes, but on his first there is likely to be none among men whose opinion is best worth having. No cause, however deserving, could have succeeded on such a financial basis as that on which the war of secession was conducted. The war of the revolution, as Mr. Rose points out, would have failed had not the French and Dutch come to the rescue of Washington and his army with real money.

On this point Washington's own words are conclusive. The crisis came in the spring of 1781, the seventh year of the war. The continental money had then become so worthless as to make useless further employment of it as a means of defraying the expenses of the war. John Laurens, one of Washington's aides-de-camp, was selected to go to Paris, to press upon the French government the needs of the army, and raise a new loan. Washington wrote to him on the eve of his departure: «Be assured, my dear Laurens, day does not follow night more certainly than it brings with it some additional proof of the impracticability of carrying on the war without the aids you are directed to solicit. . . . In a word, we are at the end of our tether, and now or never our deliverance must come.» About the same time Hamilton wrote to General Greene that public credit was so totally lost that nobody would furnish aid even in the face of impending ruin. To the appeals of Laurens France responded with a loan of four millions of livres; the French king granted six millions more as a free gift, and also guaranteed in Holland a loan of ten millions more, making in all twenty million livres, or about five million dollars. This real money put such new life into the American army that Cornwallis was forced to surrender a few months later, and independence was won.

It is the opinion of most financial authorities that the greenbacks, instead of being a help to the North during the war of the rebellion, were a hindrance, and that we won in spite of them rather than because of them. Cer-

tain it is that they added enormously to the cost of the war. Mr. Henry C. Adams, in his work on «Public Debts,» shows that the war cost us over \$800,000,000 more than it would had we not issued the greenbacks and thus gone off the gold standard. If the government had relied on increased taxation for funds to prosecute the war, it would have remained on the gold basis, and would have bought all its supplies on the same basis. At the same time it would have maintained its credit unimpaired, and would have been able to borrow all the additional money it needed at much better rates than it actually paid. As it was, it paid an average premium of 50 per cent. on all its purchases for nearly three years and a half. The total expenditure of the four years of the war was over \$3,350,000,000, of which Mr. Adams estimates that \$2,500,000,000 consisted of purchases in the open market, where the greenback dollar bought only 66 cents' worth of goods. In other words, we spent \$2,500,000,000 and got in return only \$1,630,000,000 worth of property. The difference, \$870,000,000, was the unnecessary cost to the taxpayers which the greenback entailed.

It has been demonstrated with mathematical accuracy, in tables published recently by the National Bureau of Labor, that a heavy share of this unnecessary burden fell upon the laboring classes. These tables show that when, in 1865, prices stood at 217 as compared with 100 in 1860, wages had reached only 143; that is, while prices had more than doubled, wages had risen less than one half. This has been the case invariably when a nation has indulged in the experiment of cheapening its money. Wages have always been the last to respond to the new order of things, and prices the first. So convinced was Secretary Chase, who was the author of the greenback currency, of the mistake that was made in issuing it, that, as chief justice of the Supreme Court, he subsequently expressed strong disapproval of his own act as secretary of the treasury. Speaking of the legal-tender quality of the greenbacks, he said that that quality did not add anything to their value or usefulness, and added: «The legal-tender quality was only valuable for purposes of dishonesty. Every honest purpose was answered as well, or better, without it.»

As our readers will remember, we have pointed out in this department of THE CENTURY that legal-tender money, from the first appearance of it in history, has been inferior money, and that the conferring of that quality upon it has been for the purpose of forcing it into circulation against the public will.¹ The best test

of any money is, Will it circulate without this quality? Nobody claims that gold needs it. The international trade of the world has been carried on from its beginning without any legal-tender money. The gold-standard advocates to-day have urged repeatedly, as the solution of the silver controversy, that we have free coinage of both gold and silver, with no legal-tender quality upon either, and let the people decide which they prefer as money; but the silver advocates will not listen to this. They demand the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1, or at about half the value of silver, and declare that it must also be made legal tender in payment of all debts. This was the experiment which was tried with the continental and greenback money, and which failed in both cases. It succeeded best with the greenbacks because the North succeeded in the war, and because of the North's enormous resources and wealth; but even then the value of the greenbacks could not be kept from falling to 36 cents on a dollar, their average value during the war being only 50 cents. They expressed at all times the amount of public confidence in the government's ability to keep its promises to pay all its obligations in gold. The Confederate money had no legal-tender quality, but it had value so long as there was public confidence in the South in the triumph of the Southern cause. It began to depreciate the moment that confidence began to wane.

The lesson of these experiences at the present time is obvious. If it should be decreed that a silver dollar worth 53 cents should be legal tender for all debts public and private, and that an unlimited amount of such dollars should be issued, the inevitable result would be that gold would go to a premium, and we should be on a silver standard, with all prices doubled. The wage-earner would find no immediate change in his income, but he would discover that everything he bought cost him twice as much. The difference between a silver dollar worth only 53 cents and a paper dollar worth nothing would be that whereas the latter might ultimately be reduced through government bankruptcy to absolute worthlessness, the silver dollar would not fall below its bullion price. It would always sell for the amount of silver it contained, and this would go up and down with the market value of silver bullion. But it would, by being made a forced standard of value, entail a vast amount of harm upon the nation, subject all wage-earners to enormous loss, and, by destroying the credit of the government, bring us into disgrace with the civilized world, dealing a staggering blow to our prosperity and development, from which we should not recover for a quarter of a century.

¹ See «Cheap-Money Experiments,» 3d edition, THE CENTURY Co.: chapter on «Legal-tender Money in History.»





OPEN LETTERS

The Rise of General Grant.

ON the 24th day of May, 1861, from his humble home at Galena, U. S. Grant, then a private citizen of Illinois engaged with his father in the leather trade, despatched a letter to the adjutant-general of the regular army, offering his services to the government during the impending civil war. Although the good offices of an influential person were volunteered, we are told by Grant in the «Memoirs» that he declined all indorsement for permission to fight for his country. So, without support and probably with but little hope, he sent forward the application which has just been found in the files of the War Department, and of which a facsimile is herewith printed for the first time. Aside from extrinsic reasons, I think the reader will agree with me that this letter is a striking paper, by reason of its trenchant conciseness in setting forth that which the writer with undoubted anxiety wished to make known to the military authorities. But in the eyes of the world, the distinction to which Grant subsequently rose gives to it its chief interest, and a value far beyond the ordinary.

While evidently the composition of a man of firm purpose,—one having complete confidence in himself,—there is yet about this application a modest diffidence which is a true index to a great personality. In directness and precision it is remarkable, like all his writings denoting a well-ordered intellect. I have seen letters of six or eight pages, written by Grant amid the wearing excitement of a gigantic and doubtful campaign, without an erasure or interlineation, yet couched in clear, strong English which it is a pleasure to read. There are a score of such in the War Department archives.

The result of this effort was typical of the attitude of the higher authorities toward Grant throughout the earlier months of his career. The application bore no fruit; it was not even answered by the usual courteous note which says nothing. While others from civil life were made major-generals, brigadiers, and colonels, and at once received high commands, the man who modestly thought he might be competent by reason of his education and past service to command a regiment remained unnoticed. Fortunately for the country, Governor Yates took note of Grant's capacity and merits, and conferred upon him the command of an unruly regiment. Thus, ignored at Washington, the future chief, through the local authorities, got his foot upon the first rung of the ladder.

It is very singular, considering Grant's early appearance upon the stage with an important geographical command, and the further and more dominant fact of his conspicuous successes, that the Union military authorities were so belated in «catching on» to the promising

officer Yates had discovered. It is not at all surprising that the general public, with its eyes admiringly fixed on the star performers at the great military headquarters, should overlook the silent man who did not have the trick of advertising his own performances. The people were wistfully looking for the Napoleon they never doubted was concealed somewhere about, ready to spring forth to the supreme command full-fledged, and put down the rebellion in a single brilliant campaign; and not until after McClellan's signal failure did they reluctantly abandon this hope and begin to look around for practical possibilities.

Grant's first military success, vastly important as it was to the cause, to the administration, and to General Halleck's personal fortunes, received but scant notice in high quarters other than in the form of criticism. Even Mr. Lincoln, always generous, and quick to notice successful officers, made no sign. The spontaneous acclaim which greeted lesser exploits of other generals was never heard in the early days in connection with Grant's achievements, and it is a queer fact that, from first to last, they never aroused any enthusiasm for Grant personally. While there were fugitive manifestations of gratitude, there was no popular and official shouting of the kind that, strangely enough, greeted the comparatively barren action of Murfreesboro', for instance, which Halleck effusively asseverated entitled Rosecrans to the «admiration of the world.»

The capture of Donelson, so timely to check the rising European ardor for intervention, was not heralded as a Grant victory. True, the magnitude and far-reaching effects of the blow were fully appreciated by both government and people, but Grant somehow at the time seemed to be dissociated from it. His glory was largely appropriated by others, or cunningly belittled, and for a time he was even deprived of his command. If for a brief moment there was an incipient outbreak threatening to make a hero of the right man, it was at once chilled into silence by Halleck's equivocal reports to McClellan of «disorders» that prevailed after the Confederate surrender, of «insubordination» on Grant's part—wholly unwarranted, as it afterward transpired, but tending none the less to strengthen some vague stories of Grant's «habits» that now began to be repeated about, set afloat nobody knows exactly how. Answering, McClellan—reminding one of Artemus Ward's willingness to sacrifice all his wife's relations to put down the rebellion—telegraphed Halleck not to hesitate to arrest Grant if discipline demanded such an extraordinary proceeding.

In the light of what occurred afterward, and of our present minute knowledge of the characters and careers of these three personages, could one well imagine anything more absurdly grotesque than this: two mere theorists, organizers of dress parades as it were, sitting

Galena, Ill.
May 24th 1861

Col. L. Thomas
Adjt. Gen. U.S.A.
Washington D.C.

Sir:

Having served for fifteen years in the regular Army, including four years at West Point, and feeling it the duty of every one who has been educated at the Government expense to offer their services for the support of that Government, I have the honor, very respectfully, to tender my services, until the close of the war, in such capacity as may be offered. I would say that in view of my present age, and length of service, I feel myself competent to command a Regiment if the President, in his judgement, should see fit to entrust one to me.

Since the first call of the President I have been serving on the Staff of the Governor of this State rendering such aid as I could in the organization of our State Militia, and am still engaged in that capacity. A letter addressed to me at Springfield Ill. will reach me.

I am very respectfully
Your obt. Svt.
U. S. Grant

in solemn judgment upon the man of action in the very midst of a triumphant campaign? Had either McClellan or Halleck at that day won such a victory as Donelson, —an improbable speculation,—he would instantly have been glorified by resolutions of high civic bodies, and showered with congratulatory telegrams. Grant modestly announced the victory to his immediate superior, and, as we have seen, Halleck did the rest. There were no congratulations for Grant. It is doubtful if subsequently there was not a covert attempt to forestall his promotion.

Again, after Shiloh, the original scandal about Grant's «habits» was revived with variations, supplemented with the more cruel falsehood that he had stolidly permitted his army to be surprised and cut to pieces, and was saved from utter annihilation only by the arrival of Buell. The malignancy with which he was pursued is almost past comprehension. He came near being submerged by the storm. A second time Grant was temporarily deprived of his command, much in the same indirect manner, by the same jealous influence, and probably for the same sinister purpose. I doubt if Colonel McClure's ingenious explanation of Grant's temporary effacement is the complete story of that episode.

Shiloh was the first battle-field of the war where carnage rose to the gruesome dignity of the grand scale, and the nerves of the supersensitive were greatly shaken at the spectacle. The battle was a trial of strength between the two armies at the unexpected invitation of the Confederate commander, in which at the close of the first day he was clearly worsted. Six months later, after McClellan and Pope had familiarized the country with lost or drawn battles and the aspect of rivers of human blood, Shiloh would have been hailed for what it actually was,—a real as well as a technical Union victory,—and no attention whatever paid to the butcher's bill, which was equally large on the other side. Ultimately a better understanding of that battle prevailed, accompanied as a natural sequence by a dawning popular comprehension of Grant's scope of usefulness; there was gradual growth of a quiet, yet firm confidence in him as a commander.

Dealing with all sorts of commanders, and particularly with the bad sort—always most in evidence—that failed to accomplish anything of moment except to bring the government into disrepute with the people, in the natural course of events President Lincoln eventually began to note this one man of a genus distinct from his other generals, who always brought victory and honor instead of defeat and humiliation, who needed no urging to go forward, and who accomplished more with less relative means than any other man in the service; and thus noting, his honest heart was glad. And thenceforward Lincoln stood by Grant through thick and thin—one of the very greatest tributes that could be paid to the worth of any man of that epoch. It may be said that this was easy because Grant was almost uniformly successful; yet there was one short period following Shiloh when the President's powerful support was necessary to save him from obscurity. Even then the President had not come to a full appreciation of Grant's sterling qualities as a commander.

Colonel McClure records that just after Shiloh he went to Washington, at the instance of the sentiment-

lists, to secure Grant's removal from command. After listening in gloomy silence to McClure's earnest representations concerning the Western general's unpopularity, intemperance, and incompetence, which were steadily dragging the administration down to ruin, and every possible appeal for an immediate change, the President straightened himself up and with earnest decision said, «I can't spare this man; *he fights.*» This closed the conference; Colonel McClure perceived that Mr. Lincoln's resolution was unalterable.

Grant never had a personal following in the country at large, like that of McClellan or Rosecrans, by whom their important services were, without question or criticism, accepted at their own valuation and even exaggerated. His battles and victories—some of them equal to the most brilliant in the annals of war—were received by the public either with cold, analytical reserve, or at best in measured terms of praise. Yet, as I have said, it was looking and longing for a military idol. Why, then, it should fight off Grant's fame until the final test, should begrudgingly yield to him its plaudits only at the eleventh hour, goes beyond my comprehension; it is rather a matter of astonishment that he was not fairly overwhelmed with cheap honors and lip-service. This strange, half-hearted manner on the part of the public of tendering its applause for magnificent offerings of victory may have been one of the «mysteries of Grant» of which General Badeau tells us, but it was more probably the result of the systematic attacks made with a purpose to prevent his rise. They were so plausibly and persistently urged as to mislead many honest men; for a time it was generally believed that his successes were the result, perhaps, of mere blundering luck.

General Horace Porter has said that General Grant's «unassuming manner, and absolute loyalty to his superiors and to the work in which he was engaged, inspired loyalty in others, and gained him the devotion of the humblest of his subordinates.» And on his own part, Grant's tenacious loyalty to friendship was so unfeigned and marked a characteristic as to be a positive eccentricity. Herein we have the key to one of the great forces of his character: he was endowed with that singular quality which, without effort, bound to himself with hooks of steel the unhesitating confidence, the unqualified love, of every one who was thrown into intimate personal or official association with him. One and all, those who knew him most thoroughly became his unquestioning adherents. This is a most extraordinary fact in connection with one who, apparently repellent to the world at large, was almost throughout his public career the victim of the malevolent calumny of designing cabals, always decried, misunderstood, and underestimated. Yet he was unobtrusive, avoided personal controversies, and shunned politics; solicited no favors; never annoyed his superiors or the government with importunities or demands of any kind, except for permission to press forward; and interfered with nobody except the enemy. The antithesis developed in these attributes of Grant's personality is so remarkable as to have fixed the attention of abler students of ethnology than myself.

But Grant was not prone to lavish his friendships indiscriminately. He was not lacking in penetration, nor was he a dull student of mankind. The official records,

and especially those made by himself, leave no room for doubt that he had a keen discernment of character, but more especially of those elements that make the good soldier. After he attained to the dignity of exercising his own choice, he seldom erred in the selection of agents to carry on military operations. The rise of Sherman, McPherson, Sheridan, Schofield, Ord, Terry, and of some younger men like James H. Wilson and Emory Upton, aside from their high intrinsic merits, was largely owing to Grant's appreciation. On the other hand, he had but little patience with slow and inefficient officers, and none whatever with worthless ones; and he did not lack the moral nerve to put them aside whenever the necessity occurred or opportunity offered.

The deeper one dives into the official archives, the more his admiration and respect for Grant increases. His own letters and reports are the strongest evidence of a thoroughly honest and upright nature, as well as of his singleness of purpose and his comprehensive ability. There is no posing for effect, no waste of words in fine writing; everything is simple, earnest, and straightforward. His style is admirable; not an undignified line, nor a base or cunning motive, can be detected in all his multitudinous correspondence, public and private. Of course the greater part of the mass was written without expectation or design that it would ever see the light, and hence is all the more valuable and reliable as an index to a character which has been somewhat of a puzzle to superficial observers.

In Vol. XXXI, Part II, of the War Records, at page 402, there is a striking letter bearing upon Grant's personal and military character which, having never been exploited in the public press, may prove interesting to the reader in connection with the foregoing speculations. It has additional value from its authorship and its entirely voluntary character. General Hunter could have no other motive than to write the truth in a confidential communication of this nature. Previous to the battle of Missionary Ridge, Hunter, then temporarily out of employment, but having the personal goodwill of both the President and the Secretary of War, was sent west on a tour of inspection. After visiting Grant at Chattanooga, he reported to Secretary Stanton as follows:

LOUISVILLE, KY., December 14, 1863.

HON. E. M. STANTON,
Secretary of War, Washington.

DEAR SIR: I arrived at Chattanooga a month since, and was received by General Grant with the greatest kindness. He gave me his bed, shared with me his room, gave me to ride his favorite war-horse, read to me his despatches received and sent, accompanied me on my reviews, and I accompanied him on all his excursions and during the three days of battle. In fact, I saw him almost every moment, except when sleeping, of the three weeks I spent in Chattanooga.

I mention these, to you, otherwise very unimportant facts, to show you that I had a first-rate opportunity of judging of the man. He is a hard worker, writes his own despatches and orders, and does his own thinking. He is modest, quiet, never swears, and seldom drinks, as he only took two drinks during the three weeks I was with him. He listens quietly to the opinions of others and then judges promptly for himself; and he is prompt to avail himself in the field of all the errors of his enemy. He is certainly a good judge of men, and has called around him valuable counselors.

Prominent as General Grant is before the country, these remarks of mine may appear trite and uncalled for; but having been ordered to inspect his command, I thought it not improper for me to add my testimony with regard to the commander. I will also add that I am fully convinced the change of com-

manders was not made an hour too soon, and that if it had not been made just when it was we should have been driven from the Valley of the Tennessee, if not from the whole State. . . .

I have the honor to be, very respectfully,
Your most obedient servant,

D. HUNTER, Major-General.

While another general, encamped in middle Tennessee with seventy thousand men,—the largest available army in the West,—was answering the government's eager promptings to move against an inferior enemy with urgent requests for reinforcements, and meanwhile doing nothing, Grant was energetically prosecuting a campaign for the reduction of Vicksburg with a force no more than equal to the enemy he was to overcome, and twenty-five thousand less than Rosecrans's army.

The contrast in the character and attitude of the two chief commanders in the West during the spring and early summer of 1863 must have been an object-lesson to the Washington military authorities, and certainly not to the disadvantage of Grant; for it only served to emphasize, to bring into bolder relief, his high qualifications for the most important and trying duties. He made no requisitions or demands whatever upon the President, not even for time; as soon as opportunity offered, without pressing, he at once took the field with what force he had, depending on conditions and the development of events to denote to the government his necessities as they occurred.

Before the government was fairly aware that the campaign was inaugurated, Grant, confounding the enemy by his well-dissembled movements, had swiftly beaten Pemberton at every point, and had him safely «holed up» in Vicksburg. It was evident that Pemberton must eventually succumb unless he was relieved, and also plain that outside relief was hopeless if Grant was strongly reinforced. It is noteworthy that, while Grant energetically began to concentrate all the available troops in his own department in the trenches before the city, he still made no appeal or representations to Washington; he let the situation speak for itself. During the entire two months' campaign Grant sent to Washington no more than two or three communications. The President found no occasion to bother him with orders, suggestions, or appeals to beat up the enemy; neither did Grant importune the President for reinforcements and munitions. He, nevertheless, got all he needed, and soon had Vicksburg environed with eighty thousand men.

Among the reinforcing troops sent to Vicksburg were two divisions of the Ninth Corps from General Burnside's command in the Department of the Ohio. Upon Pemberton's surrender, Grant notified the President that he would immediately return to Burnside the borrowed troops, of which fact the Secretary of War in turn notified Burnside; but Grant changed his mind, and sent them out with Sherman against General Johnston. After waiting some time, Burnside became very impatient; he finally complained to the President that Grant was not «toting fair,» and was still detaining his troops. Thereupon Mr. Lincoln sent to General Burnside the following reply:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, D. C., July 27, 1863.
Major-General BURNSIDE, Cincinnati, O.

Let me explain. In General Grant's first despatch after the fall of Vicksburg, he said, among other things, he would send the Ninth Corps to you. Thinking it would be pleasant to you,

I asked the Secretary of War to telegraph you the news. For some reasons, never mentioned to us by General Grant, they have not been sent, though we have seen outside intimations that they took part in the expedition against Jackson. General Grant is a copious worker and fighter, but a very meager writer or telegrapher. No doubt he changed his purpose in regard to the Ninth Corps for some sufficient reason, but has forgotten to notify us of it.

A. LINCOLN.¹

Under the circumstances, and in the light of his experience of the previous two years with army commanders, Mr. Lincoln's characterization of Grant was a panegyric. Some of them had been exactly the reverse—very copious writers and telegraphers, but meager workers and fighters.

These two letters, together with his original tender of service, show the characteristics which were the foundation of Grant's final rise to the supreme command unquestioned, and afterward to an unexampled personal influence. He was no politician; his success was due solely to solid merit. The coy maiden, Fame, was won as Vicksburg was reduced—only after a long siege. When Lee surrendered at Appomattox Grant was only forty-three years old. With a genius for war, in spite of every obstacle, by courage and uncomplaining persistence, from comparative obscurity Grant raised himself to the highest pinnacle of an honorable ambition. His name will stand on the same plane with Lin-

¹ See Hay and Nicolay's "Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln."

coln and Washington. Slow to mature, but at last securely fixed, his fame will survive as long as the records of the period last; and it will grow as the centuries pass, and the power of the nation he served increases, as it must increase, beyond the grandeur of Rome or any other known in history.

Leslie J. Perry.

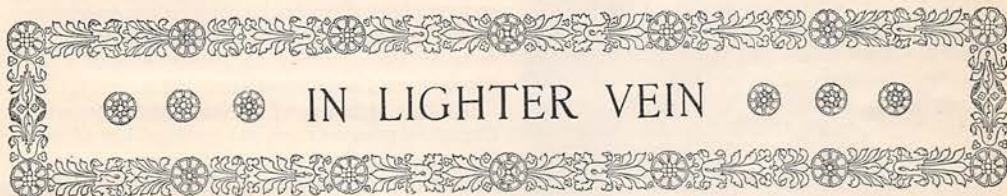
WAR RECORDS OFFICE, Washington.

Tramps and Whipping-posts.

A LETTER from Frankfort, Indiana, expresses dissent from the whipping-post communication printed in this department. The writer, the Rev. Demetrius Tillotson, referring to the law to make vagrancy a crime, says:

«It would be necessary only that employment be found that would enable the individual to secure food and shelter to make such a law practical. The establishment of food and shelter depots patterned after those in General Booth's social scheme, where the individual is compelled to work before he can eat, would be more Christian, less expensive in the end to society, and far more effectual than the whipping-post. No remedy, however, will ever be effectual until the sources of supply are destroyed.

«Eighty per cent. of the tramps in the United States have been produced, either directly or indirectly, through the influence of the saloon; and until this evil is done away with no permanent cure can be expected.»



IN LIGHTER VEIN

The Maxim.

ONE golden drop, from countless roses pressed,
Hands down an Orient garden to the West:
From age to age a proverb thus survives,
The lasting essence of unnumbered lives.

Dora Read Goodale.

To the Hero of a Scientific Romance.

If you wish, go be a pig,
In and out of season;
But don't bore us with a big
Philosophic reason.

Finance at the Lyceum.

YES, sir: down at our lyceum we discussed the finance cause,
An' some needed legislatin' fer revisin' of the laws.
Silas Simpkins spoke fer fi-at (this, o' course, was fore Si died),
An' a little cuss named Taylor 'lowed he'd take the other side
(One o' them Oak Valley Taylors—got a sorter snappy eye).

R.

So the rest of us jest lis'ened, though we mos'ly favored Si;
Fer he use' to talk an' whittle while the seasons went an' came,
An' we knew that he was loaded fer the biggest kind o' game.

Si riz first, an' he orated fer about a half a' hour;
An' I recollec' he stated that the nation had the power
To pervide us all with greenbacks long 's their printin'-press 'ud run;
An' he told about a ratio which he called sixteen to one,
An' some gole-bugs; an' he said he would n't take no gold in his,
Fer he 'lowed a paper dollar was the best one that they is—
(Er a silver)—an' concludin', Si said p'intedly, said he,
«If the banks won't take yer fi-at, you jes' bring it roun' to me.»

Wal, that little Taylor feller had been lis'nin' all the while,
An' he riz when Si had finished, with a sorter knowin' smile,
An' he said that Si was crafty, but he 'lowed that he 'ud vote

TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Christmas Century.

THE CENTURY has the desire to greet its readers Christmas after Christmas with « Christmas numbers » that have not only some of the gaiety of the holiday, but also a hint of its deeper meanings. How well this desire may have been accomplished this year it is for our readers themselves to determine; but we feel like making note of our own satisfaction in one Christmas « feature, » which seems to us to have about it more of the genuine flavor of the season than anything of the kind we have come upon this many a long day. Indeed, one's memory runs back to Irving's « Bracebridge Hall » for a fit companion to the gay and tender pleasantries of Mr. Janvier's delightful paper on the « Christmas Kalends of Provence, » to which Mr. Loeb has fitted such fine and sympathetic pictures. In a sense, Keats has put the charm of Provence into one famous line:

Dance and Provençal song and sunburnt mirth!

But the charm of this unique land is so many-sided,—in its history, its literature, its sunny landscape, its people, its customs, its temperament,—that, in fact, the story has not been fully told in all the books that have been written about it by native and foreign writers. Mr. Janvier's present contribution seems to us particularly vivid and successful. He recreates the atmosphere of a beautiful land and season; he makes us see and feel a foreign world, but one that is foreign only in its exterior aspects—a world of good feeling and happy, kindly living which is native and homelike to every human heart.

The Approach of a New Era.

THE rumor of an agreement on the subject of arbitration by the governments of Great Britain and the United States comes as a happy forerunner of the Christmas season, and thrills the hearts of all humane and Christian people with the impatient expectancy of a great and noble event. There is every reason to hope that, in contrast with the gloomy Christmas season of last year, the present Christian festival may be marked by a glorious and historic advance toward the practical attainment of an era of « peace on earth and good will to men. »

There could hardly be a more cogent proof of the popular demand for an amicable adjustment of international difficulties than the subsidence for a long period both of active interest in the Venezuelan affair, and of alarm over the outcome of that once absorbing controversy. It is easy to see from outcropping events that this was not popular indifference; rather, it was a strong conviction that, in the face of the overwhelming demand on both sides of the sea for a peaceable adjustment of the question,—and indeed for a system of peaceable

adjustment of all such questions,—those charged with the diplomatic affairs of the two countries could not fail to rise to the extraordinary responsibility under which they have rested. In no narrow sense it may be said that the peace of the English-speaking world has been for the time in their hands. They have had it in their power to make the closing years of the century illustrious by a diviner interpretation of Christian brotherhood than has ever found expression in the diplomacy of the world. No greater fame could fall to the portion of any statesman than to have been effectively enlisted in this cause of humanity.

On the other hand, opposition from any quarter, though it might now seem conclusive, could be only temporary. The record of the influential friends of arbitration is both long and important. In both lands the clergy, the educational institutions, the press, the commercial interests, the bar, the workmen, and the chosen representatives of the people have expressed themselves in favor of this extension of the judicial system with a unanimity not disclosed on any other international question, and scarcely on any national question of the first rank. An official who seeks approval for supporting such a treaty has but to look about him to find it among the eminent of every profession. None have been more outspoken in its favor than the practitioners and expounders of the law. Some, including the distinguished Lord Chief Justice of England, have, indeed, suggested limitations of scope, but all have most warmly favored the principle of such an understanding. It would not be strange if there should be some difficulties in the adjustment of the system—some inherent ones, and some to be found as the scheme goes into practice; but these are the conditions of all progress, and may safely be intrusted to the highest legal school and experience. The chief thing is to make a beginning on the basis of permanence. Injustice and embarrassment may for a time, or at times, result; but what is war but the most monstrous system of injustice and embarrassment? Civilization advances by the balancing of a reformatory system against an existing system. It is not until one is convinced of the national peril involved in the old method of distributing spoils of office that he becomes a civil-service reformer; it is not until one appreciates the lawlessness of literary piracy that he accepts a copyright law containing comparatively small defects. So, in the face of the settled conviction of England and America that war between the two countries should be taken out of the category of the *easily possible* and placed in that of the *barely possible*, it is unpatriotic, inhuman, unchristian to hesitate at trifles in the progress of the principle. It is not too much to say that the whole English-speaking world, whether religious or non-religious, without regard to opinion on the Venezuelan affair, is looking forward to

the establishment of a permanent tribunal, and will not only overlook any shortcomings of detail, but will be impatient of their influence in delaying the consummation desired.

Daniel Webster, in the only speech made during his visit to England which has been preserved,—that of July 18, 1839, before the National Agricultural Society at Oxford,—set forth in a notable passage the feeling that is at the basis of the present popular conviction on this subject. Mr. Webster said:

With regard to whatsoever is important to the peace of the world, its prosperity, the progress of knowledge and of just opinions, the diffusion of the sacred light of Christianity, I know nothing more important to the promotion of those best interests of humanity, and the cause of the general peace, amity, and concord, than the good feeling subsisting between the Englishmen on this side of the Atlantic and the descendants of Englishmen on the other.

Some little clouds have overhung our horizon. I trust they will soon pass away. I am sure that the age we live in does not expect that England and America are to have controversies carried to the extreme upon any occasion not of the last importance to national interests and honor.

We live in an age when nations as well as individuals are subject to a moral responsibility. Neither government nor people—thank God for it!—can now trifle with the general sense of the civilized world; and I am sure that the civilized world would hold your country and my country to a very strict account if, without very plain and apparent reason deeply affecting the independence and great interests of the nation, any controversy between them should have other than an amicable issue.

I will venture to say that each country has intelligence enough to understand all that belongs to its just rights, and is not deficient in means to maintain them; and if any controversy between England and America were to be pushed to the extreme of force, neither party would or could have any signal advantage over the other, except what it could find in the justness of its cause and the approbation of the world.

The progressive opinion of the world not only has reached, but has passed Mr. Webster's position, and the time has now come to embody that opinion in law.

Are Our Lawmakers Deteriorating?

STUDENTS of democracy in all parts of the world have been giving much attention during recent years to the quality of modern legislators. Not only in this country, but in all parliamentary countries, the work of legislation has been passing out of the hands of the kind of men who controlled it fifty years ago. It was formerly in the hands of men who were truly the representatives of the intelligence, morality, and property of the land; for their standing in their respective communities was of the best. In the early American State legislatures it was the country squire, the prosperous farmer, the leading man in the town, who was sent to the legislature. He legislated there for the best interests of the community which had sent him. Being a man of property himself, he guarded jealously the interests of property, and thus legislated in the interest of public order, wise economy, and the general welfare. From the cities leading business men and lawyers were sent, who, actuated by similar influences and motives, legislated in the same direction.

In course of time the rural constituencies have diminished in importance and changed in character. The cities have advanced to a predominating influence, and their political and nominating machinery has passed into the hands of men who too often represent the lowest, rather than the best, elements of the community. The profes-

sional politician, the man who gets his living out of politics, has penetrated everywhere. Instead of being a man who has won his way to prominence by success in business or agriculture or in a professional career, he is more likely to be a man who has failed in private life and has gone into politics as an easier way to get a living.

The consequence is that the work of legislation, in many instances, has passed out of the hands of the men who own the property which makes up the wealth of the State, and into the hands of those who have little or none of that wealth. In other words, those who have nothing are legislating for those who have all. It must be exceptional if men who have no property to be taxed are wise and discriminating about the ways in which taxes are levied. Too often a man who has no property of his own is eager to attack the property of other people, either with the hope of personal benefit, or with the belief that he can thus gain favor with the ignorant or the disorderly elements of the population.

But the man of property in a legislative body who is an obstacle to legislation in the obvious interest of the people is quite as objectionable as the adventurer who uses his legislative position for selfish or demagogic ends. In fact, the «successful man» is far from being the only one capable of legislating for the whole people. It is intelligence and character that are needed, be the legislator as rich as Cæsar or as poor as a church mouse.

The growing power of political machines and bosses has contributed materially to the decline in the quality of legislators. It has come to be more and more the practice each year for the boss or the political machine to select the men who are to be the party's candidates for the legislature. The first condition of such choice is that the man shall obey orders. As only men of inferior character will consent to accept this condition, the result is that few really capable legislators are chosen. A nomination is often given to a man who is in financial difficulties, with the expectation on his part that he can turn it to such profit as to rid himself of his burdens. In the large cities he often pays an «assessment» for the privilege of the nomination, and reaches the legislature with the expectation of recouping himself out of his opportunities as a lawmaker.

The consequences of this change in the quality of legislators are familiar to all observers. Not only have the men of business, of professional eminence, of high character, in all walks of life separated themselves from the work of making laws, but the interests which they would properly represent in the halls of legislation have in some cases adopted the practice of obtaining by purchase the legislation which they desire.

The remedy for this condition of affairs is obvious, and has been applied in many States. It has happened repeatedly that when a legislature became so bad that its doings were intolerable, its successor has contained men of a higher and more useful character. The people have recognized that the fault lay in their own indifference or negligence, and have exerted themselves to secure the nomination and election of better men. This can be done in every State if the people will arouse themselves to their duty in the matter. The great cities, with their ignorant and their depraved voters, are the most difficult fields in which to work; but there is not one of

these in which the honest and intelligent people cannot triumph by uniting and making the necessary effort. Popular government cannot be trusted to take care of itself. Respectable citizens cannot neglect their public duties, decline to take an active part in politics or to hold public office, and expect their government to be intelligent and honest. If they do not take charge of their public affairs, the other elements of the population will take charge of them, and, having obtained possession, will administer them in their own way.

The Flag—a Symbol or a Fetish?

MUCH has been said within recent years about the teaching of patriotism in the public schools of the United States. To the end that it might be encouraged, many of the schools have been provided with flags, and in a considerable number formal exercises take place from time to time, when the flag is paraded, saluted, and the pupils pledge allegiance to it. The sight is always impressive and gratifying.

Yet it may properly be asked whether there be not some danger lest the enthusiasm thus aroused expend itself upon the sign rather than upon the thing signified; that is to say, whether our patriotic endeavors may not, unless wisely directed, produce a sentimental attachment to an emblem instead of creating a type of civic life whereby the emblem is genuinely glorified. It is of the highest importance that our children and youth should be taught that the nation expects them to devote property and life, if need be, to her defense, and that they must regard the integrity of the state as their peculiar care. But the possible danger which lurks in teaching patriotism primarily by means of this beautiful symbol is that it encourages the pupil to look for an international rather than a domestic field wherein to display his devotion. When a Spanish mob, incensed by what it considers bitter provocation, tears the Stars and Stripes in pieces, or an Irish poet sings of «bastard freedom» and a «fustian flag,» he is duly roused. The flag seems to him to have been immediately and grossly insulted, and he resents the insult; but so long as it waves undisturbed by any hostile hand or mocking word, he is tempted to feel that it is safe, even though corruption, greed, and partizanship bear sway under its very shadow. He is so convinced that where the sign is deliberately dishonored the thing signified must be insulted as to take for granted the wholly different proposition that so long as the flag is outwardly respected the state must be secure.

Under scarce any form of government can this fallacy produce more lamentable results than in a great republic. It was long since wisely observed that «the danger to a small republic comes from without; to a great republic it comes from within.» Indeed, any one who rereads the «Knights» of Aristophanes must be struck with the cogent application of its sarcasm to latter-day politics. *Mutatis mutandis*, Cleon and the Sausage-seller are with us still, striving as best they may to outbid each other in the favor of Demos—making small account, to be sure, of what Demos really needs, but fertile in devices for pleasing his ear, tickling his palate, fostering his self-love, and befogging his judgment. Now, as then, too, each is prodigal of protestations that he and he alone is truly loyal to the good name of his master, and that if Demos

will but put the household quite unreservedly into his keeping, he will give especial attention to its social dignity and influence among the neighbors. One remembers the eulogy upon Colonel Yell of Yellville, «that though it was true his books did not balance, none could doubt that his heart beat warmly for his native land.» It serves to remind us that the deeper a man's hands go into the public pocket, the louder may become his vociferations of devotion to the flag, and the fiercer his indignation against any who may insult it. Nothing, indeed, can suit his purposes better than to foster a worship of the sign so blind and fatuous as to brand as unpatriotic all inquiry into the reality signified.

The recent history of biblical research has afforded us an admirable example of the tendency of means to usurp the place of ends. The Bible contained so sacred and necessary a revelation that in their reverence for its high office men confounded the Book and the message. A notion spread abroad that all searching examination of the sacred volume was an implied insult to it. Simply as a volume, or a collection of literature, it became sacrosanct, and men who would have shrunk in horror from the suggestion of idolatry fell perilously little short of worshiping it. To treat it as one might treat any other intelligent and trustworthy literature savored of heresy. And it is only after a long struggle that the Church has come to see that wise and candid study, with the aid of the best appliances, is the truest expression of reverence for the essence of the message. In a somewhat different fashion the emblem of the cross has genuine significance, and is worthy of man's reverence only as it represents the spirit and mind of Christ. It may become the merest fetish that ever misled and blinded human souls.

It is a matter of commonest experience that the higher the moral quality of any emotion, sentiment, or theory of life, the more dangerous the husk of it is likely to prove when emptied of ethical content. There is a distinct tendency in some quarters to-day to treat everything as glorious which the flag can be made to cover, and to denounce as unpatriotic all critical inquiry into the real ethical conditions of national life. The mass of Americans have yet to realize that patriotism is less an impulse than a duty, and that the man who makes most searching inquisition into the failings and possible iniquities that mar our public life, pleading for simple, unambiguous public speech, and the sternest and most uncompromising integrity in public act, may prove to be a truer patriot than he whose love of country never goes beyond the flag, which he bespatters with tawdry adjectives, and degrades by meaninglessly flaunting it in the face of sister nations.

The sapient remark of Guyau that «defense against the attacks of barbarians from within is as essential to our democracies as defense against the foe from without,» has a profound significance for American citizens. What the rising generation needs in the way of civic training is an intelligent acquaintance with the economy of our governmental system; the awakening of an unselfish and never-ceasing devotion to the duties of citizenship; a clear discernment between truth and cant in political speech; and a conception of patriotism that shall be ethical as well as emotional. By all means let the flag be kept in the schools and honored there; but let re-

newed effort be made to teach the pupils that its glory is precisely commensurate with the true nobility of that national life which it symbolizes.

The Frontispiece.

DAGNAN-BOUVERET'S picture, "The Last Supper," was perhaps the most notable of the paintings seen in this year's spring exhibition in Paris. In it a great religious theme is treated with all the skill of modern Parisian art, but with none of its sensationalism. The name of

Dagnan-Bouveret, indeed, is a guaranty of serious intention no less than of high artistic accomplishment.

No copy has yet been put forth of the painting; but by arrangement with and through the courtesy of Bousod, Valadon & Co., we are able to present to the readers of THE CENTURY a copy of the study for the head of the central figure. This head of Christ, which thus appears as the frontispiece of the Christmas CENTURY, is an important addition to the imaginative presentations of this most sacred and most difficult of all subjects.



The Higher Education for Women.

MR. ROMANES has lately given utterance to the theory that women of unusual mental powers are deserving of heart-felt pity; that they are destined to be very unhappy themselves, and to be exceedingly obnoxious to all those of either sex who may have the misfortune to know them. As a matter of fact, we do not find that those women who have actually been distinguished for their mental powers have done anything to confirm this theory. They have every one had the perversity to lead remarkably happy lives, and to have bound to themselves by the strongest ties of friendship the greatest and best of their contemporaries. Mrs. Somerville had rare social powers, and she met with a rare degree of social success. Mme. Kovalévsky, the famous Russian mathematician, is described as exerting a remarkable fascination upon all who surrounded her, and children in particular, it is said, were very sensitive to her charms. Sophie Germain had a wide circle of friends, who all spoke with enthusiasm of the charm and grace of her conversation, of the self-forgetfulness and the modesty of her character. Maria Mitchell had the love and reverence of class after class of enthusiastic young girls, and whoever had once been her pupil remained her devoted friend for life.

But this theory of Mr. Romanes is one which does not need confirmation by facts. It is one of those theories which the strong intuitive powers of his sex can perceive to be true at a glance, and to which the dicta of experience are absolutely immaterial. The slower-going reasoning powers of women, not seeing this hypothesis borne out by the facts, cannot help asking by what theoretical arguments it is supported; but on this point Mr. Romanes does not offer any assistance. He fails to give us any reason why clear and straightforward habits of thinking, which are admitted to be an element of agreeableness in a man, should be of an opposite character in women. I admit that there is something rather attractive about the mental powers of children. I admit that frivolity and inconsequence have a certain charm in a fair young girl; she is so very charming that everything about her is seen in an enchanted light. But is it to be supposed that if a good, clear understanding were added

to her other attractions, she would be any less the mistress of all hearts than she is now? I do not believe that intelligence is a blemish in a woman any more than I believe that gentleness and virtue are blemishes in men. It is not to be supposed that a good intellect will always insure a woman's being lovable; but at the same time, it should not be forgotten that there are disagreeable women even among the very weakest-minded. It is true that a small amount of cleverness, a degree of learning which does not rise above pedantry, may make a person of either sex unadapted to lending charm to human intercourse; but that large mental powers, generously cultivated by the best attainable means, have not the effect of making both men and women more valuable for friendship, and more charming for love, is a proposition so nonsensical that it would not seem possible for any fair-minded person to hold it. It is an opinion that can be accounted for only when it is entertained by those men whose overweening vanity makes it impossible for them to find happiness except in an atmosphere of feminine adulation.

Neither can it be supposed that the possession of a feeble intellect, or of one which has been allowed to grow up wholly in a state of nature, is an absolutely certain guaranty of a well-ordered house and of well-trained children. There was once a race, the name of which has not been preserved in history, whose women had very soft and flabby muscles. A lover of reform proposed to introduce bodily exercises among them, in order to develop in them a greater degree of strength. "No," said some; "that would unfit her for her duties as wife and mother. It is only her weakness that causes her to love her children. Make her strong, and she will insist upon digging the cabbages, and milking the cows, and all our children will die of neglect in early infancy." So the change was not introduced, and the surrounding nations, being equally favorably situated in other respects, and having stronger women, gradually gained upon this short-sighted race, until it was crowded out of existence. There can be no doubt that that nation which first adds the well-trained mental powers of its women to the sum total of its intelligence will add vastly to its power for dealing with all those difficult

questions which are pressing for solution. And there is no walk of life so uncomplicated that its problems cannot be better met, and hence the level of intelligence in citizenship be distinctly raised, by fitting out brains with knowledge, and with the mental force requisite for its application. There was a time when living was a simpler matter than it is now. Each generation was content to carry on its life as its fathers and mothers had done before it, and the pattern having once been set, it did not require much head to reproduce it. But the simplest kind of life cannot now be carried on by brains that are weak and flabby. No head of a household can sleep well at night unless she has knowledge enough to superintend her plumber. She cannot regulate her expenditures with easy conscience unless she can disentangle many far-reaching questions of political economy. She is forced to choose whether she will make her influence felt on questions of public and social reform, of temperance, of socialism,—on all the rocks on which our civilization is in danger of being shattered,—or whether she will join the ranks of those who are indifferent to the welfare of their kind. No one can form sound opinions in these days, and support them in such a way that they will carry weight, unless he has had his thinking powers hardened and tempered and sharpened by the very best processes that have yet been invented to that end.

The moral of my argument is very plain. Let women have the best education that can be given them. Permit them to make the most of their intellectual powers, however humble those powers may be. Because women excel men in virtue, they have not laid down the rule that men shall not be encouraged to practise the few small virtues that they are capable of. Preachers do not urge men to shun gentle manners, lest they should unsex themselves. Why not let each half of the human race cultivate whatever qualities it has, instead of crushing some of them altogether, because it is possible that they are too small already? Women have now entered the fields of organized charity, of prison reform, of management of schools. If they are bent upon occupying themselves with such grave concerns as these, why not put them in the way of getting that scientific knowledge without which they will do far more harm than good? Why not make it easy for every girl who has the right amount of ability for it to train her faculties as she thinks best? There are not many of either sex upon whom it is worth while to expend the higher education. For those women who deserve it we ask the best that can be had. Throw open to them the rich existing endowments which have long enough been lavished exclusively upon young men. Organize some method for picking out the clever girls from among those who cannot afford to go to college, and provide them with scholarships. Do not let the colleges reserved for women be crippled for lack of means. But above all, make them free of those postgraduate courses which are the flower of our great institutions of learning. Here and there will appear a woman of exceptional powers which it had been a pity if the world had lost. None will be injured by too much learning; all will be strengthened and ennobled, and we shall have fitted them, so far as in us lies, to leave behind them a world made better by their having lived in it.

Christine Ladd Franklin.

A Lock of Napoleon's Hair.

A RARE relic of the first Napoleon is in the possession of Mr. C. H. Bagley, of Abilene, Kansas. It is a lock of hair cut from the Emperor's head after he was dressed for burial on the island of St. Helena. Mr. Bagley is a native of the island, as were his ancestors for several generations. Mrs. Lowd, the nurse of Napoleon, was acquainted with the entire family and was a close friend of his mother. For fifteen years preceding the removal of the Emperor's body to France Mr. Bagley's father was the captain of the guard of the tomb. When the family, in 1860, left the island for America, Mrs. Lowd, as a farewell memento, gave to Mrs. Bagley half of the most precious of her possessions—this lock of hair. She said that on the night of the Emperor's lying in state she crept in to take a last farewell of the man she had nursed, and to whom she was much attached, both for his kindnesses to her and because of his position. She longed for a lock of his hair, and made a request of General Bertrand that she be allowed to clip a tiny strand. He acceded, and she did so. For forty years she had cherished it, and then gave half of it to her dearest friend; the remainder is in the possession of Mrs. Lowd's daughter, still on the island. Two years later Mrs. Bagley died, and the lock was handed down to her eldest son, the present owner, who was seventeen years old when he left the island, and has a distinct remembrance of the hale old nurse and of the farewell visit. She was about seventy years old at the time of his departure. The lock consists of twenty-four hairs, black-brown, with one that shows a tinge of gray. It is sealed up in a bottle and kept in a case, with a piece of the coffin, some velvet from the pall, plaster from the room in which the Emperor died, a bit of wood from the original willow-tree over the grave, and some mortar that held the granite on which the head of the coffin rested. Three grown children, who were present at the receiving of the lock, made affidavits to the truth of the statements recorded, and these are filed with the relics. There is no doubt of the authenticity of the lock of hair, and of the other interesting though less valuable relics. The hair is particularly notable, as it is probably the only bit of that which was mortal of the great Emperor now on this continent.

ABILENE, KANSAS.

Charles Moreau Harger.

[Not the only. The writer in his youth was present when was opened probably one of the lockets containing Napoleon's hair which were distributed, by the Emperor's direction, at his death. A single hair was given to the writer; he tied a bit of silk thread about it and placed it for safe keeping in his watch; the watch was left with a watchmaker for repair. The next day he went back to the shop and asked if a small piece of thread had been found inside the watch. «Yes; I blew it out.» «Then you blew out a piece of Napoleon Bonaparte,» said the writer.—EDITOR.]

«The Century's» American Artists Series.

WALTER GAY. (SEE PAGE 263.)

MR. WALTER GAY was born in Boston, Massachusetts, forty years ago. When twenty years of age he left that city for Paris, where he entered as a student the atelier

of Bonnat. His first *envoi* to the Salon was three years later, since which time he has been a regular contributor to that exhibition. His honors are: honorable mention, Paris Salon, 1885; medal of the third class, 1888; medal of the second class and *hors concours*, 1889.

Mr. Gay is one of the few foreigners who have been fortunate enough to have a work bought by the French government for the Luxembourg, and his «Mass in Brittany» received many votes for the grand medal of honor in 1892.

Mr. Gay's pictures display in an eminent degree the faculty of infusing the picturesque into common things. The movements of the figures are apt and right; they are always doing something, and are not simply posed models. The chief distinction of his paintings lies in the diffused light and vibration of atmosphere. Their color, somewhat sad and cold, is admirably wedded to

the subjects, which lean to the pathetic. Mr. Gay tends to the naturalistic, but his naturalism is always gracious.

W. Lewis Fraser.

Ronda.

A LETTER from L. W. Hopkinson states that she did not find the inhabitants of Ronda as «grisly and ghoulish» as Mrs. Pennell states in her account of «Midsummer in Southern Spain,» published in the September CENTURY. Our correspondent says that she and her mother visited Ronda twice in March, 1895—two women without courier or *valet de place*, and ignorant of the Spanish language. Although the town was swarming with young conscripts, they walked freely about the place, together and separately, without receiving molestation or ill-will from man, woman, or child. They found the «America» scrupulously clean, and with an English-speaking landlord.

IN LIGHTER VEIN



DRAWN BY JAY HAMBIDGE.

EM'LINE.

The «Settin' Out» at Big'low's.

WITH PICTURES BY JAY HAMBIDGE.

«YOU don't mean to tell me you never heard tell of a settin' out, do you? Well, it's plain to be seen as you don't belong in these here parts, then. Why, settin' out's a'most as common as courtin', an' everybody knows that's been common ever since Adam 'n' Eve.

«Settin' out is when two fellers is dead gone on the same gal. That does happen awful frequent, you

know; an' most likely they happens to meet at her house some night, both makin' a courtin'. Well, then, neither of them two fellers will go fust. They both sits an' talks, an' talks an' sits, an' each tries to tire the other out. The fust one to git tired an' go home is sot out, an' he don't never show up after that at that gal's house. That's what settin' out is. An' a feller that comes foolin' round a gal after he's been sot out, he gits sot down on hard by the gal, I kin tell you.

«Ever hear of the settin' out at Big'low's? No? Well, I thought everybody in the State had heard tell o' that. Go ahead an' smoke, an' I'll tell it to you. I don't mind smoke; my old man nigh smokes me to death, an' I kin o' git used to it.

«You see, old Tom Big'low, that lives in the big house down acrost from Burr Oak school-house, he had a mighty purty gal. Her name was Em'line, an' she was the belle of these parts for sure. Lots of black hair, brown eyes, an' pinky skin, an' all that. An' a hustler, too. 'S fine a gal at a churn or at bakin' as I ever see. Everybody said Em'line would make a fine wife, an' all the young fellers was after her hard; but none of 'em was in it 'longside of Jim Doolan an' Hi' Morgan.

«It seemed mighty clear to all of us that them two held the inside track, an' it only needed a settin' out to see which one was to git Em'line.

«Course everybody knew Em'line rather favored a young feller down at the Corners, a story-writer or some sech thing as had come into these parts to look at us an' write us up into fool stories, which ought to be made shut of by law, goodness knows, they are so redic'ulous, an' not a bit as we really are. But we all knew old Tom Big'low'd never let Em'line throw herself away on no such trash; an' Em'line understood that pretty well, too. You see, old Tom Big'low is the richest man in the county, an' the meanest, an' he had

TOPICS OF THE TIME

A Call for Home Patriotism.

THE new year ought to be a memorable one in the work of municipal reform throughout the United States. The passing of the Presidential election, with its momentous issue, leaves the field clear everywhere for the undistracted consideration of questions which are rather local than national, and into which partizan politics should not be permitted to enter. New York City will have to decide in November whether it will go ahead with its experiment in non-partizan administration, or will slide back into the slough of Tammany misrule. Its conduct will be watched eagerly by other cities, and if the verdict shall be in favor of progress, a fresh impulse toward good government will be felt in every municipality of the land.

New York can now be looked to with profit by other cities for guidance in the work of good city government. The two years of her reform administration have accomplished one remarkable result, and many others that are valuable. The one success which overshadows all others is that of Colonel Waring in the Street-cleaning Department. For the first time in the history of the country we have a great American city whose streets are as well cleaned as those of any other city in the world. One of the most common and most humiliating charges against municipal government in this country is thus wiped out so far as our chief city is concerned. In securing this advance for us, Colonel Waring has done something even more important than to clean and keep clean the pavements of New York streets. He has shown the whole country that the most efficient kind of public service is that which has no «politics» in it. Every great city in the country had for years a street-cleaning force under the control of politics, but in no city were the streets cleaned. Colonel Waring constructed his force on new principles; he defied politics and politicians; was obliged to face bitter opposition and persistent misrepresentation because of his defiance; but he won in the end, and succeeded in doing what no «practical politician» had ever done. Herein was a victory for the «theoretical reformer» which no man can gainsay. Furthermore, while doing this he organized a force which has become a cause of public pride. Before his advent no public servant was more despicable than a street-sweeper. Now he is a self-respecting member of a uniformed force which marches in annual parade through Fifth Avenue, and is displayed with the Fire Department to distinguished foreign visitors as one of the institutions in which the city takes pride. The men feel that they are their own masters, that they hold their positions because they are fit for them, and that so long as they do their work well no political boss can harm them. In other words, freedom from political interference has made men of them, and they do their work like men, and not like slaves.

The lesson to be drawn from this is twofold. In the first place, the best municipal service is that which is

thoroughly dissevered from politics; in the second place, the best results can be achieved only by a single responsible head in a municipal department. All observers agree, for example, that if Theodore Roosevelt had been the sole head of the Police Department instead of one of four commissioners, and had had as full administrative powers as Colonel Waring possesses, he would have given New York a model police force to accompany its street-cleaning force. He and his reforming associates have accomplished a great deal as it is, but they have been hampered seriously by the defective system under which they have had to work.

Back of all stands the lesson which cannot be too often enforced, that the only way in which to get model city government is to take the government of all our cities permanently out of politics—not for two years or three years, but for all time. New York has accomplished what she has by one step in this direction. If she does not follow it with a second step in November, much of the gain will disappear in a twelvemonth. Her short and fleeting taste of really civilized rule will be largely replaced by the old barbaric reign of incompetence, corruption, and political «pulls.» What must be had is not the service of a man like Colonel Waring for three years, but for life. In other words, we must have here what they have in the best-governed cities of Europe: permanent tenure for all the more important heads of municipal departments, and promotions on merit and fitness alone. In that way we shall always have in training for municipal service men who are competent to fill vacancies at the top, and to carry forward the work of government without a break. In that way, also, we shall shut and bar forever the door against the entrance of partizan politics.

In this struggle to put the government of our cities upon a thoroughgoing business basis, great progress ought to be made during the present year and the others that are to follow it, while we have a lull in national politics. Chicago, under her reform administration, has made great progress already, and is certain to make more, for a genuine public spirit has been aroused there by the Civic Federation, which has secured the thorough application of civil-service reform principles, and is exerting itself constantly to cultivate a militant civic pride throughout the city. Similar organizations ought to be formed, and indeed have been formed, in other cities, and good results are certain to follow their exertions. Let us have all over the country a genuine revival, a national awakening of home patriotism, directed at the abolition of ignorant and dishonest rule from all our cities, and in this way make the year 1897 a memorable one in our annals.

As Others See Us.

WHY is it that foreign newspapers almost habitually accept as accurate the most unfavorable views which reach them of Americans and American affairs and doings? American readers of foreign newspapers know

this to be the case, and are a good deal puzzled by it. Especially is it true of London journals. Many of these seem to be eager for news which represents this country as the land of extraordinary people and extraordinary occurrences. They revel in accounts of cyclones, of earthquakes, and of appalling railway disasters. Nothing strikes them as too unusual to be credited. The editor of a London daily who received the following cable message from his New York correspondent in August last published it in serene confidence that it was a truthful statement of facts:

Still the heat continues, and the odor of the charnel-house reigns over the city. From hundreds of decomposing human bodies and from the rotting carcasses of horses there exhales a stench that is positively sickening. Added to this horror is an epidemic of rabies. Mad dogs are running about the streets, and already more than a score of children have been bitten. The mortality due to the heat yesterday totals up 85 persons.

This was almost pure invention. If a New York editor had received from London a message ascribing such a condition of affairs to that city, he would not have accepted it as truthful. Why should a London editor be less skeptical about the probability of such things existing in New York? We are known to be a civilized community, and it is reasonable to suppose that a civilized city of a million and a half of inhabitants would have a government capable of removing dead bodies and checking the running of mad dogs through its streets. Why should not a London editor consider this when confronted with «news» like the above?

Similar credulity is shown by English journals in American political matters. The tendency almost invariably is to believe that the worst side has the best chance of winning. There must be reasons for this state of mind in regard to us as a people. Nations, like individuals, make their own reputations, and we must have a hand in making ours. Undoubtedly the long-standing view of us as an enormous country with an enormous mixed population is responsible for much of the foreign misunderstanding of us, but it does not account for all of it. For many years all the books which visitors to this country wrote about us were given up mainly to more or less exaggerated, and often largely imaginary, accounts of our peculiarities; but this is no longer the case. Most of the information which reaches the Old World in this manner nowadays is intelligent, and is calculated to depict us in our true character.

Can we be said to serve ourselves as fairly as others serve us? The two chief sources to which foreign observers look for manifestations of our civilization and progress are our press and our public men. This must be the case with every nation. Are these two reflections of our national life such always as to command high respect for our general culture, our self-restraint, our high-minded sense of justice, our broad conception of international obligations? It has been said that every nation has the kind of press that it deserves, that its newspapers reflect the tastes and mirror the intellectual standards of its people. We cannot expect to be made an exception in the general judgment of the world; and if many of our great journals place trivialities, scandal, and crime in most conspicuous position in their columns, thus assuming that American readers like that kind of news best of all, how can we complain when foreign ob-

servers accept the assumption as accurate? If some of our statesmen and politicians assume habitually a bullying tone of contempt for foreign opinion, if they habitually make light of expert knowledge, express contempt for trained intelligence, treat such grave matters as the public credit and national honor with indifference, how can we complain if foreign observers say that as a people we care little for all those things?

It is worth while to consider these matters seriously. The English editor who published the telegram about the condition of affairs in New York City had been in the habit of seeing American newspapers arrive in every mail with their columns filled with accounts of crime of one kind and another, and with groups of criminal events headed «Carnivals of Crime.» Such prominence and profusion of this kind of news in an English or other European newspaper would have meant a virtually lawless condition of society in the city in which the crime was placed. What more natural than for an editor who had been accustomed to this kind of news about New York to accept the rumors about mad dogs and dead bodies as not a bit improbable?

There is one trait of our national character which foreigners can never comprehend, and that is our unshakable faith in our ability to «come out all right in the end.» We stand idly and more or less indifferently by, and allow the country to be pushed to the verge of a financial or political precipice under the impulse of some kind of popular craze or another, entirely confident that just before it slips over we can take hold of it and pull it back. We have done this again and again, and nothing seems to shake our faith in our ability to repeat the operation whenever occasion arises. It costs us enormously, not only in reputation, but also in money, and retards our growth and progress in a thousand ways; but nothing seems likely to cure us of the habit, unless it be a great national calamity due to our failing in some crisis to take alarm quickly enough.

We must not say this much without adding that English periodicals are beginning to see the necessity of better reports both of current events in America and of the great movements of reform of various kinds that are continually being carried to successful conclusions in this country. The grotesque and sensational will doubtless not fail to have an undue share of attention on the part of the foreign, as it has with the native, press; but the deeper life of the people, the quiet, home-making, conservative, self-respecting, uplifting forces in American civilization, will not be forgotten or underrated.

A «Law-Regarding Race.»

We have heard it said of a great English poet that he was always disappointing his admirers. It may be remarked of the great American republic that it is always disappointing its enemies. A campaign such as that through which we have recently passed, marked by such intense mental excitement and harshness of language, ought in all reason to have been accompanied by physical violence. There were, it is true, rumors of eggs thrown—that seemed to hit no one; occasionally speakers were interrupted. There was some horse-play, doubtless; but where were the shootings and riots that ought to have been reported from all parts of a country

of nearly seventy millions of little and big agitated campaigners?

No; in the general good order—punctuated by not very important exceptions—the nation again disappointed those who are unfriendly to republican institutions. Riots came, indeed, neither during nor after the election. The quiet and good-natured way in which the defeated took the victory of their opponents constitutes another disappointment to our unfriendly critics.

All of which illustrates and enforces the truth of

Professor Woodrow Wilson's contention that Americans have always been a law-regarding race. He holds that this regard for law was apparent in the war of the Revolution; and that, later, «neither side could have fought the battles of the war of 1861-65 until they had satisfied themselves that they had a legal right to do so»; adding with a smile: «That they both thought themselves in the right proves what subtle litigants they were.» It is this respect for law that gives the great decisions of the suffrage their acceptance and effect.



OPEN LETTERS

Helen Keller at Cambridge.¹

HELEN KELLER'S teacher, Miss Sullivan, called upon me in June last at the Cambridge School, and asked me if I would admit Miss Keller to the classes with hearing and seeing girls, and fit her for the Harvard examinations. This proposition startled me, and I replied that I thought it impracticable. However, Miss Sullivan was, as usual, deeply in earnest, and urged me not to decide at once. She afterward gave me the opportunity to discover Miss Keller's mental power, and also to learn somewhat of her educational progress. I decided that it was possible to fit Helen for the examinations, and determined to make the trial.

During the summer Miss Keller was kept free from mental effort. She was already in good health, but she gained more strength by her summer pleasures; and she appeared at her new Cambridge home in season to present herself with the other pupils at the school on the morning of the first day. She has lost no time since.

In the school we are dealing with Miss Keller as we do with normal girls of sixteen. She has the new experience of leaving her home in the morning, and of spending the usual hours in the school building, where she has her class exercises with the other members of the school. She returns to her home at the same time that the other pupils do, and mainly occupies her afternoons and evenings as they do, though naturally she takes a longer time to prepare her lessons than they do, who see.

It is our endeavor to keep her from the distractions which would arise if she were to accept social invitations; but she receives her friends, as do the other ladies of the household in which she lives, on Friday afternoons and evenings. She associates freely with her schoolmates at all times, sharing their walks and social pleasures, much to their delight. Many of them have learned to talk rapidly with her, using the manual alphabet.

I could do little for Miss Keller were it not that Miss Sullivan continues her loving superintendence, and follows her with the ministrations that she has so willingly rendered all these years. Thus, while the direction of

Helen's intellectual work has been committed to me, I find it necessary to depend upon Miss Sullivan for certain assistance which no acquaintance less thorough and familiar with the past would be sufficient to suggest. I am day by day impressed by the magnitude of the work that we are called upon to perform for this marvelous girl, and I can only trust that I may be in some degree equal to the demand.

Miss Sullivan and I have always before us a sense of the novelty of the work, and we feel that we cannot lay it out far in advance. We are obliged to be constantly on the alert, watching developments, and prepared to do whatever is best at the time. While, therefore, we have the Harvard examinations before us as a goal, we are not willing to say to-day that Helen will take those examinations at any given time in the future, or that we shall not at another stage find that her nature demands a cultivation different from that which is planned for the average woman. We simply desire to feel free to take one step at a time.

In accordance with these plans, the first step was taken in October, when Miss Keller came to school with the other «new» pupils, and a rough classification of them all was made. It was at that time thought best for Helen to take up the subjects of arithmetic, English, English history, Latin, and advanced German. This work is progressing well. It was desirable, however, to get a more exact estimate of Helen's progress, and for this purpose I gave her at once four Harvard examination-papers that had been used at the college in June last by the candidates for admission. The subjects were those in which I supposed that Miss Keller was most advanced; but as she had never tried such an examination, and had had no preparation for an examination of any kind, the test would have been esteemed severe by a boy or girl in possession of all the faculties. Usually these papers are not tried until the candidate has been under special training of a technical character for a series of years. The conditions that I established were made the same as in the college, though the questions were of necessity read to Miss Keller, and the strain upon memory was greater.

The result was informally submitted to the members

¹ See also reference to Helen Keller in the article in this number on «Speech-Reading.»

of the Harvard faculty who had read the admission examination-books, and in every case I was assured that the grade was sufficient—in some respects more than sufficient—to pass the candidate. In reading these papers myself, I was struck by the literary style, which was original, and by the leisurely way in which the thoughts were brought out. Miss Keller seemed to me more willing to put a living interest into her papers than the average candidate is; and while she showed the most accurate acquaintance with the particular matter under discussion, she also showed a general cultivation which was as grateful to me as it was unusual. It was evident that the mind that was displaying itself had not been cramped by the technical training which is too often put in the place of a broader and more important instruction.

By these papers Miss Keller has shown that it would be an easy matter for her to pass the Harvard examinations in five or more hours in June next; but the question must be settled later in the year.

THESE words are written on the fifth of November. Helen has just finished her first examination in the work that her class in Latin has done since school opened. She had studied Latin only about one half of a year, and that separated from this date by two years. Her paper was marked «A» which signifies almost perfect. It was written under my immediate personal supervision, the questions being read to her. She was allotted an hour, and she finished the paper in fifty minutes.

It is impossible at this stage of the work for us to convey to Helen all the explanations of the teachers; but in spite of this, it is within limits for me to say that she keeps up with speaking and hearing girls. I have to-day unexpectedly asked for a report from each teacher on her work. One very rapid speaker among them says that at first she was aware of a change in her way of presenting the lesson, arising from an effort to give her information slowly; but that now she does not notice Helen's presence, and treats the class as though she were not there. In replying to «snap» questions, Helen is no more ready than other girls, but when she has time she does better work than the others. This teacher, as well as the others, thinks Helen's mental processes do not differ from those of other girls.

In German it is said that «Helen has always a clear, beautiful, accurate picture of the thing that she is reading of or describing. Very often other girls give a great many words and say nothing; Helen, never.» In Latin it is reported that Helen is quicker and more accurate than the average girl, and the teacher makes no change in her methods of instruction. Helen's English teacher thinks that there is little need of further instruction in that department, at least before admission to college.

After Helen had been three weeks in school her teacher in history asked her to prepare a theme on «The Qualities Which Make a Noble Man and a Great King,» and she produced the following:

WHAT QUALITIES MAKE A NOBLE MAN AND A GREAT KING?

«A noble man!» What do I mean by «a noble man?» I certainly do not necessarily mean a man of high rank, power or wealth, as the Romans did; but, to my mind, a noble man is he who strives to attain that which is beautiful and imperishable—love. Love is the foundation on which all nobility must

rest. If a man has love in his heart it will find its expression in many beautiful qualities, such as patience, courage, and charity. He is patriotic, honest and firm; he labors, not for promotion, but for the sake of the good which his work will bring to those around him. He is a true friend, whom all can trust, and all that is beautiful and good calls forth his warm enthusiasm. In a word, he is always «valiant and true.» A truly great king possesses all these qualities, and many others, which are necessary in the discharge of his many arduous duties. He will be self-controlled, clear-headed and quick to perceive the right thing to be done, and the best way of doing it. He will be strong, honorable and just; he will respect all the sacred things of life, such as liberty, property and education; and he will encourage the pursuits of peace—science, art, literature, agriculture and so forth. When he fights, it will be to defend his country against its foes, not for the sake of conquest or vengeance. In short, he will be «like unto the King of kings.»

Such a man, and such a king was King Alfred of England. He did not seek his own glory or fame; he had but one ambition, and that was to leave his people better and happier than he found them. After having driven out the Danes, who had for many years been ravaging and plundering the country, he first gathered the wisest, best men from all parts of his dominion around him, and then he set to work patiently to establish law, justice and order in the land. He rebuilt the old monasteries, and founded new ones, so that the people might learn to read and write, and gain useful knowledge; he himself translated some of the best books he could find from Latin into English. Consequently history tells us that he was the best and most beloved king England ever had.

Perhaps this is not a remarkable theme; but when we remember that it was written with a type-writer by one only sixteen years of age, who could not see what she was doing, who could not look back to recall the construction of a former sentence or phrase, who had never heard her teacher's voice, or when one thinks of one's self trying to do such a feat blindfolded, it takes on a different appearance. The punctuation alone is far better than that of most adults who have their eyes and ears, and who have enjoyed many years of instruction. So far as I can observe, there is but one slip. In the second paragraph, between the words «first» and «gathered,» the period key seems to have been struck instead of the space key near by it; but this many a seeing type-writer might do.

The day before the theme about King Alfred was written, Helen's teacher of English asked her to write a paper on «The Character of Rosalind,» and the following was the result:

CHARACTER OF ROSALIND.

What first strikes us in Rosalind's character is its buoyancy. As soon as she begins to speak, we know that she is young, fair and lovable. When we first meet her, she is grieving over the banishment of her father; but, on being chided by her cousin, Celia, for her sadness, we see how quickly she locks up her sorrow in her heart, and tries to be happy because Celia is happy. So when we hear her merry laugh, and listen to her bright conversation, we do not imagine for a moment that she has forgotten her sorrow; we know she is unselfishly trying to do her duty by her cousin. And when we see the smile fade from her sweet face, and the light from her eyes, because a fellow-creature is in trouble, we are not surprised. We feel that we have known all along that her nature was tender and sympathetic.

Rosalind's impulses, her petulance, her tenderness and her courageous defence of her father seem perfectly natural, and true to life; but it is very hard to put in words my idea of her character. It seems almost as if it would lose some of its beauty and womanliness, if I tried to analyse it, just as we lose a beautiful flower when we pull it to pieces to see how many stamens it has. Many beautiful traits are wonderfully blended in her character, and we cannot help loving the vivacious, affectionate and charming Rosalind.

In this school-girl's theme the teacher found but one word to mark. That was « buoyance » instead of « buoyancy »; and this shows a trait of Helen's style, for she is apt sometimes to use a word in an unusual form or sense which she has met in her reading.

Arthur Gilman.

Helen Keller.

SHE lives in light, not shadow,
Not silence, but the sound
Which thrills the stars of heaven
And trembles from the ground.

She breathes a finer ether,
Beholds a keener sun;
In her supernal being
Music and light are one.

Unknown the subtle senses
That lead her through the day;
Love, light, and song, and color
Come by another way.

Sight brings she to the seeing,
New song to those that hear;
Her braver spirit sounding
Where mortals fail and fear.

She at the heart of being
Lonely and glad doth dwell—
Spirit with scarce a veil of flesh,
A soul made visible.

* * *

« Ian Maclaren » as a Theologian.

THEOLOGY and literature have not always been on good terms, and a great deal is said and done to widen the breach. It is not long since a book was published the object of which was to define the religion of a man of letters, as though it were something unlike that of other men. Not having read the book, I am unaware if it claimed that the conscience and the affections and the will of a literary man are so unlike those of other men that he requires a distinct religion, though it is difficult to imagine any other basis for one. If the claim can be substantiated, I see no reason why it should not be elaborated, and if it contemplates future existence, why it should not proceed to define the heaven held in reserve for the religious man of letters, and the particular form of hades reserved for the irreligious.

Happily, the general tide of thought does not set in this direction, and not only is the man of letters not relegated to his single category, but he is more and more counted as belonging to the ordinary run of humanity, with no need of a special religion, nor even as devoted to one vocation. It is a fortunate thing when a true man of letters turns his attention to theology, provided he rises to the height and dignity of the subject. There are enough who are ready to load it with sneers and to assail it with criticism, but an honest and earnest treatment of it is always to be welcomed; for, instead of the man of letters needing a religion of his own, it is other people who need his religion. The above-mentioned book inverted the whole business. Religion has

been too much in the hands of theologians; it needs the light which can be thrown upon it by those close observers and interpreters of human life who dwell in the world of letters. The great writer is simply one who sees human life as it is, and sets it down in proper literary form.

Theology now goes half-way toward putting itself into the hands of literature by confessing that its field is largely the same—namely, life and nature. This is not a new departure, nor is it strictly an outcome of progress, but is rather a return to the beginning. The standpoint of Jesus was not in dogma, nor in ecclesiasticism, but in human life and its simple and evident relations to God and man. He found himself in life, and he made that the field of his action. Its natural and evident relations indicated his duties. The sources of the revelation of God which he made were in his own nature and in the world of human life about him. The fulfilment of his nature as the Son of the Father, and the life he lived in the world, constitute the gospel. The return to this conception is the chief characteristic of present-day theology. Hence the theologian of the new era need not be a metaphysician, nor of necessity a scholar; but he will be one who can interpret life at first hand, and follow it in all its ways; he will also have the discerning eye with which to see nature and penetrate to its meaning. We already have this order of theologians in the chief poets of the century: Browning with his direct vision of God; Tennyson interpreting the mystery of human life under the law of evolution; Whittier, the prophet of its hopes; Longfellow and Lowell, its teachers in every-day ethics. The writers of fiction have not done so well, having been inspired by a theory of realism which holds them down to one-sided and external views of life, while the poets, by the necessity of their calling, treat humanity in an ideal way, which is the only real way. But even the novelists have often rendered good service to theology by giving the final blow to some outworn dogma, or by standing sponsor for some new truth.

It is a fine service that the author of « The Bonnie Brier Bush » has rendered to theology in translating that charming cluster of stories or sketches into the form of religious teaching. « The Mind of the Master » is a straight, clear, penetrating look at Jesus, with no side-lights from other sources. Neither dogma nor church influences his touch or gives shape to a sentence. He looks upon that sacred life with the same close, sympathetic, and comprehensive glance with which he took in the Scotch parish. And here is where its value lies. The sketches move us because they are genuine interpretations of life; « The Mind of the Master » satisfies because it interprets his life.

It is needless to say of an author who is so true to himself,—a feature of Scottish writers,—that one finds in this book the same sincerity, the same soulfulness, the same keen discernment of motive and temper, which pervade his other works; « Ian Maclaren » and Dr. Watson are interchangeable names. He comes to this country as a writer of moving pictures of Scotch life; those who read « The Mind of the Master » will confess that he is also a theologian, and the two conceptions will not only not contradict, but will support each other.

T. T. Munger.

«Ian Maclaren» and the Brotherhood of Christian Unity.

A SPECIAL impulse has just come to the Brotherhood of Christian Unity from a new source. Dr. John Watson («Ian Maclaren»), in his volume of sermons entitled «The Mind of the Master," has suggested an ethical creed which so crystallizes the spirit and essence of Christianity that the Brotherhood has adopted it as a foundation for its work. It reads as follows:

I believe in the Fatherhood of God. I believe in the words of Jesus. I believe in the clean heart. I believe in the service of love. I believe in the unworldly life. I believe in the Beatitudes. I promise to trust God and follow Christ, to forgive my enemies and to seek after the righteousness of God.

It will be observed that this is in no sense a declaration of religious faith. It expresses only the ethical side of Christianity. The high Calvinist, the low Arminian, the broad Unitarian, the reverent Churchman, the Catholic, Anglican or Roman, the non-church member—all who wish to follow Christ can stand together on this platform without compromising any of their personal views concerning church or creed. To quote the words of Dr. Watson himself in suggesting the «creed»:

Could any form of words be more elevated, more persuasive, more alluring? Do they not thrill the heart and strengthen the conscience? Liberty of thought is allowed; liberty of sinning is alone denied. Who would refuse to sign this creed? They would come from the east and the west and the north and the south to its call, and even they who would hesitate to bind themselves to a crusade so arduous would admire it, and long to be worthy. Does any one say this is too ideal, too unpractical, too quixotic? That no church could stand and work on such a basis? For three too short years the Church of Christ had none else, and it was by holy living and not by any metaphysical subtleties the Primitive Church lived, and suffered, and conquered.

The Brotherhood proposes to bring Dr. Watson's sentences to the attention of the entire Christian public of America.

EAST ORANGE, NEW JERSEY.

Theodore F. Seward,
Secretary.

The Kingdom of Rosenthal.

HANS RICHTER, not long ago, presented Mr. Moriz Rosenthal to his orchestra in London as the «prince of pianists,» and since Herr Richter has chosen to pose as a Warwick in the kingdom of music, it is high time to define the boundaries of the new potentate's territory.

The first claim to royalty put forth by Mr. Rosenthal was his phenomenal virtuosity, coupled with his bravura. The development of virtuosity has proceeded in this manner: A fellow-artist once exclaimed to Dreychock,—of whom Heine said that he was not one pianist, but *drei schoek* (thrice threescore),—famous for his octaves, sixths, and thirds, but especially for his left-hand playing: «To what pitch will technic ultimately be brought! Some one will soon play Chopin's Revolutionary Étude in octaves.» Dreychock departed meditatively, and six weeks later returned and performed the feat. Liszt, hearing the story, sat down, opened the notes, and did the same thing offhand, remarking, «Very simple!» Liszt played *études* in rapid tempo to his pupils one morning. «Can you do this?» he asked Rosenthal, after he had amused himself by exciting their astonished admiration. Rosenthal sat down and doubled his master's tempo. Such is virtuosity.

It occurred to Tausig, the unapproachable virtuoso of

the next generation (he was Liszt's pupil), that Chopin's waltz in D flat major could be played in sixths and double thirds as an almost impossible feat of technic, and this he did. Mr. Rosenthal has repeated the feat plus the contrapuntal addition of the second theme simultaneously with the first. True to the instinct of virtuosity, neither artist has reproached himself for thus obviously painting the lily. Certain technical exhibitions constitute virtuosity's characteristic expression. The simultaneous delivery of the theme from «Fledermaus» by one hand and the air of a Strauss waltz by the other, in Mr. Rosenthal's «Vienna Carnival,» is the direct descendant of the waltz and galop which Moscheles used to play at once in sportive moments. But music has become such a serious business since it has assumed a religious, moral, ethical, and dramatic mission that artists no longer toss off such bagatelles with a grin, thoroughly inartistic as they are—inartistic because, though performed in counterpoint, the forced marriage of two melodies each springing from a wholly independent artistic impulse, and delivered as independently as possible, violates the first canon of art, viz., that every detail shall expand from the original poetic germ. Even at this valuation, Mr. Rosenthal's feats are considerably better than a double somersault backward on a tight rope; but he is not the «prince of pianists» on that account, although he has multiplied in geometrical proportion the difficulties that originally composed the stock of the virtuoso. He is the prince not of virtuosity merely, but of bravura (root *brav*, fine, gallant, courageous, good, kind, fierce, hardy, tempestuous). Bravura is virtuosity so applied to performance as to overcome the hearer with astonishment and admiration, and fairly to whirl him on with the motion of the music into ecstasy and madness.

The whirling is accomplished by the accent, force, and velocity of the rhythmical motion in which the almost superhuman technic is developed; and since the rhythm is wholly created by the temperament of the player, bravura playing is justly regarded as the one indispensable gift of the great concert artist. When Mr. Rosenthal by this means carried captive every audience he met in Europe, and last of all transported the great Richter also, he proved his right to his title. He is a prince, a conqueror, and the meanings that stick in that old root *brav* define his musicianly qualities exactly. Setting aside his bravura, Mr. Rosenthal's excellences as a musician are simplicity, perfection of detail, directness of technical method, good-humored temper in dealing with his subject, a tone large, musical, and of widely varied timbre, but polished rather than sweet, and a very intelligent insight into the construction and possibilities of the music he plays. With his defects it is not the purpose of this article to deal.

Born at Lemberg thirty-three years ago, he studied with Mikuli, with whom he played Chopin's rondo for two pianofortes in a concert when ten years of age. In 1875 he studied with Rafael Joseffy, himself a pupil of Tausig, remaining under the influence of this great pianist many years. Subsequently he received the appointment of pianist to the court of Roumania, a position which he still holds. In 1876 he accepted Liszt's invitation to join him in Weimar, where he learned to recognize his own genius and artistic nature. The influence of

Liszt is preëminent in the mature artist. The grand style, the impetuosity, the strength of tone, the choice of artistic effects characteristic of the Rosenthal of today, belong to the Weimar school. His cantabile and colorature playing, however, have been formed on those of his earlier master, Joseffy, and the development of his tone has proceeded in large measure from the Tausig-Joseffy artistic standpoint—purity rather than warmth.

As was the case with Moscheles, Mr. Rosenthal's view of his art has steadily broadened since his preëminence as a bravura player became assured. He is a man of liberal education, and the resources of his literary culture are evident in the picturesque element which has entered his interpretation. Every piece now comes from his hands a tone-picture complete in each detail. That «kindness» which somehow crept into the old root of the term *bravura* may be trusted to save him from the intolerable dryness and hardness that so often overtake the bravura player when the fire of youth is passed. As Mr. Rosenthal's own character finds artistic expression his interpretation steadily gains in interest, power, and dignity.

Thus far he has added nothing to the stock of technical means and methods obtained from his predecessors, unless it be the magnificent development of forearm- and wrist-playing, in which in power, skill, and velocity no living pianist approaches him.

The concerto by Schytte, the most difficult piece in existence, is practically a compendium of almost impossible

feats of wrist- and forearm-playing. Mr. Rosenthal's interpretation of it will remain the measure and model of virtuosity and bravura for at least one generation; and the same is true of the Brahms «Paganini» variations and the «Don Giovanni» fantasia.

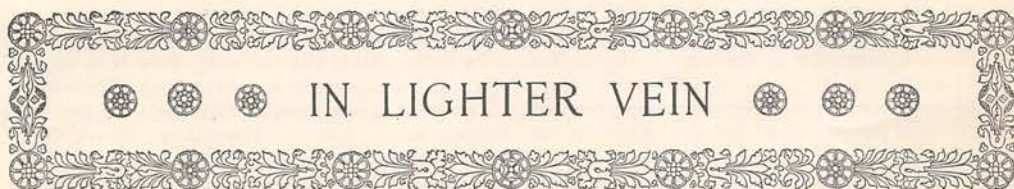
Fanny Morris Smith.

«The Society of Western Artists.»

«In the natural order of things, it was to have been expected that there would arise in the West an organization of artists to occupy the vast field there presented, and to invite the attention of Western people» to the existence among them «of artists worthy of patronage.» So writes to us a Western correspondent concerning the new «Society of Western Artists» organized at Chicago in March, 1896, by artists of Indianapolis, Cleveland, Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, and Cincinnati, with Frank Duveneck, president; William Forsyth, vice-president; H. W. Methven, secretary; and George L. Schreiber, treasurer. Long life and prosperity to the new art society!

Benson's «Summer.»

THE picture of «Summer» by Frank W. Benson, which appeared in the October CENTURY, gained the Shaw prize at the eighteenth annual exhibition of the Society of American Artists, 1896, and was printed in THE CENTURY by the kind permission of Mr. Samuel T. Shaw, the donor of the prize fund.



Partners.

LOVE took chambers on our street
Opposite to mine;
On his door he tacked a neat,
Clearly lettered sign.

Straightway grew his custom great,
For his sign read so:
«Hearts united while you wait.
Step in. Love and Co.»

Much I wondered who was «Co.»
In Love's partnership;
Thought across the street I'd go—
Learn from Love's own lip.

So I went; and since that day
Life is hard for me.
I was buncoed! (By the way,
«Co.» is Jealousy.)

Ellis Parker Butler.


A Book of Names.

THE writer recently examined a book that is perhaps the only one of its kind in the world. The volume is composed entirely of surnames, and its interest con-

sists not only in its clever arrangement, but also in the fact that every name is genuine and well authenticated, and forms one or more English words correctly spelled.

Names are not ordinarily very entertaining reading. We can all sympathize with the old woman who found a perusal of a directory rather uninteresting because it was «arranged 'most too reg'lar.» But this volume of patronymics is an exception. All who have had the privilege of examining it have found it both curious and entertaining. In one large sanitarium it was an unailing source of amusement to the patients, until it became so thumbed and worn that the owner was compelled to resume possession of it.

The origin of the book was on this wise. A number of years ago the compiler, then a young girl, told her uncle that she intended to make a collection of buttons or of postage-stamps. Her uncle replied: «Why do you not start something original, such as a collection of odd names? For instance, here in this newspaper are two that you might begin with—Mr. Toothaker and Mrs. Piazza.» The suggestion was immediately acted upon, and the result is a volume of some thousands of «names familiar as household words.»



TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Recording Tendency and What it is Coming To.

IT is getting to be a serious question as to how far the world shall go in the way of self-record, and after the record is made, how far it behooves the individual to acquaint himself with the record. This is not merely a question of daily journalism, or of the periodical press in general, but attaches to all the products of the printing-press, both literary and pictorial; it is a question, also, that has to do with art—literary, plastic, and theatrical.

The world's artistic record—the record in picture and sculpture of the scenes and thoughts of the present and the past—becomes constantly more extensive and minute, as shown in exhibitions, in the multiplicity of separate prints and of illustrated periodicals of all kinds. The invention of photography encourages art to be more photographic. The tendency is toward minute and literal representation of the visible world. Of late years all art has taken a realistic turn, and has gone largely into the business pure and simple of recording; we see this in fiction, in verse, in picture and sculpture, even in music. As it goes on, however, it is beginning to be discovered that the artistic record is apt to run to the trivial; that, as nature and life are infinite, we are threatened with an infinity of recording art, all fairly well executed, but gradually losing distinction, and tending finally to a false accent and an inexpressive and confusing multiplicity. Here and there reaction has been manifested against the tendency, and we have had various forms of impressionism and romanticism; but, on the whole, the last two thirds of the nineteenth century have been given over to realism in the record of humanity past and present, and of the aspects of nature. Even impressionism is simply an attempt to correct the record. This recording tendency in art is partly to be accounted for as a reaction against the conventional, partly as the effect of the great successes of science and of scientific history.

It is under this reign of recording realism that dialect has been chased up into all its myriad variations. It is the insistence of the recording spirit that has brought not merely the ugly, but the loathsome, into the record. There has been a sort of religion of the commonplace, as well as a religion of the beastly, the putrescent, and the obscene. There are books published nowadays, by men of artistic reputation, in which the record of the disgusting has been carried almost to the utmost—almost, not quite; for the most headstrong «realist» stops somewhere of his own accord. There were rooms in the two great exhibitions in Paris last year which one entered at his peril. The walls of one of these chambers of horror were covered with pictures skilfully painted, and dedicated to nightmare, despair, destruction, death, and cannibalism. The best, and we believe the biggest, painting of the whole hysterical lot was devoted to the minute portrayal of the last-named

pleasing theme—a historical subject delineated with conscience and completeness. Another chamber of horrors was full of sculpture almost equally ghastly and ghoulish in character. Concerning the recording realism of the French stage, the less said the better.

The processes of chemical engraving in the lower forms of the industry have been so cheapened, and ordinary printing is also so much less costly, that there is a glut in the manufacture of pictures, books, and all periodicals. It might at first be thought that the power to print must exceed the material for printing. But it has become evident that the quantity of matter that may be printed is quite sufficient to keep all the presses going; it is only in quality that there is any deficiency. The material for record is inexhaustible.

As to the recording activity of the new journalism, its frantic attempts to keep pace with the passing human show have already arrived at the stage of epileptic contortion, partly for the reason that the material is endless. Think of it! If all the rest of the world be set aside, here in our own country are nearly seventy millions of people all daily at work at something—for even the tramp tramps. Each individual furnishes material for record—first, in his individual capacity, second, in his association with others, in endless permutation. For instance, John Jones in any one day may be the subject, we will say, of journalistic record as plain John Jones; he may have a fit, steal a watermelon, or kill his grandmother. Then this same John Jones, by association with a family, a society, a strike, a target excursion, a foot-ball team, or a philanthropic movement, may give occasion to any number of further records. The millions of perfectly commonplace and unimportant John Joneses may thus supply the press with enough material to keep it busy; but there are tens of thousands of John Joneses who have become, to some extent, notorious or distinguished. Any day of their lives may furnish material for public record; if nothing else happens, they can at least give expression to an «opinion.»

With the standard of intrinsic values lowered, with little or no selection, except a selection of the unfittest, it is no wonder that the sensational press is getting to be the epileptic press, the general excuse for sensationalism being that anything that happens may be printed. Of course it is not true that anything that happens may be printed. The courts have a word to say about that, and there is a line drawn by the publishers and by the public, though sometimes the line is lost in the mire.

You can find artists in this recording age who deprecate composition and selection. They say they are «seeking the individual.» Seventy millions of individuals, seventy million pictures, seventy million statues. But why not multiply the pictures and statues by the days of the year? No individual is the same on any two successive days.

And as for the printing-press—but that is settling itself; for the time is at hand when every man will be his own publisher, author, and editor, illustrating his own work with his own snap-shots. When this time actually arrives, every man will simply read his own writings in «proof,» and no man will have time to read the writings of any other. Then we shall all begin again, and the art of selecting from the world's thought and doings what is really worthy of record and worthy of examination will once more be exalted among men.

Words of Helpfulness.

In addition to the great religious books—the Bible, the «Imitation of Christ,» and others—there are certain passages of spiritual literature, often of poetry, less often, perhaps, of prose, which by their noble sincerity and the intensity of their human feeling, or the boldness and sureness of their perception of realities, inspire one with the consuming wish that they might be known and read of all men. Of such are Wordsworth's «Ode to Duty» and «Ode on Immortality,» Emerson's «Threnody,» «In Memoriam,» and certain utterances of Amiel, Dean Stanley, Matthew Arnold, and Lowell. It is to such writings that the harassed and weary spirit may resort as to a valley of repose or a mountain of far-seen revelation. They constitute for us a protection alike against the induration of custom and the mold of indifference. They are the classics of the soul, nourishing in us the ideal nature by keeping us alive to the reality of the «things that are not seen.»

But on a different plane there are often struck out of the life of to-day, and sometimes seemingly published ephemerally, poignant writings on life and death which pierce the heart with a similar emotion, and become a continual source of elevated interest by reason of the sympathy always excited by deep and sincere feeling. In greater or less degree this is true of a considerable portion of serious American poetry, major or minor, while in prose there are occasional examples of inspiring writing on spiritual themes, equally removed on one hand from the indelicacy of a too personal revelation, and on the other from the coagulated dryness of a timid style. Evidences already multiply of an appreciative response awakened in our readers by Mrs. Van Rensselaer's sketch in the *CHRISTMAS CENTURY*, «One Man Who was Content,» a profound and helpful study of courageous recovery from overwhelming grief. In the present number Mr. Stillman's touching narrative of the life of two squirrels, and of his divining affection for them, will likewise arouse the sympathy of readers through the love of animals which fills a large place in the human heart and has been the motive of many books. These two papers are among the writings which stir us to better moods, and leave us, as it were, enriched by the personal friendship of the writer.

There is another recent utterance of a different sort, but of similar import, which one could wish to place in the hands particularly of young men, and, in these days of friction between classes, in the hands of both rich and poor. We refer to the report of Mr. Carl Schurz's address at the obsequies of William Steinway. Mr. Schurz's words, coming as they do from one of our clearest thinkers and truest patriots, have an even higher significance than the moving tribute of a sincere friend

to a good man and lamented citizen. They excite an ideal of useful living which one can never forget. Mr. Schurz, speaking in German, said in part:

«As a simple workman William Steinway began his life's activity. Through unwearied labor, honest, daring, many-sided, thoughtful, he climbed round by round till the name of the great master manufacturer resounded through all the civilized nations of the earth, and the noblest societies of art and the mightiest princes of the world decorated him with their distinguished honors. But with all the greatness of his success he remained always the simple, honest restless workman—the true, the ideal knight of labor in the broadest, noblest sense.

«And—what is in our day of special significance—he was a pattern as a rich man. I wish I could call the millionaires of the land to this bier and say to them, (Those among you who lament that at times poverty looks with mutterings on riches, learn from this dead man.) My millions were never begrudged him. The dark glance of envy never fell upon him. Covetousness itself passed him by disarmed and reconciled. Yes, every one would have rejoiced to see him still richer, for every one knew that everything he got contributed to the welfare of all. No one fulfilled better than he the duties of wealth. There was no puffed-up pride of possession, no extravagant prank of display. Simple as ever remained his being, modest his mode of life. But he knew one luxury and he practised it: that was the luxury of the liberal hand—a princely luxury, that few of the world's greatest have indulged in more richly than he.

«I speak here not only of the gifts of large sums, of which the world knows, but of those much greater amounts that he spent quietly for his fellow-man, and of which the world knows nothing. And it was not money alone that he gave. It was the hearty joy of the genuine benefactor with which he bade the worthy welcome, and often anticipated their wants. It was the bright cheerfulness of the willing giver who could conceive no abuse of his generosity, who spared neither time nor pains, who let no business claims deter or disturb him, and who comforted and considered, thought and labored till the necessary aid was secured. How incredibly far that went, how great the number of those who looked upon Steinway as a kindly, never-failing support, how his labor of charity accumulated sometimes till the whole capacity of an ordinary man would have been exhausted, that only his closest friends ever knew; and they hardly knew it all. I have seen many men in my day, never a bigger heart. It is hard over this coffin so to speak the truth that it shall not seem exaggerated. Is it too much to say that in this man every human being has lost a brother?»

In the contemplation of such a personality one is impressed with the superiority of character over attainment, as an element of happiness either in individual or nation. The hope of humanity lies in keeping alive in each generation such a sense of its responsibilities to its time. This is the true altruism which is the main spring of patriotism and morality.

«384,282.»

It is not unusual to find the lawmakers of State or nation underrating the popular strength of reforms. With the lamentable but incorrigible tendency of legislators to follow rather than to lead public opinion, it has not infrequently occurred that they have waked up to find themselves very far behind the progress of public opinion. This has been the case in the matter of the abolition of slavery, civil-service reform, sound money, and other causes; and that this is equally true in the matter of forestry reform, both in the State of New York and in the country at large, there is now no reason to doubt. Instances are afforded by the favorable reception in different parts of the central West and the Pacific slope of the Presidential proclamations establishing out of the public lands forest reserves for the conservation of the timber and of the water-supply often sorely

needed for irrigation purposes. Indeed, as soon as the people are led to consider this question, its far-reaching relations become evident, and with the exception of those who have something to make by the spoliation of government lands, they are sure to be overwhelmingly on the conservative side. Such has been the case with regard to the great forest reservations in the Sierra Nevada and the Cascade range, and there is every reason to believe that public sentiment will heartily support the much-needed extension of the system in other portions of the country.

But the most striking instance of public revolt against an attempt to divert a forest reservation from public uses is found in the overwhelming majority—officially given as 384,282—by which the endeavor to amend the constitution of the State of New York relating to the Adirondack Park was defeated at the election in November. Late in the campaign, under the lead of the New York Board of Trade and Transportation, a vigorous fight was made against the scheme to undo what had been gained for the Adirondacks through the Constitution of 1894, by which the framers of that instrument, in sheer despair at the prevalent vandalism, forbade the cutting of timber, or the sale or exchange of lands already reserved for public uses. The spirit of this protest may be inferred from the fact that, in the

words of Mr. Frank S. Gardner, secretary of the Board of Trade, «at the first intimation of danger the people were wide awake, and in every county of the State captains eager to lead the fight were found.» The significant feature of the vote was that the counties in the vicinity of the park uniformly voted on the right side. We believe that this tremendous majority indicates that, as Mr. Gardner says, «the forests are protected in the love and intelligence of the people.»

The Adirondacks have become so largely a resort and sanitarium for the people of the United States that their preservation is no longer a matter of local concern. It would now seem, in view of this vote, an appropriate time to undertake the completion of the original plan for the reservation, the limits of which are known on the map as the «blue line,» within which, however, there is much private land, the denuding of which would largely defeat the very purpose of the reservation. Surely, the wish of the public, as revealed in the test vote on the amendment, and the fact that the acquisition of the desired territory can be made more cheaply now than at any future time, are strong arguments for seizing the opportune moment to perfect this beneficent scheme. To this end the law of eminent domain may well be invoked, and the cost of the undertaking provided for by some carefully planned scheme of gradual payment.



OPEN LETTERS

A Recollection of Lincoln in Court.

THOSE who knew Mr. Lincoln in the days before his contest with Douglas for the senatorial representation from Illinois, will remember that he had won reputation for legal ability and for unsurpassed tact in jury trials.

Among the most important cases in which he appeared was the Rock Island Bridge Case, which was tried in the fall of 1857.

Being then in Chicago, and meeting John F. Tracy of the Rock Island Railroad, he said to me: «Our case will be heard in a day or two. You had better look in; I think it will interest you.»

The trial was the result of a long and violent opposition of river-men and steamboat-owners to the construction of a railroad bridge across the Mississippi River between Rock Island in Illinois and Davenport in Iowa. Continued friction between the builders and boatmen finally culminated in the burning of a steamboat which ran against a pier, causing a partial destruction of one of the trusses of the bridge. Suit was brought by the owners against the railroad company, and after various legal delays was called in the District Court of the United States for the Northern District of Illinois, Hon. John McLean presiding.

The court held its sessions in what was known as the «Saloon Building» on the southeast corner of Clark and

Lake streets. The room appropriated for its use was not more than forty feet square, with the usual division for the judge, clerks, and attorneys occupying perhaps twenty feet on the farther side, and provided with the usual furniture. The rest of the room contained long benches for the accommodation of the public. Near the door was a large stove of the «box» pattern surmounted by a «drum.» These were common throughout the West in those days, when modern appliances were not thought of.

Alongside the stove was drawn one of the long benches, its front and sides cut and lettered all over. Here in cool weather frequently sat idlers, or weary members of the bar, and witnesses in cases on trial.

Much time was taken up by testimony and contentions between counsel; and as the participation of the St. Louis Chamber of Commerce was openly charged, great interest was manifested in the evidence and the manner in which it was presented.

As the character of the Mississippi River was described,—the nature of its currents, their velocity at certain periods, the custom of navigators and pilots in allowance for drift, the depth of water at the «draw» of the bridge, the direction of the piers in relation to the channel, and many other points involving mechanics and engineering being drawn out,—the spectators showed their sympathies unmistakably.

Engineers in the service of the government, civil engineers, pilots, boat-owners, and river-men had testified under the most searching examination. Lincoln seemed to have committed all the facts and figures to memory, and often corrected evidence so effectively as to cause a ripple of mirth in the audience.

During a tedious examination by one of the opposing counsel, Mr. Lincoln rose from his chair, and walking wearily about,—this seemed to be his habit,—at last came down the aisle between the long benches toward the end of the room; and seeing a vacant space on the end of the bench which projected some distance beyond the stove, came over and sat down.

Having entered the room an hour before, I sat on the end, but, as Mr. Lincoln approached, moved back to give him room. As he sat down he picked up a bit of wood, and began to chip it with his knife, seeming absorbed, however, in the testimony under consideration. Some time passed, when Lincoln suddenly rose, and walking rapidly toward the bar, energetically contested the testimony, and demanded the production of the original notes as to measurements, showing wide differences. Considerable stir was occasioned in the room by this incident, and it evidently made a deep impression as to his comprehension, vigilance, and remembrance of the details of the testimony.

As the case progressed public interest increased; the court-room was crowded day after day. In due time the final arguments were made. Apparently counsel had assigned parts to one another. The Hon. Norman B. Judd, the Hon. Joseph Knox, and Mr. Stanton (of Cincinnati) preceded Mr. Lincoln, who in addressing the court claimed that the people along the river had the right to cross it in common intercourse; that the General government had jurisdiction under that provision of the Constitution authorizing Congress to regulate commerce between the States, in which power there was implied protection of legitimate means for its extension; that in such legitimate extension of commerce, which necessarily included transportation, rivers were to be crossed and natural obstacles everywhere surmounted; and that it was the manifest destiny of the people to move westward and surround themselves with everything connected with modern civilization. He further argued that the contention of the St. Louis interest was wholly technical and against public policy.

These and other points were most clearly and ably presented, and when Judge McLean gave his emphatic decision in favor of the Rock Island Railroad Company, it seemed to have received a large inspiration from Lincoln's masterly argument.

In the following year occurred the debates between Lincoln and Douglas, which abounded in amusing incidents. Lincoln's talent and tact in controversy, his deep knowledge of our institutions, his intense desire for their legitimate perpetuation, and his profound love for the people at large, for charity and forbearance—

all these qualifications impressed the public mind, and prepared the way for his subsequent elevation to the Presidency.

F. G. Saltonstall.

Our Frontispieces—Lincoln; Grant.

THE portrait of Lincoln which is given as a frontispiece of the present number of *THE CENTURY* is not new to the public; but no wood-engraving of it has before been made, and the unusual interest which attaches to it as one of the most agreeable of the early portraits of Mr. Lincoln has induced us to present here the admirable woodcut which has been made by Mr. T. Johnson. From a letter from the Hon. Robert T. Lincoln, dated November 21, 1896, we quote the following reference to the portrait:

The proofs mentioned in your favor of the 18th inst. have come, and I am very much pleased with the work of your artist. I regret that I cannot give you any positive information as to the date of the original daguerreotype, and there is probably no one living who can do so. I was born in 1843, and can only say that I remember it as being in my father's house as far back as I can remember anything there. My own mere guess is that it was made either in St. Louis or Washington City during my father's term in Congress—which practically began in December, 1847, and ended in March, 1849. I mention St. Louis because I think it was in those days an important stage in the journey to the capital.

The portrait of Grant as major-general is from a photograph owned by Fred. B. Schell, who during the war was pictorial correspondent on the staff of «Frank Leslie's.» It bears General Grant's autograph, placed there at Chattanooga on Mr. Schell's request. It is from a negative taken at Vicksburg in 1863, and well represents General Grant's appearance at the time of his command at Chattanooga, which is the subject of the opening paragraphs of General Porter's series. It is believed that this little-known portrait has not been hitherto engraved.

A Servant's Approval of the Training-school Idea.

WE have received a letter from a servant doing general house-work who has been in only three places in eight years. Having read in the September *CENTURY* the article on «Training-schools for Domestic Servants,» she expresses her opinion that it would remedy the present unfortunate state of affairs. She thinks that if such a school were established, there is little doubt that there would be plenty of capable girls willing to learn; that the present trouble is caused by a lack of knowledge of how things should be done, which makes them harder to do, and so tries the patience of the mistress. She thinks if servants had a broad training of this sort, they would then know which special line of work it would be best to follow, and they would at the same time be able to manage any branch of it; they would, moreover, thus learn that house-work is an art to be proud of.—EDITOR.

spirit upon the humane impulses, the passionately sympathetic thoughts, which spring quicker to the heart of probably every normal reader at sight of the lines on Lola's death than at the touch of the writer's finest prose. And with Arnold, as with the two men of genius whose names have been joined with his so often in this place, the purely humane mood was the common mood of his life, the one to which the reader most frequently

comes back in his letters. «The real inside,» that is the test, as Lowell insists; and though Arnold is in his books one of the rarest spirits of his time, it is not until «the real inside» of him has been apprehended, not until he has been studied at home, that the extraordinary charm of his individuality is fully known. In this he is the type and ideal of what a letter-writer, and, we may add, a man also, in the noblest sense should be.

Royal Cortissoz.



TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Outgoing President.

NO President of the United States has ever taken other than a serious view of his great responsibilities; but it may be said that few of our Presidents have devoted themselves as conscientiously and minutely to the details of executive duty as has President Cleveland. The paper on «Our Fellow-Citizen of the White House,» in this number of THE CENTURY, is therefore of peculiar interest as describing accurately and freshly not only the duties of a President, but the particular methods of a particularly hard-working chief executive.

The paper referred to makes no mention of the well-known fact that the regular and constant duties of President Cleveland in his second term have been interrupted by events of unusual gravity. Certainly not since Lincoln's Presidency has any President been confronted by problems of equal difficulty, or had to meet crises of such excitement and threat. It should be remembered, too, that early in this second term there was a period of illness, occurring at a time of enormous anxiety and pressure.

It is a fact that while the career of the retiring President has been exceptional from the beginning, the period of his second term has been especially so. We have no intention to describe in detail its successes and failures, and shall mention, in an unpartizan spirit, only certain large policies with which, for praise or blame, it is sure to be identified in history. As to which of these policies shall seem from the standpoint of the future most notable, it is impossible for contemporaries to determine.

While there is difference of opinion as to the wisdom of President Cleveland's Hawaiian policy, it has been held by some experts in international relations that an ethical standard was then raised which may be cited in the centuries to come as of value to mankind.

While there is difference of opinion as to the details of the management of the Venezuelan negotiations, there is no difference of enlightened opinion as to the incomparable value of the issue of that negotiation in a treaty of peaceful arbitration between the two great

nations which are the joint inheritors of the language of Shakspeare and of Hampden, and of those principles of justice which, through different forms, perpetuate representative government and human freedom.

Mr. Cleveland's first term was identified, among other things, with the advocacy of a lower tariff, with the attempt to regulate pension legislation, with interest in free art, international copyright, and the reform of the civil service. His second term has been marked by a heroic struggle for that standard of value in the national coinage which exists in the most civilized nations. It stands also for a protest against high tariffs; for economy in expenditure; for defense of our harbors; for the preservation of the national forests; and for the right of the National Executive to interfere in States in certain circumstances, and without gubernatorial invitation, in the interests of law and order.

Along with the great peace treaty, which will distinguish not only an administration, but an age, must be classed Mr. Cleveland's civil-service policy. It has been his good fortune to strike the decisive blow at the spoils system. He has not gone so far as to leave no large accomplishment for his successors; but his orders extending the scope of the merit system are the most sweeping, the most damaging to the old and crying evil of our politics, that any executive has yet been fortunate enough to make.

Mr. Cleveland, with others especially of our strongly individual Presidents, has been the subject of bitter calumny! What Washington was not spared, nor Lincoln, he, too, has suffered; but perhaps in this last case the growing sensationalism of some portions of the press has added somewhat of venom and fantastic invention to the usual abuse of the partizan, the disappointed, and the evil-minded. It may be that no chief executive in a country of such diversified interests and such enormous territory can hope to be generally understood in his term of office, or even in his lifetime. Such a public servant will never be omniscient, will never be free from mistake and error; but the time comes at last, before or after the long release, when good intent

is appreciated by all men of fairness and good will. In some parts of our country, perhaps, the misconception as to both man and motive has been so deep-rooted that with thousands of the present generation it may never be corrected. In answer to accusations of neglect of the claims of friendly obligation, it may be of no avail to point to numerous instances where the opportunity of reconciling public duty with private inclination has been eagerly seized. Those who charge sympathy with the «moneyed classes» rather than with the «masses» deny the necessity of promptly upholding the national credit, in the manner adopted, in behalf of all the people. Many who accuse the President of obstinacy may not acknowledge that a strong man's firm adherence to principle would be a more charitable, and in this case reasonable, explanation of conduct; and so on through the long list of animadversions.

The most extreme partizan opponent of the retiring President must acknowledge, if he knows the history of the man and if he has any fairness in him, that through Mr. Cleveland's entire public career he has taken and firmly held one position after another believing it to be right, and in total disregard of the effect of his action upon his own political fortunes. Surely no American statesman has ever more conspicuously exhibited the rare and saving virtue of civic courage.

But, as already intimated, it is not intended here carefully to weigh achievement, but rather to express those kindly sentiments which all but the most intense partizans must feel at the retirement to private life of a distinguished American, after a disinterested public service in which, often against tremendous odds, he has accomplished some things which will be «writ large» in the history of these United States.

And at such a time even an opponent should not refuse, at the very least, the meed of honest intention, and the greeting of good wishes. It was of the President who is now leaving the White House that Lowell wrote:

Let who has felt compute the strain
Of struggle with abuses strong,
The doubtful course, the helpless pain
Of seeing best intents go wrong.
We who look on with critic eyes,
Exempt from action's crucial test,
Human ourselves, at least are wise
In honoring one who did his best.

The Incoming President.

ASIDE from partizan questions and those relating to the tariff, it is gratifying to find in the record of Mr. McKinley's service in the House of Representatives, and in certain utterances of his during the recent campaign, abundant basis for the expectation that he is likely to rise above that dead level of provincialism which increasingly in Congress has been the constant foe of progress. After all, only a small part of the questions to which a President is compelled to address his attention are related to the antecedent division of opinion which we call partizanship, and it is greatly to be desired that a chief executive should be open to the influence of that body of expert and cultivated citizens which in the last resort must shape and order events in a democracy, if they are to be shaped and ordered for the public good. The intelligence of the few is the safeguard of the many, and the chief necessity, as well as the chief difficulty, of a

President is to know upon whom he may rely for such intelligence. But it is much to feel that an incoming President is animated not only by high motives, but by respect for learning and experience—a quality which, humiliating as it may be to confess, has been conspicuously wanting in recent Congresses, due partly to our machine system of nomination, and partly to the poor legislative timber brought down in recent years by unexpected and overwhelming freshets of public opinion.

Examples of Mr. McKinley's support of measures of progress are found in his votes upon the questions of civil-service reform, free art, and international copyright. On the last-named measure he voted constantly with those who took the side of civilization as against that of barbarism. With his coöperation, free art was incorporated in the original McKinley Bill as it left the Committee of the House of which he was chairman, though it was not enacted until the passage of the Wilson Bill. On the fundamental question of the merit system against the spoils system he has been aggressively right. In every platform of his party since 1872 there has been a declaration in favor of the reform, and in several national conventions he has been chairman of the Committee on Resolutions. In his letter of acceptance he said:

The pledge of the Republican National Convention that our civil-service laws shall be sustained and «thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable» is in keeping with the position of the party for the past twenty-four years, and will be faithfully observed. . . . The Republican party will take no backward step upon the question. It will seek to improve, but never degrade, the public service.

This course was foreshadowed by his speech of April 24, 1890, in the House of Representatives, in which he said in part:

Mr. Chairman: In the single moment that I have I desire to say that I am opposed to the amendment of the gentleman from Tennessee [Mr. Houk], to strike from this bill the appropriation for the execution of the civil-service law. My only regret is that the Committee on Appropriations did not give to the commission all the appropriation that was asked for for the improvement and extension of the system. If the Republican party of this country is pledged to any one thing more than another, it is to the maintenance of the civil-service law and its efficient execution; not only that, but to its enlargement and its further application to the public service.

The law that stands upon our statute-books to-day was put there by Republican votes. It was a Republican measure. Every national platform of the Republican party since its enactment has declared not only in favor of its continuance in full vigor, but in favor of its enlargement so as to apply more generally to the public service. And this, Mr. Chairman, is not alone the declaration and purpose of the Republican party, but it is in accordance with its highest and best sentiment—ay, more, it is sustained by the best sentiment of the whole country, Republican and Democratic alike. And there is not a man on this floor who does not know that no party in this country, Democratic or Republican, will have the courage to wipe it from the statute-book or amend it save in the direction of its improvement.

Look at our situation to-day. When this party of ours has control of all the branches of the Government it is proposed to annul this law by withholding appropriations for its execution, when for four years under a Democratic Administration nobody on this side of the house had the temerity to rise in his place and make a motion similar to the one now pending for the nullification of this law. We thought it was good then, good

enough for a Democratic Administration; and I say to my Republican associates it is good enough for a Republican Administration; it is good and wholesome for the whole country. If the law is not administered in letter and spirit impartially, the President can and will supply the remedy. Mr. Chairman, the Republican party must take no backward step. *The merit system is here, and it is here to stay*, and we may just as well understand and accept it now, and give our attention to correcting the abuses, if any exist, and improving the law wherever it can be done to the advantage of the public service.

This quotation reveals, in one who has not been wanting in stanch devotion to party measures, an underlying and statesmanlike perception of the broader ground of good citizenship upon which appeal for the merit system may be made. The same largeness of view—into which others besides Mr. McKinley have had to grow—characterized his references during the campaign to the necessity of extinguishing sectionalism, whether between North and South in its last embers, or between East and West in its first kindling. In this he has risen, if not to the measure, at least to the style of Webster, and under his administration we may look for the steady promotion of a wise, forbearing, patriotic national spirit.

Of the items upon which we may here touch without offense, there remains Mr. McKinley's uncompromising committal of himself to the gold standard. While he has shown evidences of a strong regard for party pledges, and, no doubt, feels obliged to take measures to give a fighting chance to the bimetalists in accordance with the St. Louis platform, it may be that he sees the advantage to a sound financial system of demonstrating to the country at an early day the impossibility of reaching an understanding with European countries on that delusive basis. However this may be, his personal responsibility for the practical administration of treasury affairs will doubtless force him to follow his inclination to cut loose from the present insecure system of national finance, and to do what he can to aid in the construction of a sound, firm, and stable currency in keeping with the experience of the world.

On the Public Wearing of Political "Collars."

SEVERAL of the chief States of the Union have recently surprised the good people of the country by conspicuous proofs of their humiliating domination by absolutely conscienceless and corrupt political machines. It would almost seem as if the great advances made of late in civil-service reform had stirred up the spoilsmen to an attack all along the line; at any rate, the notable triumphs of the merit system in the National, State, and municipal governments are contemporaneous with the manipulation of the machinery of party nominations by party "bosses" with such success as has seldom been witnessed.

But there are some consolations to be derived from the spectacle. In distributing the prizes of public office the machines have shown such baseness in their selection

of many of their beneficiaries as to betray their own true natures before the eyes of the entire community. The clearest sort of object-lessons have now made the dullest comprehend the fact that this sort of "machine politics" is not politics at all, but simple corruption. The deals are made in private, but the conspirators have to come out into the open to distribute or receive their payments from the trust funds of public office. The legislators who are bought by the payment of campaign expenses, derived ultimately from the cowardly guardians of corporate interests; the "respectable" citizens who are silenced or made allies of by the distribution of honors, salaries, or "opportunities"—all are rewarded in public; all wear their collars, inscribed with the owner's name, in the light of day.

Well, either this sort of thing will not last, or the country will not last. But if vulgar and defiant corruption is not permanently to take the place of government in our States and cities, every citizen who contemplates the disgraceful travesty of free institutions, shown in so many American communities, must do his or her individual part in bringing about the better state of things that is surely coming. There is nothing that cannot be accomplished by a righteous public opinion, and there is not a man or woman in the nation who cannot help to bring that instrument into play upon the backs of public recreants and despoilers.

A Good Example in Government Building.

THE articles devoted in this number of THE CENTURY to the new Congressional Library in Washington will give a good idea of a very notable and unusually successful example of construction under government control. Artistically, there is so much that is good that at the outset it seems ungracious to indulge in specific dispraise; and yet we may say, in passing, that some small portion of the painting now in place we hope to see removed from the walls in the interest of good taste and good art. The reproductions which we are able to give at the time of going to press by no means show forth all the excellent work of the many artists employed. There is some good work in sculpture, but on the whole the sculptors, perhaps for lack of equal opportunity, hardly seem so far to have done as well as the painters in connection with the library building.

In the matter of construction, it is to the credit of all concerned that the building, which was begun in the spring of 1889, is completed within the time limit; and, moreover, with a saving of about \$140,000 on the total appropriation. It is interesting to note, by way of comparison, that the gigantic municipal building in Philadelphia, begun in 1872, is only just now being finished, and that, while the Philadelphia building has already cost not less than \$1.60 per cubic foot, the library has cost but 63 cents per cubic foot, including decorations and everything else.





OPEN LETTERS

How to Utilize Old Magazines.

LOVERS of good current literature are often unable to decide satisfactorily what to do with their accumulation of magazines, reviews, and pamphlets. There was a time when these were not so numerous or voluminous, and the annual accumulation of two or three thumb-scarred volumes was sent by all well-regulated families to receive the bookbinder's care and attention. This done, they were placed on the library shelf with a sort of old-time parental admonition that they were not to speak until spoken to.

Much that these publications contain is of more than current interest or passing worth; then why this estrangement and neglect? Many of us value and esteem these old friends, but we approach them for the sake of lang syne, or else to remove the dust from their neglected covers. We live apart from them, so to speak, and consult them at long intervals. The gaps in these intervals are growing wider each succeeding year, and with the rapidly increasing appearance of cyclopedias, republications, and reference-books, the poor old shelf-worn bound magazines of ten, fifteen, or thirty years ago will become meaningless, except, like Mrs. Chub's picture, «for the name that's on the back.»

By reason of the great number and variety of periodicals which nowadays come into the family, and because of their bulk and the cost involved, fewer people bind them. Another reason for not preserving them is because of the space required to accommodate their rapidly increasing numbers. Assuredly the chief reason must be their unavailability after they are bound and shelved. The name of the magazine or of the review does not suggest the subjects contained or the matter for which we are in search, and without a classified index at hand search is always laborious and often fruitless. But even with a classified index of current literature in the library the difficulty is not removed, and the proper disposition of one's magazines and reviews remains an unsolved problem. The experience of one who has given the subject some attention is here recorded, with the hope that it may act as a thought or suggestion.

There comes a time in nearly all families of the present generation when some of its members are overpowered by the enormity of «back numbers» that cover attic floors, out-of-the-way closet shelves, and sometimes deny visitors the use of a library chair or two. At this juncture the presiding genius of the household is seized with a sudden fit of charity or philanthropy, and the city hospital becomes the recipient of cast-off goods. (There have been cases when the inmates were deluged with as many as twenty sets of Congressional Records, enough to make the poor readers inmates for life!) Having been faced with such a dilemma a few months ago, the hospital decree was issued by the aforesaid

feminine genius of the household, and only by a promise to make careful and satisfactory disposition of the literary property could she be dissuaded from her charitable course.

On the following evening, plans having been devised, work was begun, and it was continued through several weeks of an unusually severe winter, with pleasure, profit, and satisfaction, until the task was completed. From their dark corners came trooping forth CENTURYS, «Harper's,» «Forums,» «Scribner's,» «Nineteenth Centurys,» and «North American,» «Contemporary,» and «Fortnightly» Reviews, and these were destined to warm themselves in turn under the rich glow of the student's lamp.

The work of dissection is begun, the first step being to remove the covers and the pages of advertisements. Next, with a strong, sharp pair of nippers, the wire fastenings are clipped and drawn, or the threads cut with a sharp knife. A careful examination of the contents is now made, and the separation of the leaves is undertaken. This requires great care, and boxes of pins and small rubber bands should be kept at hand. It so happens now and then at the end of one article and the beginning of another that the leaves part easily without having to cut or tear them. The oftener this occurs the easier becomes the task, and if the printer could only be induced to arrange his matter so that the last page of one article would face the first page of another, the classification would be greatly simplified. Recognizing the inexpediency of this, the best must be made of difficulties, exercising always a little extra care and judgment. Such articles as are not to our liking, or for which we do not care, are first removed and consigned to the waste-paper basket. Serial stories, or even short storiettes if they have any merit, are likely to appear in book form, and consequently they, too, can be consigned, like some of our dear rejected manuscript, «to outer darkness.» Having disposed of stories and undesirable articles, and with still further eliminations which suggest themselves before the work of assortment and classification is begun, the original pile of publications is greatly reduced, and the undertaking seems less heroic. Now classification begins, and the real pleasure of the work is fully realized. Every deposit upon the respective piles is a plunge into a world of thought or an excursion into distant lands. Like the cards in lotto, sheets of paper on which are written comprehensive headings or titles are spread out over a large table, or sometimes over several tables, and upon these sheets the respective articles are placed. In the present instance, as many sheets as there were classifications were laid, and the headings used on these were the titles adopted for the respective volumes after the classified articles had been bound. Some of these were taken from one magazine or review, and some from

another, and indiscriminately mixed. However strained the relations of the editors or managers of the respective publications, no estrangement existed here. Everything was upon an equal and friendly footing, and what was best in THE CENTURY would lie down with what was best in «Harper's,» and, as if not satisfied without having all that was good, a contribution from «Scribner's,» or «The Forum,» or «The Fortnightly,» or «The Nineteenth Century,» or «The Contemporary Review» was demanded, and the demand forthwith supplied. «The North American» was in demand, but it excluded itself because of its size, which is neither so long nor so broad as it is deep and great. It, therefore, usually formed a pile of its own, but met its friends on the shelves. Thus many good things were brought together and grouped, with a view to getting kindred and congenial spirits in one another's company, giving to the reader the maximum of enjoyment, and conferring upon him the greatest benefits.

The size of the respective volumes cannot be definitely prescribed, but in thickness they should not exceed one and a half inches. A book one inch in thickness is a more convenient size, but it is not always possible to restrict it within any prescribed limit. There may be some very slight variation in the dimension of the pages in the respective magazines and reviews, but in the binding they are trimmed to a uniform size, and while there may be some variation in the margin, it is so trifling that it is scarcely noticed.

The periodicals in the present instance must have numbered five hundred or more, and after their articles were separated, classified, and bound, they numbered between sixty and seventy volumes. In a well-selected library they present an appearance inferior to few and superior to many of its volumes, and rank with the best in conferring extended wisdom and pleasure. Here are a few of their titles: «Art Papers,» «Artists,» «Architecture,» «The Stage,» «The Press,» «Clubs,» «Libraries and Museums,» «The South,» «Kentucky,» «Indian and Negro,» «International Questions,» «Biographical,» «Historical,» «Municipal Government,» «Invention and Discovery,» «Industrial Enterprises,» «Educational,» «Colleges and Universities,» «Scientific,» «Financial Papers,» «Authors and Authorship,» «Books and Book Notes,» «Great Ship Canals and Highways of Commerce,» «Government Control of the Railway and the Telegraph,» etc.

Again, the magazines are brought together in more noticeable and delightful companionship, «Topics of the Time,» «Points of View,» and «Easy Chair» commingling, comparing notes, and imparting wisdom in one group, while the «Editor's Drawer» and «In Lighter Vein» go into another, making hearts glad and driving dull care away.

It often happens that it is impossible to separate articles, for the reason that a desirable one ends on one side of a leaf and another may begin on the other side of the same leaf. One article may be on politics and another on some scientific subject, or one on politics and another on religion. This difficulty is remedied by having a volume devoted to «Politics and Religion» or «Politics and Science.» They either should not or do not generally go together in the affairs of life, but in a mute and submissive volume no harm can be done.

Many other titles will suggest themselves to the reader, taste and inclination being the determining factors.

It is inconceivable to the casual reader how much literature of real and permanent value appears monthly in the magazines and reviews of the United States and England, but all doubt is removed and a clear conception is obtained after consulting the shelf of books just described. Here, for example, is the way an interesting symposium is formed by papers appearing in the volume entitled «Ships that Sail the Sea,» viz.: «Are Fast or Slow Steamers the Safest?» «The Limit of Speed in Ocean Travel,» «The Ship's Company,» «The Good Ship *Constitution,*» «The Ocean Steamship as a Freight-carrier,» «The Revenue Cutter Service,» «Ocean Passenger Travel,» «With Uncle Sam's Blue-jackets Abroad,» «With Yankee Cruisers in French Waters,» «Speed of Ocean Steamers,» «Steamship Lines of the World,» etc.

The volume entitled «The Great Ship-canals and Highways of Commerce» contains the following between its covers: «The Present State of the Panama Canal,» «Waterways from the Ocean to the Lakes,» «The Nicaragua Route to the Pacific,» «The Nicaragua Canal,» «Impediments to our Domestic Commerce,» «The International Railroad Problem,» «The Nicaragua Canal and Commerce,» «Our Lake Commerce,» «Ways to the Ocean,» «The Isthmian Ship-railway,» «Ship-railways,» «Evolution of the English Channel,» and «Speed in Railway Travel.»

It would be difficult, if not well-nigh impossible, to find any one work containing more reliable information on the subject mentioned, or one so well suited to the tastes, needs, and capabilities of the general reader.

In the volume devoted to «Studies of Sundry Subjects» are collected many odd and incongruous titles, but often a separation is impossible without destroying one or the other of such articles as end or commence on the pages of the same leaf. For example, the splendid paper on «Our Political Dangers» by Professor Simon Newcomb, and the brilliant paper of Bishop Spalding on «Froude's Historical Methods,» could not have been separated without the destruction of one or the other, and for that reason they were properly assigned to the collection in which they appear. The associations formed in these volumes are democratic, cosmopolitan, catholic, and promiscuous. All sides of all questions, and the leaders of thought representing them, are given an equal chance and an impartial hearing. Emperor, king, president, and subject, the pope, Cardinal Gibbons, Bishop Potter, John Knox, Dr. John Hall, John Wesley, and Martin Luther, Andrew Carnegie, T. V. Powderly, Henry George, Professor Ely, and David A. Wells, are brought and constantly kept together in intimate and pleasant relationship. France and Germany, England and Russia, Austria and Italy, China and Japan, form a happy union, disclosing their charms to a delighted and interested audience of impartial readers. The formality of courts, the fashion of the ball-room, the conventionalities of society, the differences of rank and condition, the bitterness of national or party feelings, personal estrangements, religious prejudices, all are here waived and made subordinate to a free and easy, united and harmonious, social and kindly spirit, much to be desired but seldom seen in the more real and less ideal affairs and condi-

tions of human society. Thus may be instituted a modern «Thousand and One Nights'» entertainment. The occupation of arranging and assorting is in itself very pleasant, having its social side, and bringing the family together into close communion; and it is instructive, as it renews acquaintance with subjects half forgotten, and forms acquaintances with others before ignored.

Then the work itself praises its master and friends, illustrating the process of winnowing the chaff from the grain, typifying the reunion of friends and brothers separated and estranged by differences of opinion and belief, and finally establishing a union of good, wise, noble natures in an ideal republic as enduring, as delightful, and as useful as good.

Herman Justi.

«One Man Who Was Content.»

A DEBT of gratitude is due to Mrs. Van Rensselaer from those who have been so fortunate as to read in the December CENTURY her sketch, «One Man Who Was Content.» This dispassionate recital of the tragedies of a life, and the triumph of personality over fate, is an inspiration to its readers. The tragedies rehearsed in the narrative are not wonderful or unprecedented. They are such as may come into any life, to be taken lightly by the irresponsible or seriously by the thoughtful and introspective soul. It is not to the light-brained, nor scarcely to the light-hearted, that the rehearsal appeals; but rather to him who knows that stinging blows can be dealt by the hand of fate, or to one who has suffered through his own mistakes or the mistakes of others. Personal tragedies are ordinary happenings to the world at large. The death of one man merely makes room for the ambition of another, and each man has his own content to seek, his own happiness to possess, and his own salvation to gain. Individual man, even amid a host of friendly souls, stands sublimely alone with his Creator. To fall by the wayside under adverse circumstances argues only a weakness which fate is justified in crushing out. Mrs. Van Rensselaer says: To dwell in resignation «is to acknowledge defeat at the hands of life, to accept it, and in passive endurance to give up the fight for happiness. . . . But the brave man, the wise man,» cannot do this; «he holds to his birthright of hope, and looks forward to a time when,» notwithstanding the enmity of fate, «in some sure way he will reconquer and reestablish contentment.» It is the cheerful tone which commends Mrs. Van Rensselaer's story. From her position nothing, no adversity, no mistake, is irremediable. No matter what the changing conditions of life may present, there is always a chance for readjustment to new denials and new demands. Unkind fate shall not dominate, for there is always something desirable left which can be secured. Pessimism is at present so rampant in literature that optimism is to be doubly appreciated. «The mood of disdain is upon us,» but it is neither a wholesome nor a desirable state. Only that is desirable which brings content, and «the greatest good to the greatest number.» There is no surer way to make a tired, tiresome, and pessimistic people than to make their literature on that pattern. Grant that life is a struggle; grant that there is more of the minor than of the major: but do not sell the

«birthright of hope» by eliminating or disabling man's power of modulating from the minor into the major.

From the most depressing situations may come the most glorious success; and the writer who inspires the world at large with this idea, who models his literature that it may build up hope, elevate character, stimulate thought, and urge to creditable and noble action—to such a one the world owes a debt. If the writer of «One Man Who Was Content» has inspired one depressed, despondent mind to vigorous action which results in accomplishment and content, then has she used her talents to great purpose.

But, some critic observes, the whole story of this one contented man is full of egotism. It puts a premium upon egotism. It is full of the all-important «I.» This criticism is granted; for in dealing with himself one always deals with an egotist. It is an egotist who says (quoting from the story under discussion): «I feel that I have indeed been successful, not because I have done all that with my chances a man might do, but because I have done absolutely all that with my abilities was possible to me.» But, egotistic as it is, it sums up all the possibilities of a life. It is a summary made by a man with sense sufficient to measure himself; and when such an example is found, be it in fiction or reality, it illustrates and accentuates the fact that when a man can measure himself, and know that he has turned all his talents to account, not burying one of them—to such belong rightfully the earnings of content.

Mrs. Van Rensselaer's story is a contribution to ethics. It defines man's duty to himself, and it tells him how to discharge that duty, in its teaching that hope and happiness are to be gained through earnest and honest development of talent, and again in the reminder of its concluding idea, that there is no «justification in a record of empty days.»

Estelle Thomas.

A Scientific Basis for Liquor Legislation.

EIGHT years ago a little company of distinguished students of social problems, who called themselves the Sociological Group, took up some of the larger subjects of social welfare, and their studies (for every subject taken up was made the special study of one member, and his conclusions were discussed by them all) were published in THE CENTURY MAGAZINE in 1889 and the years following. Four years ago they decided to enlarge the group and to concentrate their study on one great subject. Thus it came about that the Committee of Fifty for the Investigation of the Liquor Problem was organized. A fund was subscribed, and an original and comprehensive investigation was begun. No more significant or more public-spirited piece of work was ever undertaken, none that showed a more serious purpose. So entangled is the subject with social and even race prejudices, religious opinions, and political purposes, that it could be investigated satisfactorily in the United States only by a voluntary association of men of the highest character and the best equipment. One of the principal lines of inquiry was into the results of our legislative experience in regulating the liquor traffic; this was undertaken under the supervision of Presidents Eliot of Harvard University and Low of Columbia University, and James C. Carter, Esq., of New York. Another was into the economic and social effects of the

liquor traffic, which was intrusted to a committee of professional economists, of which the late President Francis A. Walker was chairman. In 1894 the committee on the legislative aspects of the problem sent into the field trained investigators, who, after nearly two years' work in eight States, each of which has different liquor laws, submitted their reports, which are now published («A Study of Liquor Laws») by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. These reports cover sufficient time and area and difference of conditions definitely to establish certain conclusions, which will govern all wise legislation in the future.

The most striking fact emphasized by the whole body of this work is the corruption that liquor laws bring into local politics. The corruption is not always in proportion to the severity of the law, but often in proportion to the complexity of the machinery for its enforcement, and always in proportion to the lagging of public sentiment behind the letter of the law. The worst effect in political corruption has been in Maine, in communities where public opinion has not supported the prohibition amendment to the Constitution. The investigators solemnly record as one result «a full-blown hypocrisy,» which is «nowhere so blatant as in the legislative halls.» Prohibition, which is already clearly waning as a proposed solution of the problem, can never recover from the damaging conclusions drawn by the committee from the study of its operations in Maine and Iowa. True, it has banished breweries and distilleries from Maine, but «there is no evidence that it has diminished the consumption of alcoholic drinks.» The motives of the original prohibitionists, and of many later ones, were good, and some benefits have resulted from prohibition; but «unlooked-for evils of the gravest character also are due to it,» such as «a whole generation of habitual law-breakers, schooled in evasion and shamelessness»; «courts ineffective through fluctuations in policy, delays, perjuries, negligences»; «officers of the law double-faced and mercenary»; «office-holders unfaithful to pledges»; «bribes, hush-money, and assessments for political purposes,» «used to corrupt the lower courts, the police administration, political organizations, and even the electorate itself.» The same phenomena were found also in Iowa under a prohibitory law, which, as in Maine, produced political, not to say social, immoralities out of proportion to its somewhat slight benefits.

Political evils of another kind followed the State-dispensary system in South Carolina. The army of store-keepers and State constables and commissioners that was organized under this interesting experiment produced an almost invincible political machine, with all a machine's evil qualities. The South Carolina experiment was like many other experiments in this—that the law had directly contrary results, in regard to discouraging consumption, from the results that were expected. It was expected that it would restrict drinking in the rural districts, though perhaps not in the towns; whereas in the towns it distinctly discouraged drinking and lessened crime, while in the country it encouraged intemperance. «There is,» concludes the committee, «no American legislation effective to remove the motive of private profit from the traffic.»

Measuring the success of liquor laws in proportion to their freedom from political corruption, of the eight kinds of laws the effects of which were examined in Maine, Iowa, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Ohio, Missouri, and South Carolina, the most successful of all has been the simple tax law of Ohio. Under this law the traffic is not licensed, but simply taxed. No false morals creep into such frank dealing with it, and there is less chance for political corruption.

Measuring the success of liquor laws by their promotion of temperate habits, the committee has not found that «any one kind of legislation has been more successful than another.» In one community one restrictive system has proved best, in another community another system, each in proportion to its support by local public sentiment and the sincerity of the execution of the law.

One clear and helpful conclusion deduced from this wide study is that in few towns and cities has the limit of license fees been reached. Within a period of five years the fees in Boston were doubled and again increased, without diminishing the number of applicants for licenses. The revenue-producing capacity of the licensed traffic is enormous before the point is reached where the illicit traffic is encouraged in any fairly well-policed community.

In general, this thorough and illuminating study of our experience with liquor legislation establishes on a scientific basis these facts, which are as important as they are fundamental: Attempts at prohibition have been vicious failures, except in small areas where public sentiment has been virtually, unanimous and in towns adjacent to large cities; no successful method has been found in the United States to remove the motive of private profit from the traffic; the greatest success has attended restrictive laws which impose severe taxes, and reduce the number of saloons, confining them to certain localities, and requiring a separation of the traffic in liquors from all other traffic, and imposing all enforceable conditions of publicity, such as the absence of screens, as in Massachusetts; in other words, we have successfully dealt with the problem only by elevating the saloon and then by heavily taxing it. And the investigation gives overwhelming proof that this great subject of social welfare, if no other, *can be dealt with best—indeed, can be dealt with only—in small areas; local laws are the only laws worth having in regulating it, and no local law is worth having except a law that local public sentiment will enforce.* When we find these truisms scientifically demonstrated out of our wasteful and corrupting experience, they cease to be mere truisms, for they become the foundation of a real social science. And they have a many-sided significance. They show the way to the true promotion of temperance; they give a clue to effective legislation; they point to the repression of the most corrupting influence in local politics; they indicate a yet imperfectly developed source of public revenue; and they make forever plain the distinction between the real laws of social progress and the dogmas of ignorance or philanthropy. The demonstration is as clear as a demonstration can be of far-reaching conclusions about so complex a subject of social well-being.

Walter H. Page.

ments, the whole ecclesiastical paraphernalia, the arms and uniforms of the troops, and the many-colored costumes of the mad and motley crowd, the thought flashed upon me: Was there ever anything in all Christendom so beautiful and so blasphemous?

THE ANGER OF CHRIST.

I.

ON the day that Christ ascended
To Jerusalem,
Singing multitudes attended,
And the very heavens were rended
With the shout of them.

II.

Chanted they a sacred ditty,
Every heart elate;
But he wept in brooding pity,
Then went in the holy city
By the Golden Gate.

III.

In the temple, lo! what lightning
Makes unseemly rout!
He in anger—sudden, frightening—
Drives with scorn and scourge the whitening
Money-changers out.

IV.

By the way that Christ descended
From Mount Olivet,
I, a lonely pilgrim, wended,
On the day his entry splendid
Is remembered yet.

V.

And I thought: If he, returning
On this festival,
Here should haste with love and yearning,
Where would now his fearful, burning
Anger flash and fall?


VI.

In the very house they builded
To his saving name,
'Mid their altars, gemmed and gilded,
Would his scourge and scorn be wielded,
His fierce lightning flame.

VII.

Once again, O Man of Wonder,
Let thy voice be heard.
Speak as with a sound of thunder;
Drive the false thy roof from under;
Teach thy priests thy word.

R. W. Gilder.



TOPICS OF THE TIME

The Right Place for an Expert.

WHEN, in January last, it was made known that President McKinley had selected Mr. Lyman J. Gage of Chicago to be Secretary of the Treasury, the announcement sent a thrill of confidence and hope throughout the channels of trade and industry in all parts of the country. Why was this? Simply because business men and financiers everywhere knew Mr. Gage to be preëminently fitted for the post. They knew him to be a financial expert of the first rank, in whose hands the finances of a great nation could be trusted, with entire confidence that they would not be mismanaged. Various other men had been suggested for the place, but none of them had commanded the wide approval which the first mention of Mr. Gage's name had called forth. Some of them were excellent men, of long experience in public life, but they did not possess the expert qualification which distinguished Mr. Gage.

We count it a piece of great good fortune that such a man should be at the head of the financial department of the government at the present time. As our readers are aware, we have urged for many years that in no branch of the public service is expert knowledge more essential than in the conduct of our finances. The whole country realized this last year, when uncertainty about the future financial policy of the nation plunged us into a more acute period of anxiety and alarm than we had experienced since the Civil War. An incompetent man at the head of the treasury would only prolong this period. We must have assurance of safe leadership there, and this Mr. Gage's reputation gives us. It is as comforting as the entrance of a tried and trusted physician to a sick-chamber. We know that in the latter case everything possible for the restoration of the patient to health will be done, and in the best way.

That this nation has been sick nigh unto death from financial distempers was admitted by all of us last year.

Since we have emerged from the crisis in safety there is some disposition to forget that we were sick at all, and to exclaim in the old, familiar way, «Oh, we're all right; we are the greatest nation on earth, and nothing can hurt us.» But the business men do not take this view. They do not desire a repetition of last year's slow panic, and are anxious to avoid it by removing its cause. For this reason they wish to see some plan of currency reform adopted which will put our financial system on so sound a basis as will make another national «scare» impossible. It was with this end in view that they desired an expert financier at the head of the treasury, and hence their hearty satisfaction at Mr. Gage's selection. They know that he will carry forward the firm, intelligent policy which the Cleveland administration upheld with such courage and steadfastness during the trying times of the last four years, and which Secretary Carlisle explained from time to time with such admirable clearness and force; for Mr. Gage's ideas are identical with those upon which the Cleveland policy was based.

It is from this point of view that his advent is especially beneficial. There have been many plans of currency reform suggested, and the authors of them differ in regard to methods which should be used in carrying them out; but we believe it to be a fact that they will all agree in saying that Mr. Gage's judgment as to methods can be followed implicitly. There are few other men in the country of whom this could be said. His influence, therefore, both in the formulation of a plan and in persuading its adoption by Congress, will be very great. He is on record in favor of having the government go out of the banking business, of having the greenbacks retired, and of establishing some well-guarded system of bank-note circulation, broader and more elastic than that of the present national banks. He regards our present monetary system as the outcome of makeshift legislation and unscientific compromises, and thinks it should be reformed utterly.

In these general propositions Mr. Gage is in complete harmony with all other intelligent advocates of currency reform. The impressive monetary conference which assembled at Indianapolis in January last occupied the same ground. It declared with absolute unanimity that the maintenance of the gold standard, the retirement of the greenbacks, and the establishment of a better and more elastic banking system, are the first and absolutely necessary steps toward reform. The machinery which this conference set in motion will work in cordial harmony with Secretary Gage, and thus the national administration and the most intelligent sentiment of the country will be united in the effort to aid Congress in the best solution of the problem. This is representative government in its ideal form, for it brings to bear upon a great public question the best intelligence of the nation, thus at once commanding the respect of the people by giving them the benefit of the wisest action.

What we have said applies only to Secretary Gage's fitness for office as an expert financier. He has another qualification, which is scarcely inferior to this, and which may be said to be its natural ally. He is an earnest believer in civil-service reform, saying soon after his selection for office that his chief aim as secretary would be to give the country a businesslike administration, making all his appointments on merit alone, and without regard

to political obligations. This is the natural policy for a trained and experienced bank president to follow. He knows that a private financial institution can be managed successfully only on that basis, and as a faithful public servant he will not consent to manage the financial department of the government in any other way. This again demonstrates the value of an expert in office. He believes in the best talent available in private business, and can see no reason why inferior talent should be employed in public business. With a government by experts,—that is, by men of real fitness in all its branches,—civil-service reform would be established without a struggle and without a law.

The Value of Dignity.

It is the opinion of some observers that the American sense of humor, combined with the confirmed American disposition to take a good-natured view of everything, has tended to a lack of seriousness and of dignity in our attitude toward public affairs. It is held that our public speakers, especially at banquets and other festive occasions, treat us to chaff and jokes, with little or no effort to appeal to our intellectual tastes. They say that many of our newspapers are no longer our instructors, but avowedly our entertainers, giving us only such brief and furtive instalments of genuine instruction as are necessary to keep up the pretense of guiding public opinion. These, and other like manifestations, are pointed to as signs of a change in national character; but we do not think that they reflect accurately the true feeling of the American people. Certainly in the recent political crisis the press and our public speakers showed a capacity for serious and able discussion.

Any one who moves about much among his fellows knows that there is a wide-spread weariness of the flip-pant after-dinner oratory of the period. Whenever, at a public banquet, some speaker makes a thoughtful, serious, earnest speech, the response of the audience is invariably so quick and hearty as to give evidence of a keen appetite for wholesome intellectual diet of this kind. So, too, in the press and in public life. The real instructor and leader of public opinion was never surer of a following than he is to-day. The whole country is, in fact, straining its eyes eagerly over the political field in search of true statesmen, real leaders, who take a dignified view of their place in politics—that is, an elevated and worthy one.

We believe firmly that our public men have sometimes underestimated the public taste in this matter. Surely the American statesmen who are held in highest veneration were men of dignity, having that elevation of character, deportment, and speech which was worthy their office. Washington was the ideal of dignity. Lincoln was a most impressively dignified man in his public acts and utterances. What nobler dignity can be found than exists in his inaugural addresses and in the Gettysburg oration? Long before he delivered those immortal productions, in his speeches in the famous Illinois campaign with Douglas,—notably in that at Springfield, in which he defined his attitude toward the slavery question,—this same high dignity was revealed.

True dignity in a public man means a full sense of his responsibility as a statesman. It means masterful knowledge of the subjects discussed, and elevation of tone and

repose of manner in their discussion. Charles Sumner, though often irritating in tone, had this quality in greater perfection than almost any other of our modern American statesmen. To equal his treatment of public questions, we have to go back to the days of Hamilton and the «Federalist.» No one will deny that a strong case is made all the stronger by dignified presentation of it, or that a weak one is put in the best possible light by the same treatment.

John Stuart Mill said at the close of the Civil War that what we needed for our future greatness was «men of a caliber to use the high spirit which this struggle has raised as means of moving public opinion in favor of correcting what is bad and of strengthening what is weak in [our] institutions and modes of feeling and thought.» That is another way of saying that we need men with a sense of the value of dignity, of the responsibility of statesmanship. Instead of following blindly what is bad and weak in our modes of thought and feeling, the work of the true statesman is to correct the one and strengthen the other.

Mr. Mill declared that if we were to develop such

men among us, we should prove that the war had been a permanent blessing to our country, and a «source of inestimable improvement in the prospects of the human race in other ways besides the great one of extinguishing slavery.» There can be no doubt on this point. We are making in this country the greatest experiment in free government that has ever been tried. The eyes of the world are upon us at every stage of our progress, to see in what way we meet the demands which the problems of enlightened government make upon our system. If we meet them worthily and wisely, the cause of popular government, which is the cause of human progress, gains everywhere. This opens a field of labor for American patriotism which has no equal. It includes all branches of the public service, and extends from the halls of Congress, through all the State legislatures, down to the municipalities of our cities. In all of these popular government is on trial, and in all of them the greatest want of the time is men who know the value of dignity, and who feel the full responsibility of statesmanship.



«Speech and Speech-Reading for the Deaf.»

A CRITICISM.

NOTICE with regret that in the interesting article on teaching the deaf to speak, which appeared in your January issue, a number of inaccuracies occur, likely to mislead those of your readers who are not familiar with the processes of educating the deaf. I am sure you will allow me a little space to point out these errors.

It is true that statistics of schools for the deaf in the United States report twenty-five hundred pupils as being taught «by speech»; but no one acquainted with the facts would venture to say that the children «are taught as wholly by means of speech as the children of our public schools.» In their instruction adjuncts, such as natural gestures, writing in the air, the manual alphabet, and other means of conveying ideas to the mind, are in constant use to supplement the inadequacy of speech, which are never even thought of, much less employed, in the instruction of normal children.

A reference to the college at Washington with which I have had the honor to be connected for more than thirty years would lead the reader to suppose that an orally taught deaf-mute entering the college would be likely to lose his speech therein, and that no instruction in lip-reading was afforded in the college. Nothing could be farther from the truth than that any student has ever «lost his speech» because of his connection with the college at Washington. More than half the students speak fluently; every student desiring instruction in speech has it; a corps of eight teachers gives constant and special attention to the preservation and improvement of the speech of the students.

The system of educating the deaf introduced by my father into the country in 1817, when he founded the

first school at Hartford, was very much more than one of «conventionalized signs.» It included from the start a thorough training in verbal and written language, providing successfully for the full mental development of the pupil, which in very many cases the oral method does not secure.

The Hartford method was adopted without exception by the schools springing up all over the country during fifty years following 1817; and though speech was little cultivated, thousands of deaf boys and girls received the essentials of a common-school education, including industrial training, and, with scarcely an exception, became self-supporting, even wealth-producing, and always happy members of society. Not a few of them have risen to high positions in the learned professions, becoming lawyers, editors, clergymen, and scientists, attaining «literary prominence» even, which Mr. Wright says he is not aware that orally taught deaf persons have done. And in this connection it should be said that the statement concerning the writing of poetry by the deaf is inexcusable in one who assumes to speak *ex cathedra*. Among the manually taught deaf a score of writers of verse can be named, whose poems ask no partial consideration on account of the «infirmity» of their authors; and even among the orally taught deaf a number have given to the world poetic effusions of a high order of merit.¹

Mr. Wright's statement as to the various methods now in use in the schools for the deaf in the United States is incorrect, since he makes no mention at all of the only existing *system*—that is to say, one that includes all *methods*. Nine tenths of the deaf children at present

¹ Vide an article on «The Poetry of the Deaf,» «Harper's Magazine,» March, 1884.

under instruction in the country are in schools conducted on a «combined system» which includes a judicious adaptation of means to ends, according to the varying capacity of individuals. In the «combined schools» a much greater aggregate of speech is taught than in the «pure oral» schools, and a greater number of pupils are successfully taught «by speech.» But in these schools is recognized the fact, abundantly proved by the so-called «failures» which have come to them in large numbers from the «pure oral» schools, that very many deaf children are by nature unfitted to succeed with speech, and therefore require other methods for their education.

Nowhere does Mr. Wright show his lack of knowledge more conspicuously than when he speaks of the language of signs as one of the «tools of savagery,» and says «it is unfit for representing grammatically constructed language.» He certainly would not have made such statements had he seen me interpret, a short time since, through the language of signs to the students of our college, a most eloquent and interesting lecture by General Greely on arctic explorations and recent discoveries in Africa. Mr. Wright is doubtless unaware that such interpretations are of frequent occurrence in our college; and I am certain he has little knowledge of the graceful and expressive language the use of which he condemns.

PRESIDENT'S OFFICE,
COLLEGE FOR THE DEAF, *Edward M. Gallaudet.*
WASHINGTON, D. C.

REJOINDER.

AMONG the twenty-five hundred deaf pupils reported by statistics as «taught by speech,» there may be some in the «combined» schools, of which Dr. Gallaudet speaks so highly, whose instruction by speech is supplemented by the devices to which he refers. I have not visited all the schools for the deaf in the country; but in our own school the children are taught as wholly by speech as those of any public school, and I know from personal observation that this is true of hundreds upon hundreds of deaf children in the other oral schools. If the «combined» schools, in their eagerness to make a good showing of oral work in their reports, put too liberal an interpretation upon the term «taught by speech,» as Dr. Gallaudet would seem to infer, it is a pity, since it invalidates official statistics, but it may result favorably by inciting them to live up to their reports.

The point which I suspect to be the principal *casus belli*, however, is the reference in the article to the College for the Deaf in Washington, of which Dr. Gallaudet is the honored head. The reference consisted simply in the statement made to me by a graduate of that institution concerning his unaided struggles to retain his speech during the period of his residence there; and I took special pleasure in being able to add that, owing largely to the pressure brought to bear by the advocates of the oral method, this unfortunate state of affairs is rapidly becoming a thing of the past.

Dr. Gallaudet's dissent from my statement that no graduate of the schools for the deaf has attained literary prominence may easily be due to a different standard of what constitutes «literary prominence.» That many deaf persons have reached literary excellence I stated in my article, and a great honor it is to them. I am

proud to have had two of this class among my own pupils. But «literary prominence» is quite another matter.

That there are more deaf children in the «combined» schools than in the oral schools is true. This may possibly be explained on the ground that there are more «combined» schools, and the reason for this may be connected with the fact that the «combined» schools had fifty years the start, and that the expense of running an oral school is greater than of a «combined» school. A glance at the statistics quoted in my article will show the remarkable growth of the oral method since its introduction into this country; and it does not take half a prophet's eye to see that the end is not yet. It is the method of the present and the future, as distinguished from that of the past. The «combined» school is only the first step toward oralism.

Dr. Gallaudet is mistaken in assuming that I did not know that interpretations of spoken addresses in gestural signs were often given at his institution. I have several times had the pleasure of myself witnessing these interpretations, both by himself and others. I am astonished that Dr. Gallaudet has the temerity to dissent from my very conservative statement that the language of signs is «unfit for representing grammatically constructed language.» That this statement is not wholly without foundation, the following literal translation from signs into English may show. It is the «blessing» that the elder Dr. Peet, one of the ablest teachers of the deaf America has ever had, was accustomed to sign before his pupils began their repast. The words are given in the exact order in which the gestures were made.

«Father our, heaven in, again we assemble, bread, meat eat, drink receive; while we all things receive, thou blessing give, so we all strength receive; command thy love obey. We ask all Christ through alone. Amen.»

I purposely avoided in my article any statement concerning the sign-language that I thought could be considered extreme; and I will not add such here, but will content myself with quoting Dr. Gallaudet's own words as uttered in an address before a convention of instructors of the deaf. He then said: «I must say that for the deaf-and-dumb children in schools, striving to master the English language, it [the sign-language] is a very dangerous thing. . . . Then, if we want the children in our institutions to master the English language, what have we to do with the sign-language? I answer, as little as possible. I would bear in mind every hour of the day, and every minute of the hour, the sign-language in a school for the deaf is a dangerous thing. . . . The use of the sign-language, except in cases where it is absolutely essential, is pernicious. It hurts; it pulls down; it undoes; it brings forth groans and grunts and expressions of dissatisfaction and disappointment from teachers.»

John Dutton Wright.

THE WRIGHT-HUMASON SCHOOL,
NEW YORK CITY.

Acknowledgments.

MR. DODGE'S ceiling decoration in the Congressional Library, entitled «Ambition,» was reproduced in the *MARCH CENTURY* from a photograph by Davis & Sanford.

In the same number «Trials, Troubles, and Flickerments» was illustrated by George Varian.