

of transparent muslin over some bright color. I cannot remember that there was ever much talk about the colors matching in our rooms or in our dress; such and such things, we used to think, "went well" together; but the subject of correspondences and contrasts was not, I fear, gone into very thoroughly. I can say for our furniture that, if not as elegant as now, it was at least, well and honestly made. There is still in our household a set of chairs which were bought in 1820. A few years ago they were re-seated, and if the modern work only holds out as well as the old, they are good for another half-century.

After the close of the war of 1812, a great impetus was given to dress; much was said of the general extravagance, the responsibility for which was laid at the door of the officers' wives! Unless they had something besides their husbands' pay to base their extravagance upon, it would seem as if malice itself could hardly venture on this charge. As an example, Mrs. Commodore P—— was said to have two dresses, the making of which cost \$50. One was a jaconet cambric, the skirt made with alternate rows of tucks and inserting (we didn't say *insertion* then), and the other some sort of black dress, I forget what. I give this bit of old-time gossip for what it is worth, not being able either to verify or refute it.

I have been refreshing my memory by the study of a miniature, owned and treasured by one of our household; it is painted on ivory, and was done in 1817. The original was a lovely young lady, often called the Belle of Long Island, and betrothed to a certain gallant commodore then stationed at Sackett's Harbor. The dark hair lies in a single large puff on the summit of the head; a curl falls behind one ear; there are a few twists and tendrils about the temples, somewhat after the present fashion, though the forehead is unobscured, and the parting of the front hair clearly visible. The light-blue dress has no waist to speak of, and is cut rather low, showing a good deal of the plump, pretty neck; a tall, transparent frill of embroidered muslin rises nearly to the ears behind, and tapers gracefully down to the front. The colors of this picture are unimpaired, and the hazel eyes look thoughtfully at you from the fair young face, though the beauty of which it is the image long since departed out of this world. It was intended that her wedding, which took place in November, 1817, should be a quiet one, but the bridal party, on arriving at the church, could hardly find standing-room, the beauty of the bride, and other ornamental circumstances of the affair, proving a great attraction to the public. There were several groomsmen, of whom General Scott, Captain Kearny of the navy, and James G. Brooks, the poet (a cousin of the bride), are all whom I can now particularize. The bride wore white Canton crape; the bridegroom and all the officers present were in full uniform. The bride's toilet for her journey to Sackett's Harbor, consisted of a dark-blue "habit," trimmed up the front with three rows of frogs, and a black Leghorn bonnet, lined and trimmed with black satin, and ornamented with three black ostrich feathers. (These habits were a close-fitting garment of cloth, taking

the place of a cloak or other outside wrap. Worn at first as a riding, or perhaps more properly, a traveling, dress, they gradually came into use for street wear, or for informal calls, made when one was out shopping or walking.) The dress-bonnet was of white Leghorn, with white lining and plumes. The wardrobe contained Canton crapes and India mull, but, so far as is remembered, not a single silk.

Silk was at one time cast into the shade as dress-material by Canton, and afterward by Nankin, crape; this last a finer and heavier variety. They made extremely handsome dresses, but so soft and clinging as to require a well-stiffened petticoat. Silk began to be in favor again about 1820, the Bolivar hat and the pelisse being made of it and forming a suit. This Bolivar consisted of a stiff, upright crown, from which protruded a flat, shelf-like brim, perhaps six inches wide in front and gradually sloping away into the crown at the back. Under the brim was a large rose with two or three leaves, the first flower I ever saw inside a bonnet. Merino long-shawls, with a broad border at the ends and a narrow one along the length, came up during the war, and were considered a part of a nice toilette. At first they were white, but black and scarlet soon appeared. Tortoise-shell combs and thread lace were among the desirable possessions of ordinarily well-dressed people; of jewels we heard but little. A person had a set of pearls, perhaps, or sometimes you saw a ruby or a diamond finger-ring, and one or two French girls whom I knew had diamond ear-rings, but precious stones of a high rank were very infrequent. I have kept to this day the slip of my wedding-dress,—white satin, with which an over-dress of lace was worn. It is brought out occasionally as a spectacle and wonderment to the young people, though not so effective in that line as it was fifteen or twenty years ago, when nine breadths of wide silk were considered desirable for a skirt. The waist is an eighth of a yard long below the arm-hole (we had come to the era of quite long waists then, we thought); the sleeves are a large puff, gathered into a band. The skirt measures two yards and a half at the bottom, and is perfectly plain at the waist, with the exception of about three inches in the back, where a few very small plaits are laid. Altogether, the *elegantes* of the present day would probably look with amusement upon our attempts at dress and decoration; but I can assure them that we felt just as well attired, just as absolutely *comme il faut* in our "best things" as they can in any possible combination of French taste and skill.

GORDON BREMNER.

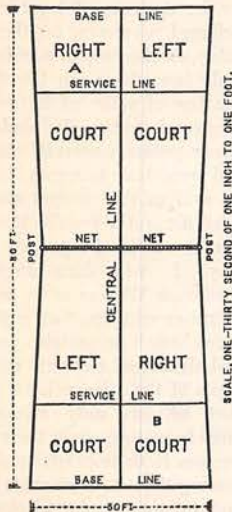
Lawn Tennis.

THE charming illustrations by Du Maurier in the London "Punch," usually indicate the fashions of English society with point and fidelity,—not only in matters of dress, but also in the usages of the drawing-room and the customs of the field. If any particular game is in favor, its popularity is reflected in the pictures; and a consultation of the periodical for last summer would show how general a recreation lawn

tennis has become. It is portrayed again and again as being played in the pretty suburban gardens with vine-clad walls, by Du Maurier's willowy English girls and languid-looking men; by fair matrons and exuberant children, and by sedate elderly gentlemen,—all of whom are applying themselves to it with obvious interest and enjoyment. The game is also winning favor in America, and it has so much in it that is commendable, that it will, no doubt, supersede croquet as a garden recreation here, as it has already done in England. It brings into requisition all the bodily forces; it exercises the muscles and nerves; it teaches vigilance and promptitude of movement. At the same time, though it is athletic, it is not too violent, and while affording plenty of exercise it is not exhausting, and may be played by women and children.

The outfit necessary consists of four or more bats and balls, two poles, a net twenty-six by five feet; two guy ropes with runners and pegs, and a mallet. All these implements may be purchased in any city for fifteen dollars, and with them you will be fully equipped for the game. The best ground is turf, concrete, or asphalt, which should be eighty feet long, and thirty feet wide at the end or base lines. This forms "the court," which is divided into two sections by the net, which is spread from the two upright posts. A central line again divides the court longitudinally into right and left sections, and two transverse lines twenty-six feet from the net are called service lines. The lines may be defined either by chalk or tape, and they can be more easily understood from the accompanying diagram than from any description.

The balls are of hollow India rubber, two and a quarter inches in diameter, and an ounce and a half in weight. The bats, or rackets, are about two feet six inches long, and are formed of a handle with an oval sort of loop netted with cord. The choice of courts having been decided by lot, the game is opened, and the object is to keep the ball flying from side to side as long as possible. The player who wins the choice of courts has the right of delivering the first ball, and is technically called "hand-in." Holding the bat in one hand and the ball in the other, one foot being planted outside the base-line, he throws up or drops the ball, and while it is in the air strikes it with the bat, sending it, if he is successful, between the net and service line of the court diagonally opposed to him. Thus, supposing



that A, represented in the diagram, is hand-in, he must send the ball to B, who is technically "hand-out." If it falls in one of the other courts or between the base-line and service line, "a fault" is scored to the person making it, and hand-in, who is also called the server, repeats his aim unless his adversary strikes or attempts to strike the defective ball, in which case the service is considered good; but, if two failures are made consecutively, hand-in becomes hand-out and hand-out hand-in. This is also the case if hand-in fails to send the ball over the net or knocks it outside the boundary of the court. When the ball has been "served," or, in other words, projected according to the conditions of the game, it falls between the net and service line of the court diagonal to that from which it has been sent, and as it rebounds after touching the ground, hand-out must return it over the net with his bat before it falls a second time; but he must not strike it before it touches the ground under a penalty. On being returned, it may fall without fault at either side of the central line, the divisions marked by which only affect the service and not the subsequent strokes. What hand-out has done hand-in must now repeat, hitting the ball as it rebounds for the first time, and thus it is prettily sent to and fro until it strikes the net or falls within the external boundary line of the adversary's court. If hand-out fails to return a properly played ball, hand-in scores one point, technically called an ace, and serves again, not, however, from the same court, but from the court into which he has been playing, and as often as he scores an ace a similar change of base is made. Again, if when the ball comes to him, hand-in fails to return it over the net within the prescribed limits and in the same manner as before, he becomes hand-out and hand-out becomes hand-in. Hand-in alone is able to score, and hence the advantage of that position. An ace is forfeited by either player who strikes the ball more than once, or if it touches him or his clothing; but, if in attempting to return the ball, he misses it altogether and it falls beyond the external boundary, the stroke counts to him. The game proceeds until one of the players has made fifteen aces, when he is declared the winner; but if both reach fourteen the score is called "deuce," and one must make two aces in succession in order to win. If hand-in only makes one ace, it is called "vantage"; if he then becomes hand-out the score is again called deuce, and so it remains until two successive aces are made by one side or the other.

Here, in brief, are the principles of a single-handed game. It will be seen that it keeps the players constantly alert and absorbs their attention. It is capital exercise for the eyes, and in the hands of experts becomes scientific.

The game may be played by two, four, six, or eight persons, but when it is double-handed the method is varied somewhat. When players of unequal strength engage, the stronger one may give odds in several ways. He may, for instance, undertake to return every ball into one court which he mentions at the outset, and if the ball falls into any other court it counts against him as it would if it

should fall outside the boundary; or he may give a number of aces as he would give points in billiards, or again, he may allow his opponent to continue as hand-in when he should become hand-out.

As we have said, the game is deservedly winning popularity; in this country there are several clubs, notably the Staten Island Club, which includes some excellent players, and within a few summers the net and posts and the oval rackets will probably be seen as often on the lawns of our country houses as in the gardens of England. A clever young man might construct the implements, but those of the manu-

facturers are so much more perfect than the productions of an amateur could be, and their price is so reasonable, that an effort of this kind is scarcely worth while. If further information or instruction is desired, the reader will find it in a little manual, price fifty cents, published by Messrs. George Routledge & Co., New York; in a similar volume published by Peck & Snyder, New York, price twenty-five cents, and in a pamphlet published by De La Rue & Co., London, price one shilling, the last being the most perspicuous and intelligible.

ALEXANDER WAINWRIGHT.

CULTURE AND PROGRESS.

Professor Walker on Money.*

WE do not understand the division of the subject of money which Professor Walker attempts to make between his former book and the present one. The present book is the former one rewritten and very substantially improved, whether we consider its rhetorical or its scientific merits. Much of the crude and ill-digested material of the former book is here at least so far developed as to be capable of criticism and discussion. The literary style is also much more chastened, and the tone of the controversial passages is more reserved. We object still to the expression that new gold discoveries give a "flip" to industry, not only for rhetorical reasons, but also because a mischievous notion is thereby smuggled into the science; and the expression, "differentiation of commodities," which occurs several times in the book, notwithstanding its grand air, is nonsense.

There are passages in the present work in which some of the old familiar doctrines of the orthodox economists are restated with admirable clearness and precision, and there are passages in which certain phenomena of the industrial system are described and explained better than in any other work which is before the public. The last three chapters on banks of issue especially deserve this commendation. The author, however, has presented several novelties on behalf of which he addresses a distinct and confident challenge to "the professional" or "the orthodox economists." There is nothing particularly new in this; the orthodox economists are used to it. Professor Walker, however, brings the authority of official position and considerable acquaintance with economic literature to bear in support of his opinions, and he can force the economists to stop and take notice of him, which is more than the meddlers and the muddlers generally can do. Professor Walker provokes an issue on the definition of money, on the use of the term currency, on the function of money to measure value, on the true

limits and use of the term "denominator of value," on the doctrine of legal tender, on the standard of deferred payments, on the relation of legislation to value, on the double standard, the alternate standard and bimetalism, on the theory of fiat money and the law of value of inconvertible currency, on the means of getting the same into circulation, and on minor points under all these heads. The political and practical interests involved in these points, as well as the general and permanent interests of scientific truth, require that these issues shall all be fought out in the proper place and in the proper way. It will then unquestionably appear that Professor Walker is in error in every issue which he raises with the "orthodox economists," that the views which he sustains are only some of the broken and discarded notions which the profounder students of the science have passed by, and therefore that he has only increased the heavy burdens already resting upon their present pupils and successors in their efforts to spread sound opinions, by forcing them to turn aside to convince him of error, and to prevent the mischief which he will succeed in doing. If this seem over-plain language, the defense of it is that the interests at stake are of the highest importance, and that the time for plain language has come. Everybody who writes on economic topics takes a license to refer to the "orthodox economists" with the rebuke impatient, or with the flout supercilious, or with the quip contemptuous, and in the meantime the "orthodox economists" are the only ones who are advancing the science a hair's-breadth, while they are forced, at the same time, to save it from disintegration at the hands of these internal and external foes.

We will notice here only the author's definition of money, and that very briefly. He discards the term "currency" as too vague, but already in the former work it appeared that he had only transferred the vagueness to money,—in other words, that the vagueness lay in the subject-matter, and was not to be avoided by altering definitions. Currency is a word which has won its way into the language, and become established there. This proves the need of it, and is the only test possible of the legitimacy of a

* Money in its Relations to Trade and Industry. By Francis A. Walker. Henry Holt & Co.