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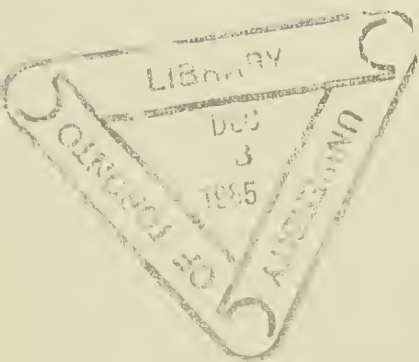
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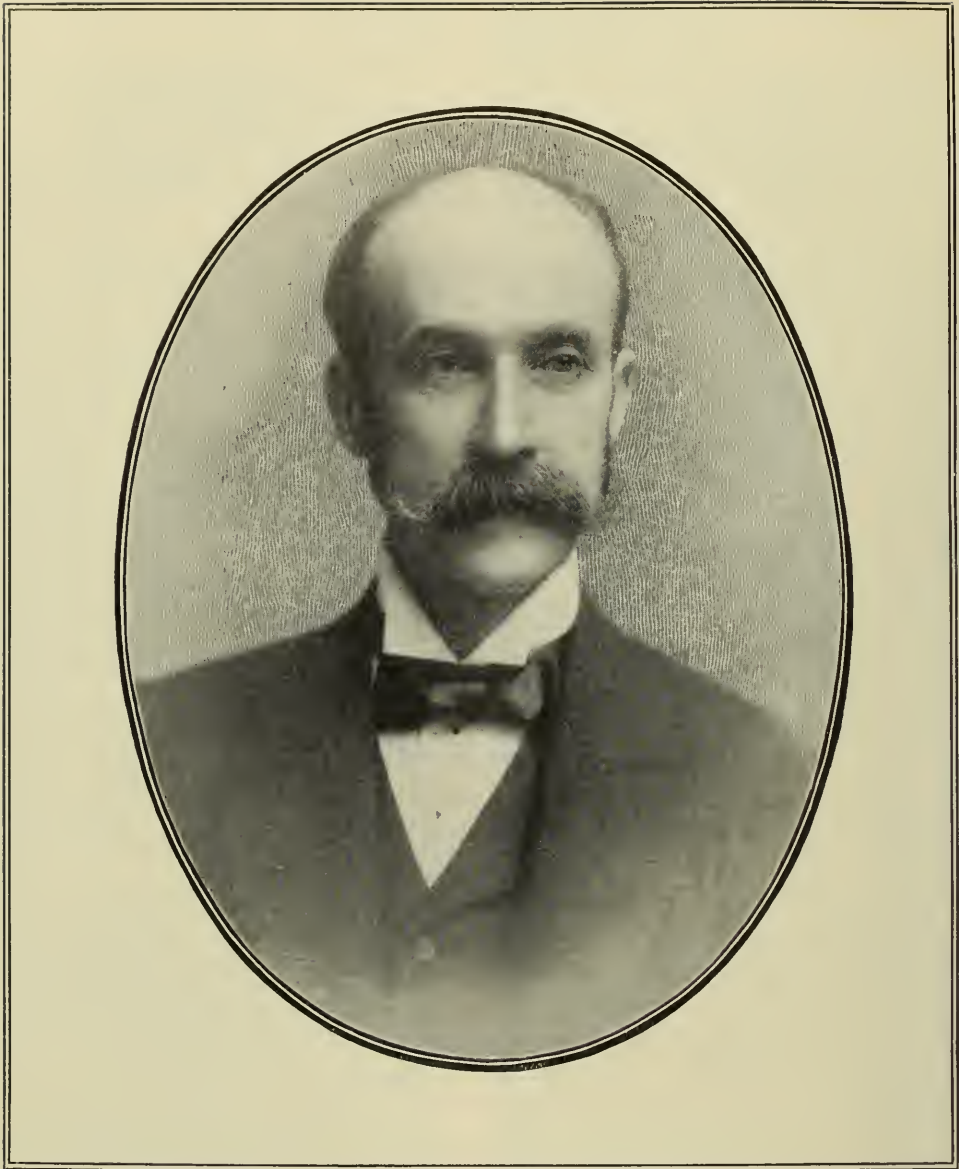
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

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LORD LANSDOWNE, BRITISH MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

(Henry Charles Keith Petty-Fitzmaurice, fifth Marquis of Lansdowne, has been British foreign secretary since 1900. He has held many other important governmental positions, among them governor-general of Canada [1883-88], governor-general of India [1888-93], and secretary of war [1895-1900]. His services in the cause of world peace have been exceptionally noteworthy, particularly in the North Sea incident and in the matter of international arbitration. Lord Lansdowne is a fine representative of the modern British statesman.)

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

A Promising New Year.
Four years of the twentieth century are ended, and the fifth dawns upon the world with many fair promises and with the general argument more strongly on the side of optimism than at any previous moment in the history of the world. The war in the far East continues, and it may be still in progress when the book of the year 1905 shall have been closed. But the object lessons afforded by this war have been salutary in many ways. They have caused various nations to do all in their power to remove occasions for dispute, and they have promoted to a marked extent the cause of arbitration and international peace. Certainly, in no earlier year had the public sentiment in favor of arbitration between governments made so much advancement as it has evidently made in the past year.

Progress of the Peace Movement.
Besides the signing of various limited treaties providing for the arbitration of differences between nations under ordinary circumstances, and besides the peaceful settlement by diplomatic or arbitral methods of a considerable number of questions that were outstanding a year ago, there has been added to the record President Roosevelt's notable call for a reconvening of the Hague Conference and a further advance all along the line in the establishment of international law doctrines and principles. From every direction, the responses to the call for an-

other peace congress have been favorable. Russian acceptance of the invitation to the conference,—while in other respects as satisfactory and as unreserved as any of the others,—made the condition that it should not meet until after the end of the present war. Japan's reply, coming later, made a different sort of condition,—namely, that if the conference met before the war ended, there should be no discussion or action that could in any way bear upon the issues of the present conflict. On December 16, Secretary Hay sent another note to the powers, informing them that replies favorable in principle had been received from all the governments concerned.



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S PROPOSAL TO HOLD A SECOND PEACE CONFERENCE AT THE HAGUE, AS IT SEEMS TO A GERMAN SATIRIST, WHO IS THINKING OF ALL THAT HAS HAPPENED SINCE THE CZAR CALLED THE FIRST CONFERENCE.

PRESIDENT: "Gentlemen, I thank you for coming; it is the best witness to the enthusiasm with which you have hitherto regarded the Czar's idea of a universal peace."—From *Ull* (Berlin).



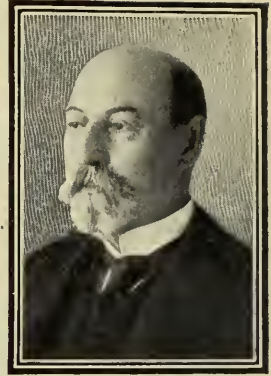
Admiral Kaznakov,
of Russia.



Admiral Fournier,
of France.



Admiral Sir Lewis A. Beau-
mont, of England.



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Admiral Charles H. Davis,
of the United States.

THE ADMIRALS SELECTED TO INVESTIGATE THE ANGLO-RUSSIAN NORTH SEA INCIDENT, WHO BEGAN THEIR WORK AT PARIS ON DECEMBER 20.

It is not impossible that Russia may be willing to accept the Japanese condition, and in that case the conference, instead of being indefinitely deferred, might be held in the very early future. A great meeting was held at Carnegie Hall, in New York, on the evening of the same day upon which Mr. Hay sent out his second circular note to the powers, the object of the gathering being to impress upon Congress the strength of the sentiment now pervading the country in favor of the prompt ratification of pending arbitration treaties, and the promotion in all suitable ways of the cause of international arbitration. The maintenance of peace is to-day the chief object of national policy in every civilized country. It will be some time yet before the European nations can venture to abandon the view that immense preparations for war constitute the best safeguard of peace. But within a few years, it is wholly probable that a gradual disarmament policy can be entered upon.

Threatened War Averted. The strain between England and Russia on account of the North Sea incident is one of the most regrettable matters belonging to the record of the year 1904. The British newspapers were very reckless in their seeming attempt to force a war between England and Russia, in which thousands of lives would have been lost, all on account of an unfortunate mistake by which two British fishermen had been killed. The Russian Government had instantly offered every sort of honorable apology and reparation. The British Government, in contrast to the London newspapers, acted with an admirable degree of calmness and sense of fair play, and in due time it was arranged to subject the North Sea affair to an interna-

tional naval inquiry, in which France and the United States, as well as England and Russia, were to participate. It was announced, on November 30, that Rear Admiral Charles H. Davis had been appointed by the President to represent the United States as a member of this commission, and France named Admiral Fournier. On behalf of England and Russia, respectively, the members of the tribunal are Admiral Sir Lewis A. Beaumont and Admiral Kaznakov. It was arranged that these commissioners should meet at Paris, on December 20, and choose a fifth member from some other country. In case of their failure to agree upon the fifth member, he was to be appointed by the Emperor Francis Joseph. The British jingoes had been under a fearful temptation to make some use of their Channel and Mediterranean fleets against the pitifully inferior Baltic fleet of the Russians, which was slowly making its way out of the Baltic across the North Sea and down the Spanish coast on its long journey to Chinese waters

The Restraining of John Bull. With a navy larger by far than that of any other country, the English have never had need to use a single ship in a modern naval action. They gave themselves, it is true, some barbarous and wicked naval gun practice in bombarding helpless Alexandria in the year 1882; but,—not to note exceptions,—it is fair to say that no living British naval officer has ever participated in a naval fight, and that no ship of the British navy has ever been subjected to the practical test of warfare. Undoubtedly, many of the British officers would have been glad of an excuse to batter the Russian Baltic fleet to pieces; and the belligerent instinct of John Bull at home, aroused by

the hysterical newspapers of London (in comparison with which all other newspapers of the world are phlegmatic), seemed for a few days bent upon a fight regardless of causes and consequences. It was therefore a splendid triumph for common sense when diplomacy averted the immediate crisis, and great statesmen like M. Deleassé, the French foreign minister, co-operating with Mr. Balfour and Lord Lansdowne in England, and with the advisers of the Czar, succeeded in arranging for the court of inquiry and in removing all danger of conflict. In the retrospect of the year 1904, this prevention of what for a few days was a very imminent danger of a naval war on the western coasts of Europe, that would have been followed by a Russian invasion of India, is to be regarded as a landmark of history and a firmly planted milestone of progress.

*Gains for
Political
Freedom.*

Plainly, then, 1904 has been an important year in the history of international relations. But it has also been a year full of happenings and indications that show a current steadily moving in the direction of social and political progress in the domestic life of the nations. First to be noticed is the remarkable movement in Russia toward a liberalizing of political institutions.



LORD LANSDOWNE AT GUILDHALL.

MR. BULL: "Capital, Sir! a most becoming costume."

(Lord Lansdowne, the British foreign minister, in a recent notable speech at the lord mayor's dinner, appeared as an international peacemaker of the most advanced type.)

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).



ADMIRAL LORD CHARLES BERESFORD ON THE QUARTER-DECK OF THE "CAESAR."

(Lord Beresford was in command of the Channel fleet that came so near engaging in an attack upon Rozhdestvenski's Baltic fleet.)

It is not to be expected that Russia can at once become a constitutional country, with a representative parliament and a free play of public opinion; but never before has there been such an outburst of unfettered discussion in Russia as that which followed the policy of Prince Svyiatopólk-Mirski, the minister of the interior succeeding M. von Plehve, who was assassinated on July 28. The men who have now come forward in Russia as advocates of a more liberal system of government are not to be treated as dangerous characters. They are not members of revolutionary societies, but are substantial



THE CZAR, WHO FAILS TO SEE HIS OPPORTUNITY.

citizens. This great discussion now going on in Russia is by far the most important thing in the field of politics upon which the new year opens. We may, therefore, here call the attention of our readers to the valuable article from the pen of Dr. E. J. Dillon, which was written for this REVIEW in St. Petersburg last month, with exceptional knowledge of the situation. Our readers will remember other articles contributed by this high authority upon Russian affairs, notably the one appearing in our number for October on the economic condition of the people as affected by the war.

*Public Opinion
in Russia.*

However slight may be the formal changes in the Russian bureaucratic system that the liberal elements will be able to obtain this year or next, it is to be regarded as quite certain that the present discussion will bring about a profound change in the real conditions of Russian life. It has emboldened thousands of men to express their views in favor of reform and progress who had never dared to speak before. They have broken silence; they have had the audacity to speak their minds; and behold, the heavens have not fallen upon them, nor are they trudging along the hard road to Siberia. They will insist henceforth upon a measure of free speech that has not been

known in their country: and where there is some opportunity—through free speech and a comparatively free press—for a body of public opinion to form itself, all else will follow in due time. It has been simply a question whether or not the Russian system would some time be destroyed in a cataclysm like the French Revolution, or whether it would yield gradually before the healthy growth of the Russian people in political capacity and in power to act together in assertion of their rights. There is now much ground for hope that there may be a steady political evolution in Russia that will be attended by industrial and economic development and by the education of the people. Thus, in twenty or thirty years one may find in the Russian Empire a state of advancement in the political life of the people not much, if any, inferior to the progress that now exists in other countries of eastern Europe, such as Hungary, Austria, Bul-



THE CZAR IN A GERMAN CARICATURE.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



KING EDWARD THE PEACEMAKER AND THE INTERNATIONAL SITUATION.

"While King Edward keeps company with Peace, and the Frenchman extracts the thorn from the Bear's foot, the two ancient enemies [England and Russia] embrace each other, the Commission of Inquiry goes on its way, and the Baltic fleet casts anchor in French ports." (The Italian cartoonist doesn't think the Anglo-Russian agreement very sincere, and depicts the Inquiry Court as on a snail's back.)—From *Il Papavaglio* (Rome).

garia, and Roumania. To expect more than this within the next twenty-five or thirty years would scarcely be reasonable, except, of course, in special parts of the Russian Empire, such as Finland, where there is already a high degree of culture and a well-developed political capacity. It was disappointing, on December 20, to find that the Czar's name-day had passed without his making the hoped-for proclamation of a constitution for Russia, or at least of some new and progressive programme of reforms. But M. Witte has made public a comprehensive plan for bettering the status of the peasants, and the Czar's holding back is only a sign of his weakness in the hands of the bureaucrats.

In France, the discussions of the past year, rightfully considered, are plainly indicative of a growing capacity on the part of the people to take part in the determination of important questions. However one's sympathies may lean in the sharp controversy over the question of the relations between Church and State, and between both and the education of the children, it must be admitted,

*French
Capacity
for Politics.*

nevertheless, that such questions are more responsibly met by the French people now than would have been possible at any previous time. The most serious obstacle in the way of French progress along the lines of political liberty and intelligent self-government has been the spirit of militarism and the inherent opposition of the army chiefs to civilian ideals. Various incidents in the Dreyfus case illustrated the difficulty of maintaining freedom and justice as against so vast a machine as the French army. Recently, the revelation of the inquisitorial methods used by General André as minister of war made it necessary for him to withdraw from the ministry. It was supposed, as a matter of course, that his place would have to be filled by a soldier. On the contrary, Premier Combes has installed in the office of minister of war a civilian, M. Bertheaux by name, and the country is well satisfied. This would seem another indication of the growth of modern liberty in France, and of capacity for a course of political action not too much dominated on the one hand by the church nor on the other hand by the army.



M. BERTEAUX, THE NEW FRENCH MINISTER OF WAR.

Democracy in England. In the British Islands, certainly, there is no sign whatever that the modern forces of democracy are proving themselves incapable or unfit. Many by-elections during the past year have shown the swing of the political pendulum to be strongly toward the side of the Liberal party. This means nothing else than the independent exercise of their own judgment by millions of people in the British Islands. There was never a time when so many people in the United Kingdom thought for themselves and acted in politics for what they believed to be the general good.

Independence in this Country. As for our own country, the year 1904 has given us the best demonstration we have ever had of capacity on the part of the plain masses of our American citizenship to think and act for themselves in political affairs. If, on the one hand, political machines have increasingly secured control of local party organizations, the antidote has been found, on the other hand, in the form of an immense growth of independent voting. The voters can no longer be relied upon to stay in subjection to party tyranny through a false and slavish sort of allegiance, or through a bitter and unreasoning prejudice against the opposite party. The politicians have learned that they must bring forward candidates of positive merit or run the risk of defeat regardless of normal party majorities. This is a wholesome state of affairs. The reaction against commercialism in politics, and against every form of "spoils" and "boodle" and "graft," is visible in almost every part of the country. We are

a long way from the complete elimination of these things from our political life: but there has been a great awakening of public opinion, and the rascals are, at least, less impudent and bold.

Americans Can Use the Ballot. Even more significant than the fact of Mr. Roosevelt's election by an unprecedented majority are the undoubted motives which actuated the voters in giving him their support. The people believed him to be a fearless and independent man, who could lead the country in a period where the supremacy of government and law must be asserted over great forces in the industrial and social life. In short, the election of President Roosevelt, considered in all its circumstances, was the highest evidence we have yet received of the capacity of the American people for dealing through political channels with the problems, chiefly of an economic and social sort, that are now uppermost in the public mind.

The President's Wise Message. The hopes and expectations of the people in their indorsement of Mr. Roosevelt, find themselves fully justified by the specific utterances no less than the general tone of his message to Congress, read on December 6. Nothing that Mr. Roosevelt has ever said has shown a more statesmanlike understanding of our national problems in their true proportions and relations than this message. It is mature in its views, moderate in its tone, and just and wise in what it recommends. It is a document for the people as well as for Congress, and it will bear careful reading more than once. The leading place is given to topics that relate to the industrial life of the people. Various sections of the paper are detachable as excellent presentations,—in fact, as the best existing summaries of information and of legal and economic principles relating to the matters under discussion.

On Labor Problems. The President points out the fact that under our system of State and federal government, it belongs chiefly to the States to deal with labor problems and conditions. Nevertheless, the federal government can in many ways set a good example of intelligent regard for the advancement of the interests of wage-earners. The general usefulness of trade-unionism is recognized among men employed in the government service, but such unions must not interfere with the equal rights of other public employees who do not choose to join private and voluntary organizations. In the District of Columbia and in the Territories, as the President points out, the federal govern-

ment has an opportunity to deal with questions relating to labor upon the most approved and enlightened plans, and thus to set an example which may have influence upon State legislatures in dealing with similar questions. To this end, the President advises the enactment for the District of Columbia of a model employers' liability act, and calls attention to the work already done for the protection of railway employees under the powers of the federal government over interstate commerce. We are told that the Bureau of Labor's investigation of the Colorado mining strike will soon be laid before Congress in a special message, and other exhaustive inquiries on the part of the Bureau of Labor are recommended, particularly one into the conditions of the labor of women and children in factories and mines; another, as to the effects of recent immigration in our labor centers, and so on. The President's point of view about the relations of labor and capital is a fair and sound one, and his influence upon public opinion is even more valuable just now than upon pending or prospective legislation. Apropos of various inquiries of importance that the President recommends as belonging to the Bureau of Labor in the Department of Commerce and Labor, it should be noted that Col. Carroll D. Wright's long and distinguished service as Commissioner of Labor now ends by his voluntary retirement. President Roosevelt, last month, named as Colonel Wright's successor Prof. Charles P. Neill, who was Colonel Wright's chief aid as recorder of the anthracite-coal arbitration, and has been connected with the Catholic University at Washington. Mr. Neill is still a young man, and it is not to be supposed that any fresh incumbent could at once in all respects fill Colonel Wright's place, but the new commissioner brings good credentials for his work.

*The
Moderate
Position.*

In certain trades there has been a marked disposition on the part of the labor unions to carry their methods to the extreme of tyranny and dictation, while, on the other hand, there has been a disposition on the part of certain capitalists, working through employers' associations, to do everything in their power to crush out labor organizations altogether. As between these opposing tendencies, the wiser and more experienced labor leaders on the one hand and the more thoughtful and public-spirited employers on the other have found themselves during the past year subjected to a sharp cross-fire. It was therefore a particularly timely supplementary utterance of President Roosevelt that appeared in the form of a letter to be read at the annual meeting of the Civic Federation of



PROF. CHARLES P. NEILL, WHO SUCCEEDS COL. CARROLL D. WRIGHT AS COMMISSIONER OF LABOR.

New York, on the 15th of December. The National Civic Federation is an important body in which labor, capital, and the general public are equally represented. Its great practical mission is to bring men together in close relations and to promote industrial peace by conference, with conciliation and arbitration in the background. There are extreme labor leaders who oppose the Civic Federation in all its views and methods. There are organizations of employers which are even more bitterly opposed to the good work of the Civic Federation, for the Federation gives the fullest credit to the value of labor organization, and believes in a general way, that not only the best interests of the workers themselves, but also those of American citizenship at large, are advanced by a union of men in various callings for the improvement of their conditions.

*Work of the
Civic Federa-
tion.*

The form in which the Civic Federation has found that industrial peace can best be conserved in this country is the form known as the "trade agreement," under which employers and employed meet directly through their accredited representatives and make their relative proposals, try to understand one another's point of view, learn to recognize one another's fundamental rights, and then settle by "give and take" those practical questions which are matters of bargaining rather than of conscience or conviction. As Mr. John



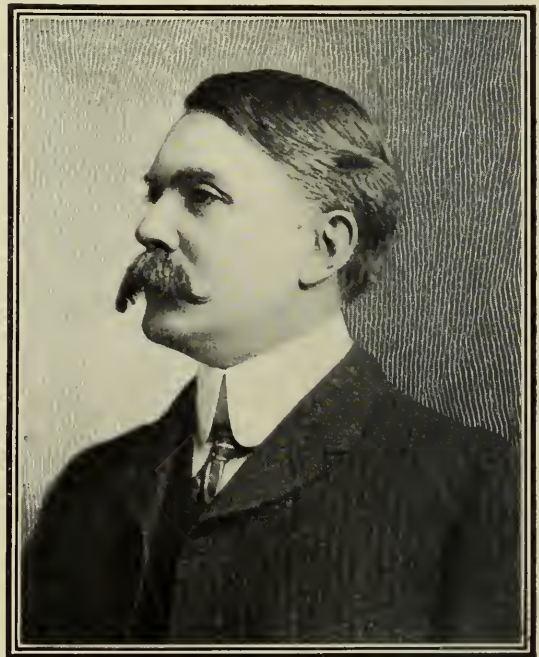
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MR. AUGUST BELMONT, OF NEW YORK.

(Who succeeds the late Senator Hanna as president of the National Civic Federation.)

Mitchell says, it is better for employer and employed to get together and talk a week than for them to fight by means of strike or lockout for a year. This is what the Civic Federation stands for, and it is most cheering to see how heartily the leaders of labor and the representatives of capital, meeting in this public-spirited organization, have come to esteem and respect one another. At the annual dinner of the Federation in New York, where President Roosevelt's wise and sympathetic letter was read, Mr. Samuel Gompers ably presided as the head of the American Federation of Labor, while among the speakers whom Mr. Gompers presented to a great company of representative men were capitalists and employers like Mr. Henry Phipps, Mr. August Belmont, Colonel Kilburn, of Ohio, and Mr. Robbins, of Pittsburg. Among the scores of talented leaders belonging to the

ranks of labor, besides Mr. Gompers himself, were such speakers as Mr. John Mitchell, of the United Mine Workers, and Mr. Morrissey, of the Railway Trainmen, and as representing the general public were President Eliot, of Harvard, Archbishop Ireland, and Mr. Oscar S. Straus. Mr. Andrew Carnegie had been with the Federation through the day, and was represented at the banquet by a paper read for him by Mr. Ralph Easley, the organizer and executive officer of the body. The vacancy in the office of president caused by the death of the late Senator Hanna was filled by the election of Mr. August Belmont, the New York banker and capitalist, who is also at the head of the New York Underground Railway, and in that and other capacities has come into relationship with organized labor. Last fall, questions and dis-



MR. RALPH M. EASLEY.

(Executive officer of the Civic Federation.)

putes of various importance relating to the hours, wages, and other conditions of men employed in the Subway were finally settled by direct conference, in which Mr. Belmont himself took a leading part. His remarks at the Federation dinner were manly and to the point, and he promised in brief language, but with evident sincerity, to use his best efforts for the success of the work of the Civic Federation and for the promotion of these principles for which it stands.

The great doctrine for which Mr. Roosevelt in many an utterance has made a strong plea, and which he set forth again in an address to the members of his own church, Grace Dutch Reformed, of Washington, on December 15, is the doctrine of brotherhood. While it is perfectly true that lofty generalizations alone will not settle the hard workaday problems that men meet in the carrying on of their business affairs,—and while it is doubtless true, as John Mitchell holds, that for the present, in matters industrial, the best safeguard for peace may lie in the ability to fight,—the man who does not see how valuable it is to establish kindly personal relations, and to cultivate a love for justice and a sense of mutual regard, is a man not only of low conscience, but of narrow and meager mental development. There remain some heads of great corporations and some large employers of labor in this country who regard with distrust, and even with abhorrence, the leaders of organized labor; yet no impartial judge at the Civic Federation dinner would have assigned to the labor leaders any lower rank either in character or capacity than the capitalists and financiers who sat at the same table with them, or the numerous representatives of the press, the church, and the university. Undoubtedly, in directness and force, the labor leaders were better public speakers than any of the other elements that made up the body.

The great object of our American society, whether political or industrial, is to promote the general welfare and advance the common good. We did not begin with classes in this country, and we must not end with classes. We must not cease to believe in the right education of every child, and we must make it a constant object of public policy to remove so far as possible the obstacles that would interfere with the moral and intellectual as well as the industrial advancement of every workingman's family, whether in town or in country. And to a gratifying extent we are making progress toward this ideal. Vast as are becoming the fortunes of many individuals through their control of productive forces, the excessive centralization of wealth in a few hands is more than counterbalanced by the growth, on the other hand, of diffused comfort and, above all, by the growth of the general intelligence. One of the greatest of all the benefits that the organization of labor has bestowed has been its training of men to think, reason, read, speak effectively in debate, and act together under the rule of the majority.

Thus, unionism becomes a part of the training of men for the duties of American citizenship, and for activity in all the relationships of a country like ours. One of the incidental evils of unionism in some foreign countries is its tendency to fix men as members of a class in their entire attitude toward the life about them. The freedom of conditions in America should in the future, as in the past, act as a corrective against this crystallization of men into classes. It is theoretically possible that the workers themselves may be, to a very large extent, stockholders in a corporation from which they derive their wages, and that thus, by a process of economic evolution, the men may actually become the capitalists, with no sharp opposing line of difference between the administrative organization on the one hand and the operative or working organization on the other. Everything that adds to the intelligence and skill of the worker will increase his productive capacity and his earning power. With his training for politics under our American system, the worker may be reasonably certain that in due time the laws of the country will not in any manner operate to his detriment.

Here, again, President Roosevelt stands forth as the courageous and fair-minded leader of the people in an endeavor to see that the laws of the land safeguard the rights of the people as against the vast concentrations of wealth under corporate forms, which need to be regulated to prevent abuses. The President in his message—again with unexcelled clearness—points out for the guidance of the plain citizen the reasons why the national government must concern itself with the corporations that operate in the national sphere. The tone of his discussion is well illustrated in the following sentence:

The American people need continue to show the very qualities that they have shown,—that is, moderation, good sense, the earnest desire to avoid doing any damage, and yet the quiet determination to proceed step by step, without halt and without hurry, in eliminating or, at least, in minimizing whatever of mischief or of evil there is in interstate commerce and in the conduct of great corporations.

Mr. Roosevelt quotes extensively from a recent speech of a railroad president (the speech is evidently one by Mr. Charles S. Mellen, president of the New York, New Haven & Hartford system), in which the duty of corporations toward their employees and toward the general public is frankly admitted. Mr. Mellen is one of a number of able and efficient managers of transportation corporations who have of late ren-

"Men and Brethren."

No Class or Caste Spirit to be Tolerated.

The Laws and the Power of Wealth.

The Upward Social Trend.

dered the country a real service in admitting the essentially public nature of railroads and similar enterprises and the full propriety of public oversight and regulation.

*On Making
Railroad
Rates.*

The President's well-tempered discussion of great corporations and interstate commerce leads up to a recommendation the pith of which is well expressed in the following sentence :

In my judgment, the most important legislative act now needed as regards the regulation of corporations is this act to confer on the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to revise rates and regulations, the revised rate to at once go into effect and to stay in effect, unless and until the court of review reverses it.

No other specific recommendation in Mr. Roosevelt's message has attracted so much attention as this one. When the message appeared, certain heads of railway corporations endeavored, through their powerful hold upon members of both houses of Congress and through their relations with important newspapers, to set a counter-tide of public opinion in motion against this proposal. Their endeavor has, however, met with a very bad reception. There is an overwhelming public opinion in favor of doing promptly what the President advises. It was long ago established in decisions of the United States Supreme Court, that the regulation of railway rates is a public function, and that it may be exercised by the State governments

where traffic within their boundaries is concerned, and by the federal government where the commerce involved is of an interstate character.

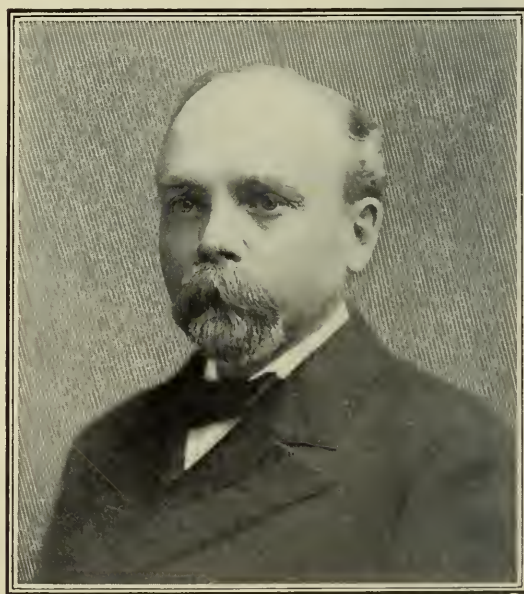
*Shall the
Commission
Have Power?*

For a number of years after its creation, the Interstate Commerce Commission actually exercised the rate-making power that President Roosevelt now asks Congress to confer ; but a Supreme Court decision in 1897 so interpreted the existing law as to limit the right of the commission to the denunciation of a rate which they found to be unjust. In other words, the commission could unmake rates, but it could not make them. Experience has shown that the shipper who is charged an excessive rate or discriminated against cannot easily enough secure justice. The railroads have endeavored to keep before the public the view that theirs was private property in the ordinary sense, and that for the public to exercise the rate-making power would be as unwarrantable as it would be for the government to fix the prices of articles, of food, or clothing. But railroads are not private property in any such sense. The function of the common carrier is a public one, and has always been in law held subject to public regulation. The individual or company engaged in the business of a common carrier should, of course, have fair compensation for services rendered, and should not be thwarted in efforts to obtain a reasonable dividend upon the capital actually



SENATOR ELKINS, OF WEST VIRGINIA.

(Chairman of the Committee on Interstate Commerce.)



HON. MARTIN A. KNAPP, OF NEW YORK.

(Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission.)



President Alexander J. Cassatt,
of the Pennsylvania Railway system.



President Edward P. Ripley,
of the Atchafalpa, Topeka, & Santa
Fe Railway system.



President Charles S. Mellen,
of the New York, New Haven &
Hartford Railway system.

THREE RAILROAD PRESIDENTS WHO WERE PROMINENT LAST MONTH.

(Mr. Mellen and Mr. Cassatt have talked with the President on railway legislation. Mr. Mellen was extensively quoted in the message to Congress. Mr. Ripley was active in securing a conference of railway heads. They represent a limited group of men controlling the greatest agency of commerce in the whole world.)

invested. But railroads in this country have not been content to earn dividends upon actual investments of capital. They have constantly capitalized the franchises and good-will that belong in right to the community itself, and not to the private capitalists that carry on the business. As a rule, railway capital in this country does not now represent a single cent put into the business. It has all been created out of the surplus profits taken from the public under one guise or another. Nobody knows this as well as the railway managers themselves and their financial and legal advisers.

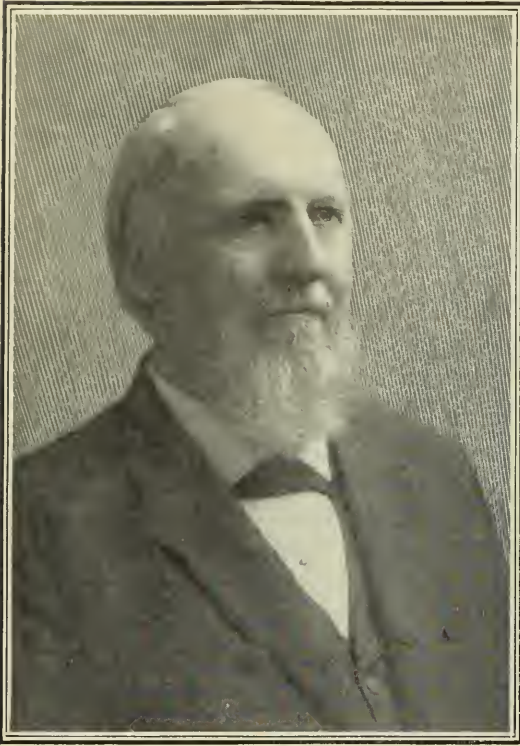
*Regulation,
Not Competi-
tion.*

The protection of the public against overcharge and inferior service from transportation companies does not lie in attempts under the Sherman anti-trust law to break up large systems into small ones, or in attempts to force warlike competition between lines which are inclined toward harmonious methods. The real remedy lies in direct oversight and control of the railroad business by public authority, subject always to judicial review. The President does not recommend that the Interstate Commerce Commission should be

empowered to go ahead on its own initiative and fix the rates to be charged by the railroads. All that is recommended is that where any individual shippers or associations of shippers and business men have fault to find with a rate as excessive, they may take their complaint before the Interstate Commerce Commission, which will give both sides due opportunity to be heard. The commission will then make a decision regarding the rate, and its decision will go into immediate practical effect. Either party may, however, carry an appeal to the courts for a review of the decision. It should be borne in mind that the Interstate Commerce Commission itself has asked for legislation to this effect for a long time, and that bills have been pending in Congress.

*Measures
Pending
in Congress.*

The kind of railroad regulation advocated by the President is embodied in a pending measure, known as the Quarles-Cooper bill, because introduced in the two houses by Senator Quarles and Representative Cooper, both of Wisconsin. This measure seems also fairly to express the views of the Interstate Commerce Convention recently held at



SENATOR FRANCIS M. COCKRELL, OF MISSOURI.

(Who is to become a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission. See page 17.)

St. Louis, representing great bodies of producers and shippers. The present chairman of the Senate committee on Interstate Commerce is Mr. Elkins, of West Virginia, himself a man of large corporation interests, and he has come out with a proposal to vest the rate-regulating power in a new body of great authority, to be made up of expert members holding their appointments for life, and to be known as an interstate commerce court. A variety of bills and suggestions for bills have made their appearance, and although it is likely enough that the House of Representatives will pass the Cooper bill, it is not generally believed that the Senate can be induced to act at all on the subject in the present session.

Not a Radical Proposal. The notion that such legislation as the President asks for would undermine the value of railroad securities and disturb business conditions,—although industriously propagated by certain newspapers under corporation influence,—has very little claim to credulity. There is no disposition in any influential quarter to do injustice to the hold-

ers of railroad property. The wiser sort of railroad men and the more intelligent newspapers of the country are well aware that the immense rapidity with which the transportation interests of this country have been coming under the control of a very few people is the principal factor in the disturbance of confidence, and affords the chief argument against railway amalgamation. Competition can no longer be trusted to regulate the railroad business, and the country will not allow so vast a power to go unregulated as that which will belong to the guiding spirits in the railroad world. Inevitably, the people of this country will take over the railroads and make them public property, or else they will subject them to constant but just and reasonable oversight and control. To take the railroads over as public property could not be accomplished without a period of serious agitation that would provoke extreme controversy, and would certainly unsettle values and lead to depression, if not to panics, in the market for railway shares and securities. President Roosevelt, therefore, points out the way to avoid disturbance in the value of railway properties. Moderate public oversight and control will insure for a long period to come the private ownership and management of the American railroad system. A stubborn resistance of such public oversight and regulation on the part of railway men will precipitate almost at once a movement for public ownership that will make the "magnates" unhappy.

There Ought to be Prompt Action. It would be unfortunate if the Senate should create the impression in the minds of the people, that it is

taking too much heed of the opinions or wishes of those who hold the view that railroads are for private profit rather than for public service. On the other hand, nobody can object to a careful and deliberate treatment of so important a subject as railroad regulation by that branch of Congress which maintains the rule of unlimited discussion. When Congress adjourned for the holidays, to reassemble on January 4, or thereabouts, it was the belief that the session would end on the 4th of March without any action whatever by the Senate on this subject of railway regulation. If the Republican leaders of the Senate do not show a sincere desire to bring this question to a vote at the present session, they will make an unpleasant impression upon the country. It is true that this is the short session, but it is not one that is overburdened with large legislative undertakings. To throw the railway subject over for the next Congress might be regarded by the public as an intentional evasion.

*Railroads
for the
Philippines.*

The President's message ends with a very frank and pertinent discussion of the Philippine situation, which he regards as encouraging in many ways. The first important business on the calendar of the Senate when it assembled last month was the Philippine public improvement bill, which, with some changes, was passed, on December 16, by a vote of 44 to 23. The most important part of this measure is that which provides for the guaranteeing of railroad bonds to enable a system of roads to be promptly constructed in such a way as to serve best the material interests of the people of the larger islands. This part of the bill was carefully scrutinized and discussed, and it was altered from its original form in the interest of a better safeguarding of the public interest. Other parts of the bill authorized the Philippine municipalities to incur indebtedness up to a limit of 5 per cent. of the assessed valuation of property for necessary public improvements. The central Philippine government is also permitted to raise \$5,000,000 by the sale of 4½ per cent. bonds for various desirable outlays. In other details the measure makes provision under which both public and private enterprise can proceed to develop the islands. One of the clauses of the bill gives the civil governor the title of governor-general. The bill had passed the House in the last session, but with the Senate amendments it will have to be voted upon again. Secretary Taft, to whose initiative the measure is chiefly due, accepted the Senate changes, and they will probably be approved by the House with a minimum of delay.

*The Philip-
pine Tariff.*

Mr. Taft will not be satisfied to accept this as the full measure of Philippine legislation in the present session, inasmuch as he is prepared to use every endeavor to secure a large further reduction of tariff rates upon trade between the Philippine Islands and this country. The reasons in favor of such action are weighty and sound, and it is to be hoped that public opinion will exert itself vigorously to secure prompt action in Congress. Such a tariff reduction, together with the railway project and the legislation to encourage mining enterprises and lumber and land development, would almost certainly bring about a period of prosperity in the Philippines that would help in the governmental and educational advancement of the people, and that would justify and give success to all our programme for the welfare of the islands. Incidentally, such measures would increase our trade with the islands and at the same time would assist in various ways in the building up of our commercial

interests in the far East. The tobacco and sugar interests in this country are the chief opponents of concessions to the Philippines.

*Two
New States
in Prospect.*

The next important business on the Senate's calendar after the Philippine improvement measure was the bill providing for the admission of two new States into the Union. Few people, either in Congress or outside of it, seem to understand how much more important the admission of a new State to the Union is than almost any other possible business that can come before Congress. Tariffs can be made and unmade, and most other matters of legislation are subject to amendment or repeal from time to time. But hasty or ill-advised action in admitting a State to the Union is irrevocable. At this very moment the whole moral sense of the community is aroused by questions arising out of the mistake that was made in admitting Utah at a time when it would have been far better to keep Utah in the territorial condition. In the Presidential election, in November, Nevada cast a total of 11,826 votes. The admission of Nevada to the Union was a fearful mistake, for which the Constitution offers no remedy. The present bill provides for the restoration of the permanent lines of the Indian Territory that had been temporarily broken up by the granting of a territorial form of government to a portion of the Territory under the name of Oklahoma. To the area thus restored the name of Oklahoma is to be given. There are people enough and other conditions justify the admission of Oklahoma as arranged for in this Senate bill, which affords due protection to the rights of the Indian tribes. The bill also unites the Territories of Arizona and New Mexico, and admits them as one State under the name of Arizona. These Territories, it is true, are not ripe for admission to the Union, whether separately or jointly; but there are some reasons why the matter may as well be settled once for all. The chief advantage in admitting Arizona and New Mexico now as a single State would be that this would end the mischievous political agitation for their separate admission,—a scheme fostered chiefly by selfish private interests. There is now good reason to believe that the Statehood bill, as duly reported from the Senate Committee on Territories, will become a law during the present session.

*Credit Where
It Belongs*

Looking back over the Statehood fight, the highest credit belongs to Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, chairman of the committee. When this committee assignment was given him, it is hardly likely



HON. ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE, SENATOR FROM INDIANA.

(Photographed for this magazine last month by Messrs. Davis & Sanford, of New York.)

that he appreciated the public duty he would be called upon to perform. There had been so much lobby work done in favor of the admission of these Territories as four States that the thing was regarded as already accomplished. Mr. Beveridge had no conceivable motive for opposing the omnibus Statehood bill as it had passed the House and was about to pass the Senate, except the public interest in a broad and permanent way. He acted upon what came to be his fixed conviction after a study of the history of admissions to the Union in the past, and a further study of the actual situation. It was no easy or popular task that he undertook, in the fight he led against powerful interests. It is true he finally brought his party associates mainly, though not wholly, around to his right view of

the subject, and he was firmly supported by a number of his colleagues on the Territories committee. But if ever credit belonged clearly and unmistakably to a single man for a great public measure, it will be due to Senator Beveridge if Oklahoma and the Indian Territory are brought into the Union as one normal and progressive State rather than as two under-sized ones, and if, above all else, the nation is protected against the fraud of having Arizona and New Mexico brought in at this time as two States with four Senators, where the conditions of population and education would not fairly entitle them, even taken together, to be admitted as one State for at least a decade to come. The inequalities among the States already present sufficient difficulties. It is the part of statesmanship to prevent the

multiplication of such difficulties. And it is the part of an honest and intelligent press to recognize men who, like Beveridge, will stand persistently against the political intrigues of those that would sacrifice the future good of the country to help a corporation magnate who wants a seat in the United States Senate from a pocket borough, or to promote the schemes of a mining syndicate or a cattle company.

Senator Beveridge brings a clear head and a firm will into the United States Senate. The Legislature of the State of Indiana is on the point of paying him the deserved compliment and honor of accordng him another term. He was unanimously indorsed for reelection by the State Republican convention and cordially supported by every Republican legislative candidate and every element and faction of his party in the entire State. Mr. Beveridge is very much more than a good orator, a good lawyer, a good legislator, and a good politician. He is a man of good conscience, of fidelity, of courage, and of patriotism. Whatever faults he may possess,—and doubtless he has some (there are those who think he is ambitious and somewhat egotistical).—he has the virtues and the essential qualities of a statesman, and his designation by the people of Indiana for another term in the Senate is a service rendered by that State to the American people. The successorship to Senator Fairbanks, who must now very shortly resign his seat in order to be sworn in as Vice-President of the United States, has been an absorbing question in Indiana, and has aroused no little interest elsewhere. A number of men have been named as active or recipient candidates, but if common reports are to be credited, the choice will probably fall to the Hon. James A. Hemenway, for ten years a member of the House of Representatives and at present the chairman of the appropriations committee. Mr. Hemenway's district is in the southern part of the State, and he lives at Boonville, on the Ohio River.

The question of the succession to Mr. Fairbanks has not attracted more attention than the discussion in New York as to whether or not Senator Depew was to be accorded another term as the colleague of the Hon. Thomas C. Platt. At one time it was thought that Mr. Depew would be reelected, Mr. Platt being anxious to bring this result about, and public opinion being rather friendly than otherwise toward the continuance of the genial and eloquent Chauncey in public life. But the mastery of Republican politics in the State of

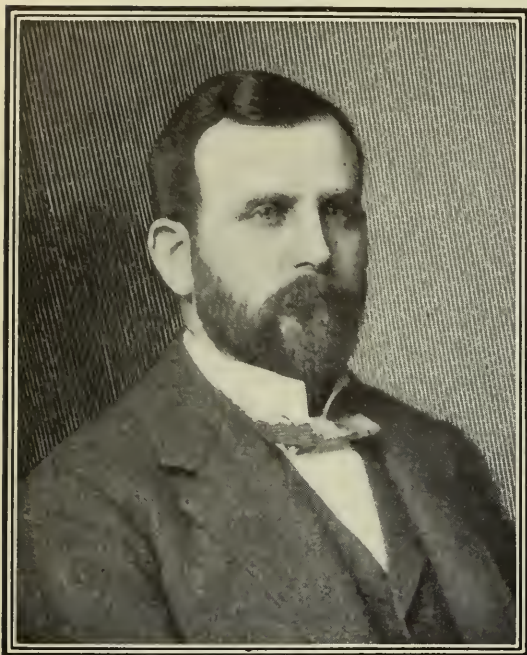
New York has passed out of the hands of Mr. Platt into those of the retiring governor, Mr. Odell. Although this able political manager now resumes private life after two terms as governor, he continues to hold the position of chairman of the State Republican Committee, and his influence has become paramount in the party organization. Governor Higgins, whose administration opens with the New Year, has taken a position of neutrality in the Senatorship contest, while Governor Odell has been supposed to favor the candidacy of the Hon. Frank S. Black, himself a former governor. It was, therefore, a current opinion among politicians last month that Mr. Depew might not be reelected.

Some
Other
Senators.

The appearance of Mr. Knox in the Senate as successor to the late Mr. Quay is gratifying to all friends of the administration, inasmuch as the President still counts upon his former Attorney-General as one of his ablest counselors, while the country looks upon him as a statesman of great intellect and high public spirit. In like manner, the country regards the appearance of Mr. Crane, formerly Governor of Massachusetts, in the seat left vacant by the death of Senator Hoar, as creditable to the good people of Massachusetts. In Missouri, the success of the Republicans in capturing the Legislature prevents the reelection of Senator Cockrell. At the end of his term, two months hence, Mr. Cockrell will have served continuously in the Senate for thirty years. It is remarkable to find what a hold he has gained upon the confidence of men of all parties. President Roosevelt's personal esteem for the Missourian is great, and was promptly shown by an offer to him of his choice between a membership in the Panama Canal Commission and the Interstate Commerce Commission. Mr. Cockrell wisely preferred the Commerce position. His Republican successor, whosoever he may be, will not find it easy to live up to the high reputation fairly earned by Mr. Cockrell. The chances last month seemed to be in favor of the election of Mr. Thomas K. Niedringhaus, chairman of the Missouri State Republican Committee.

Government
and Rural
Interests.

It argues well for the work of the Government during the coming four years that this first message of the President after his election is devoted so entirely to matters affecting social interests. Thus, Mr. Roosevelt seems to perceive that agriculture and everything that relates to the development of the country and the life of the people on the land is now, quite as much as in earlier



PROF. WILLET M. HAYS.
(Assistant Secretary of Agriculture.)



HON. WILLIAM R. WILLCOX.
(New postmaster of New York.)

days, the most important of our social and economic interests, and the section of the message devoted to the Department of Agriculture is a comprehensive statement of what is now the most fascinating and far-reaching work that the United States Government is doing in any direction whatsoever. For instance, the agricultural experiment stations in the different States are achieving wonderful results in the application of science to the improvement of every branch of farm industry. The scientific character of the Department of Agriculture is further illustrated by the appointment, last month, to the vacant position of Assistant Secretary of Agriculture of Prof. Willet M. Hays, of the Minnesota Agricultural College. Professor Hays has been identified with the remarkable work carried on at the United States agricultural experiment stations in the direction of improving the varieties of plants and animals which form the basis of our farm wealth. To all those having to do with scientific agriculture, he is well known, and his appointment deserves the highest commendation. The message reverts to the irrigation work of the Government, always a favorite topic with the President, and goes extensively into the subject of forestry and forest reserves. The President advises the concentration of everything relating to forest

administration under the Department of Agriculture, relieving the Department of the Interior of any responsibility for the timber reserves. It is recommended that the limits of Yellowstone Park should be extended southward, that the cañon of the Colorado should be made a national park, and that the Yosemite and some of the groves of giant trees in California should also become national reserves.

*Growth
of the
Postal Service.*

At some time during his administration the President must face important problems arising out of the immense development of the postal service. In the present message, he makes brief statement of a few very significant facts. The cost of the service during the last year was more than \$152,000,000, and the total receipts more than \$143,000,000, the deficit being nearly \$9,000,000. The rural free delivery service is steadily being extended, and there are now more than 27,000 rural routes, serving 12,000,000 people in the country districts, at some distance from the post-offices. Partly as a result of the growth of free delivery, the volume of mail matter has, within a period of about three or four years, increased more than 40 per cent. This speaks volumes for the increase in the habit of reading and the diffusion of intelligence among the people. After all,

the greatest educational agency we possess in this country is the mail service. A position in the postal service hardly less important than that of the Postmaster-General is the headship of the post-office in New York City. This office is the working center for the foreign mail service, the distribution of second-class matter, the money-order business, and so on. The new postmaster of New York is Mr. William R. Willecox, who, under Mayor Low, was head of the Park Department. Mr. Willecox brings high purpose to his work, and it is believed that he can effect an immense improvement in this great office. He takes up the work opportunely, and the rewards of his success will be commensurate with the difficulties of his task.

Washington to be Made a Model City. Not only is the President interested in the condition of people in the country districts, but he also believes

there are some things the federal government can do by way of example to aid in improving the welfare of people in towns and cities. He believes thoroughly in taking the city of Washington, for example, and making it not merely worthy in its public buildings and its monuments to be the capital of a great nation, but also a model in its treatment of the housing question and its provisions for the education and welfare of all its inhabitants. Washington is not to any great extent as yet an industrial center, but it grows steadily in population and in complexity of conditions, and the Government certainly ought to keep its municipal appointments and services on a par at every point with those of the most advanced communities.

Immigrants and Citizens. The subject of immigration is an important one from the standpoint of our social and political welfare, and

the President discusses it in a broad spirit. He is not afraid of immigrants, no matter how numerous or from whatever country, if they are of the right kind. He makes no specific recommendation about the limiting of immigration, but calls for a comprehensive revision of the naturalization laws. He advises that the form and wording of all certificates of naturalization should be uniform throughout the country, and asks for a great increase in the federal control and supervision of this subject. In several other respects he recommends the careful consideration of laws relating to American citizenship, its privileges and its duties. In this connection, he advises a law against bribery and corruption in federal elections, and suggests a provision for publishing all contributions and expenditures made in the election of United States officers.

Races and Their Problems.

He advises some improvements in the organization of the work of the Indian Bureau, and he has appointed a new Indian Commissioner in the person of Mr. Francis E. Leupp, an experienced Washington correspondent, who is known to have given special study to the Indian question in the past. There is nothing in the message about the race question in the South, nor is there any mention of the proposition that Congress shall investigate franchise conditions with a view to



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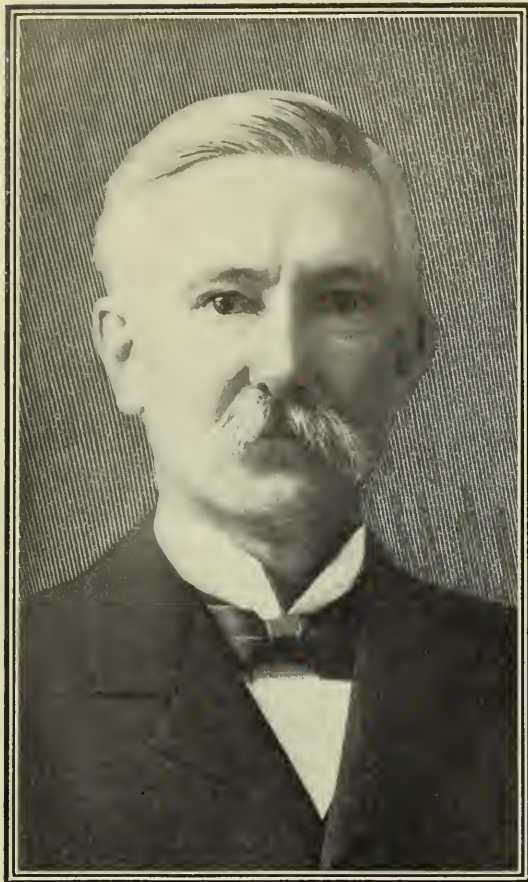
SIR FRANCIS E. LEUPP.

(The new Indian Commissioner.)

diminishing the representation of States that have so restricted the franchise as to exclude illiterates, and practically to disfranchise the mass of negro voters in a number of the Southern States. This is a subject that may be discussed a good deal in the near future.

Is the Tariff to be Revised?

The most conspicuous of the subjects omitted from the President's message is the tariff. His reasons for omitting it were well understood. He was deferring the subject either for a special message to be sent in during the present session, or else for presentation to the newly elected Congress,—whether at its first regular session next December or at an extra session to be called earlier in the year.



DR. ROBERT S. WOODWARD.

(New president of the Carnegie Institution.)

It is understood that the President believes in the desirability of various changes in the present tariff, in order to make it fit the conditions of business, as they have materially altered since the Dingley tariff was adopted in 1897. There is little disposition in any quarter to deal with the American tariff from the standpoint of those theoretical persons who talk abstractly about protection and free trade. The country is doing well under a protectionist policy, and is certainly going to maintain that policy for some time to come. It is not, therefore, a question of uprooting the trees in the orchard, but simply a question whether or not it would make the trees bear better and last longer to give them a pruning. The iron and steel men tell us we are about to enter upon the largest and most prosperous year in all the history of the American production of their commodities. No blind partisanship or pride of opinion ought to touch the tariff provisions that

relate to so vast an industry as this. But undoubtedly practical statesmanship, good business sense, and expert knowledge of the iron and steel industry could revise the iron and steel duties in such a way as to retain sufficient protection and safeguard American industry against an otherwise impending period of mischievous political tariff agitation.

Panama Affairs. The visit of Secretary Taft to Panama proved an agreeable one to the new Republic, and will have excellent practical results. It was a good thing also that a number of the members of the Congressional committees on the interoceanic canal visited the isthmus in November, inasmuch as some very important questions affecting the canal itself and the manner of carrying on its construction will have to be dealt with by Congress. The important thing about the earlier legislation was that it provided a way for making a start. Not much consideration was given to clauses relating to the Panama commission. That body is decidedly too large, and it ought to be either abolished altogether or very materially changed in its size, character, and functions. There must be further legislation affecting the government of the canal zone, and a decision must be reached as to the extent to which the canal will be made to approximate to the level of the oceans. It may be cut down to sea level, with many future advantages in actual use, but with great increase of initial cost and of time needed for completion. Or, if not constructed at sea level, it may be built on several alternative plans as respects the number and character of the locks, the cost, and the time needed for completion. While these questions must be dealt with in the first instance by engineers, the final decisions will be made by Congress. It is understood that Mr. Wallace, the chief engineer and the real builder of the canal, believes it will be best to spend the money and take the time to make a canal at sea level, while Admiral Walker, of the commission, thinks differently. In a public address, at Panama, Mr. Taft frankly explained that the attempt to enforce the Dingley tariff in the canal zone was a mistake. He added that he hoped for a sea-level canal, and estimated the cost at \$300,000,000.

The Carnegie Institution. It would seem as if no great gift of money could have been more opportune than Mr. Carnegie's for the endowment of the institution that bears his name and that is devoted to the encouragement of scientific research. Dr. Gilman retires from the presidency, having presided over the initiation of this great work, and he is succeeded by Pro-

fessor Woodward, who has for some years been dean of the faculty of pure science at Columbia University, and has also served as president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. In an early number of the REVIEW, the growth of the work of the Institution will be presented, together with some account of the personality and career of Dr. Woodward.

Peace and progress mark the recent history of almost all Latin America.

Our Neighbors to the South.
President Palma's message to the Cuban Congress, which reassembled in the middle of November, had given renewed evidence of the quiet and satisfactory way in which things are progressing in Cuba. Commerce, finance, education, and sanitary reform were given prominence in the message. In the city of Mexico, Gen. Porfirio Diaz was inaugurated, on December 1, for the seventh time, as President of Mexico; and Ramon Corral became First Vice-President of the Republic. With the exception of Venezuela, which seems to be suffering from too much government, the continent of South America is advancing rapidly along social and economic lines. It is a real Latin-American continent, as is pointed out by Mr. Charles Edmond Ackers, in his recent books. In addition to those of the original Spanish and Portuguese blood, great numbers of Italians, French, and Spaniards are immigrating there. Great as is our interest in the present and future of the continent, however, Europe still holds the advantage commercially. Europeans, Mr. Ackers says, have invested more than \$1,000,000,000 in South American securities, while American capital invested does not exceed \$15,000,000.

British Imperial Status.
From the widely separated corners of the British Empire come reports of warlike preparations which make for peace. Under the administration of Lord Curzon (who gives in a leading article, quoted on another page of this issue, a survey of his term as Indian Viceroy), General Lord Kitchener had reorganized the Indian army. His plan makes possible greater rapidity of concentration and a more thorough distribution of the European troops,—who number 70,000 in a peace army of 221,000. This remodeling of the Indian army, coming on the heels of the expedition to Tibet, and the "mission" of the Indian Government to Afghanistan, had somewhat alarmed Russia, while in England, during the tension over the North Sea incident, it had been feared that the recent visit of the Ameer of Afghanistan to St. Petersburg portended a Muscovite invasion of India.

Australia, South Africa, the British Fleet.
In Australia, after the recent defeat of the federal Labor party over the issue of the federal arbitration bill, the Parliament of the Commonwealth had settled down to discuss questions of tariff, income tax, general defense, and Chinese and Japanese immigration. Four years after the Boer War, Great Britain had found her pacification of South Africa so nearly completed that she could honor, as though he had been a Briton, the remains of ex-President Paul Krüger, which were reinterred in Pretoria, on December 16. Briton and Boer united in their respect for the dead ex-President, and, by King Edward's special request, a salute of twenty-one guns was fired over the remains. The labor question in South Africa bids fair to be settled by "John Chinaman." The serfdom of the black man under the Boer is being replaced by the coolie labor of the yellow man under the Briton. The entire empire has learned from the Russo-Japanese War the necessity of naval concentration, and the redistribution of the British fleet, announced early in December, is taken in Europe as an index of British foreign policy. In this redistribution there is (1) evident willingness to let Japan curb Russian naval ambitions in the far East; (2) an intention to watch closely German activities on the sea; and (3) faith in the peaceful friendly intentions of the United States to the extent of permitting the reduction of the British fleet in American waters to an almost negligible quantity.

Fortunes of the Combes Ministry in France.
A ministerial escape from defeat—by two votes—on the question of a secret spy service; an assault upon and the resignation of the minister of war, followed by the suicide of the assailant, and a duel between the Socialist leader, M. Jaurès, and the Nationalist, M. Paul Déroulède, over an insult to the memory of Joan of Arc,—these had been the sensations of a month in France. M. Combes had narrowly escaped defeat over a resolution criticising his circular directing government officials to furnish information concerning their colleagues. The exposure of this method of gaining information had caused General André's resignation of the portfolio of war. During the revelations, the war minister was attacked by M. Gabriel Syveton, a Nationalist deputy, who afterward committed suicide, with grave charges of misappropriation of funds hanging over him. The appointment of General André's successor, M. Henry Bertheaux, has caused something of a sensation, owing to the fact that he is a broker without military experience. He is the first to break the tradition of a military man to be war-head in the French

cabinet. The relations of the Republic to the Vatican are still strained, although, at his second Consistory, Pope Pius X. had proclaimed an allocution, recalling the origin of the Concordat, tracing its history, and explaining that the so-called "organic articles" (added in 1802 by Napoleon), under which the insurgent French bishops and the Combes ministry claim that the Church is interfering with the Republic's rights, had never been recognized by the Holy See either as law or as part of the Concordat. Although dignified and firm in tone, this allocution had been generally interpreted in secular circles as indicating a desire on the part of His Holiness to come to some definite understanding with the French Republic.

*Germany's
Financial
Troubles.*

Germany is facing a deficit of some \$73,000,000,—about 114 per cent. greater than the deficit of last year.

According to the report of Baron von Stengel, minister of finance, delivered to the Reichstag upon the assembling of that body, on December 1, the revenues of the empire from all sources have decreased, and the expenditures, present and prospective, are greater than ever before. The expenses connected with the campaign, in German Southwest Africa, against the Hereros, great as they have been, account for only one-sixth of the increased deficit, the greater part of which is due to the steady advance in military and naval expenses. The interest on the public debt, which was also announced, has risen from \$26,000,000 to \$28,000,000 annually, and the customs rates, owing to a diminution of grain imports, show a falling off of \$3,000,000. The naval budget calls for a large increase over that of last year. Most of it is to be expended in the construction of eight battleships, two cruisers, and several gunboats. The Prussian army budget for 1905 is estimated at \$116,000,000, an increase of \$1,000,000 over last year. The only hope of checking the increase of the deficit, it had been announced, is the operation of the new commercial treaties. Meanwhile, the deficit must be met by borrowing, and the outlook for the commercial treaties is not very bright when it is considered that the first one negotiated (that with Austria) has been rejected by the other party. There is a growing inclination among the representatives in Parliament to criticise the arbitrary stand of the monarchy on various political, economic, and social matters; particularly is the pro-Russian attitude denounced by the Socialists. The ruling classes of Germany, however, are sympathetic toward autocracy and support Russia, because they regard her as the great bulwark of conservatism in Europe.

*Austria's
Internal
Troubles.*

Austria-Hungary seems to be never without troubles for any length of time. The Vienna Government, besides having to act as policeman in the Balkans, has now two serious internal disturbances, both of which threaten the stability of the empire. These are the Italian university question and the growing opposition of Hungary. One of the acute phases of the language problem in Austria, which causes as much uneasiness to the aged Emperor as the Bohemian language question, is the persistent agitation on the part of his Italian subjects for an Italian university,—in particular, for the establishment of an Italian faculty in the University of Trieste. This Austria had refused to do, for fear that, owing to racial hatred between Italians and German-speaking Austrians in the Italian provinces subject to Austria, the university might become the center of an anti-Austrian propaganda in a district which, for five centuries, Austria has tried to Germanize. The government had decided, instead, to institute an Italian faculty in the University of Innsbruck. This excited violent opposition on the part of the Italian students at Trieste, who, not being familiar with German, were forced to journey to Innsbruck for instruction. Rioting by students had taken place several times during the past year, resulting in some serious loss of life. Late in November last, an Hungarian artist, Prezzey, had been stabbed by the *gendarmarie* during a riot, and at his funeral a demonstration had taken place which involved the calling out of the reserves. The national element is being emphasized, and, despite the efforts of the cabinets at Vienna and Rome, the Innsbruck affair, as it is called, may yet constitute a danger of grave proportions. Disorderly sessions of the Reichsrath at Vienna had also added to the troubles of the empire. In discussing the Innsbruck riots, several Socialist members had made personal attacks upon the ruling dynasty, one of them declaring that the Hapsburgs had "always regarded the country as an object of exploitation, and had been a burden on the people for six hundred years."

*Austria
versus
Hungary.*

Even Austrians themselves no longer deny that it is Hungary which is now the dominant partner in the dual monarchy. The commercial and economic progress of the Hungarian people during the past quarter of a century has greatly overshadowed that of Austria proper; and the aged Kaiser, Franz Joseph, sees in the increasing unruliness of the Hungarian Diet a revival of the ideas of the famous Kossuth, with almost a certainty of their realization, when, at his own



FRANCIS KOSSUTH.

(Leader of the Radical party in the Hungarian Diet.)

death, the danger of disruption of the empire becomes acute. The Radical party, led by the younger Kossuth to-day, with its clamor for "merely personal rule,"—that is, entire separation from Austria, except that the Emperor should be also the King of Hungary,—is increasing in strength every year. Two years ago, an increase in the imperial army made it necessary to ask Hungary for a larger quota of troops. This the Diet at Budapest had not been willing to grant, unless the Imperial Government conceded Hungary's right to an entirely separate army, with Hungarian officers, and the Hungarian language. Last year, and the present year, had seen increases in the demand made upon Hungary for the imperial army. Other questions, particularly the reform of the electoral system, had aroused the country, and had finally united the opposition to Premier Tisza.

The demand for reform received great impetus upon the return from the United States of the Nationalist.

Count Apponye, who had imbibed many ideas of American liberty and progress. The Hungarian Diet assembled on October 9, and its sessions had been most stormy since that time, culminating, in the middle of December, in actual rioting when Count Tisza, the prime minister, en-

deavored to "railroad" through a bill by which the obstruction tactics of the opposition would be stopped. Personal assaults were made, furniture was broken, and general disorder ensued. The aged Emperor, knowing that the heir-apparent, the Grand Duke Ferdinand, is not popular in Hungary, and fearing the result of the united opposition, had desired to put an end to the obstruction at once and for all; first, by complimenting the Hungarian national pride in permitting the return to Budapest of the remains of Francis Rakoczi the Second, the Hungarian national hero, and, second, by making obstruction illegal. Premier Tisza, who is an ardent patriot, although an advocate of the present régime, is a strong man, with a will and a body of steel. He looks more like an American or an Englishman than an Hungarian. If he should not succeed in breaking up the parliamentary deadlock, his successor (now that the ex-premier, Koloman Szell, has resigned from the Liberal party), would probably be Count Julius Andrássy, the leader of the Deákists.

Signs of a social and economic awakening in Spain have been many during the past months. In March, 1904, a commission appointed by the Cortes, known as the Institute of Social Reforms, succeeded in

No More Sunday Bull-fights in Spain.



POLITICAL SKATING.

"We must hold fast or we fall."—From *Der Floh* (Vienna).

promulgating a law prohibiting work on Sundays, and enforcing the closing of all industrial and commercial establishments. In October, this body, after a heated discussion, ratified the absolute prohibition of Sunday bullfights. It was felt that a national custom so long established could not be abolished at once, but the prohibition of its observance on Sundays (the day on which nine-tenths of the bullfights took place) is considered to be the death-blow of bullfighting in Spain. The powerful Institute of Social Reforms, which has thus accomplished such a work for civilization, had also been investigating strikes in the kingdom, and had made some suggestions for bettering labor conditions, which the government is proceeding to carry out. The census of 1900, showing the population of the kingdom to be close to nineteen millions, indicates that the number of illiterates is being slowly reduced, the percentage of the population able to read and write having increased from 28½ in 1887 to 34 in 1900. Commercially, and industrially, also, Spain is progressing. Reports of the Spanish railroads for the year 1903 show a satisfactory improvement, and negotiations have been almost concluded with France for building two new railroads through the Pyrenees. The figures of Spain's general trade for the year 1903 show a great improvement over all preceding years of the decade, and a number of commercial treaties, notably one with Cuba, are being negotiated. Reforms are also being carried out in the army, so drastic as to cause the resignation of the cabinet on December 15. In the new ministry, General Azarraga is premier and General Vilar is minister of war. The death of the Princess Maria Mercedes, sister of King Alfonso, leaves the little Prince Alfonso the heir to the throne. Early in December, King Alfonso authorized his minister at Washington to sign the Spanish-American treaty of arbitration.

The Russian Zemstvo Memorial.

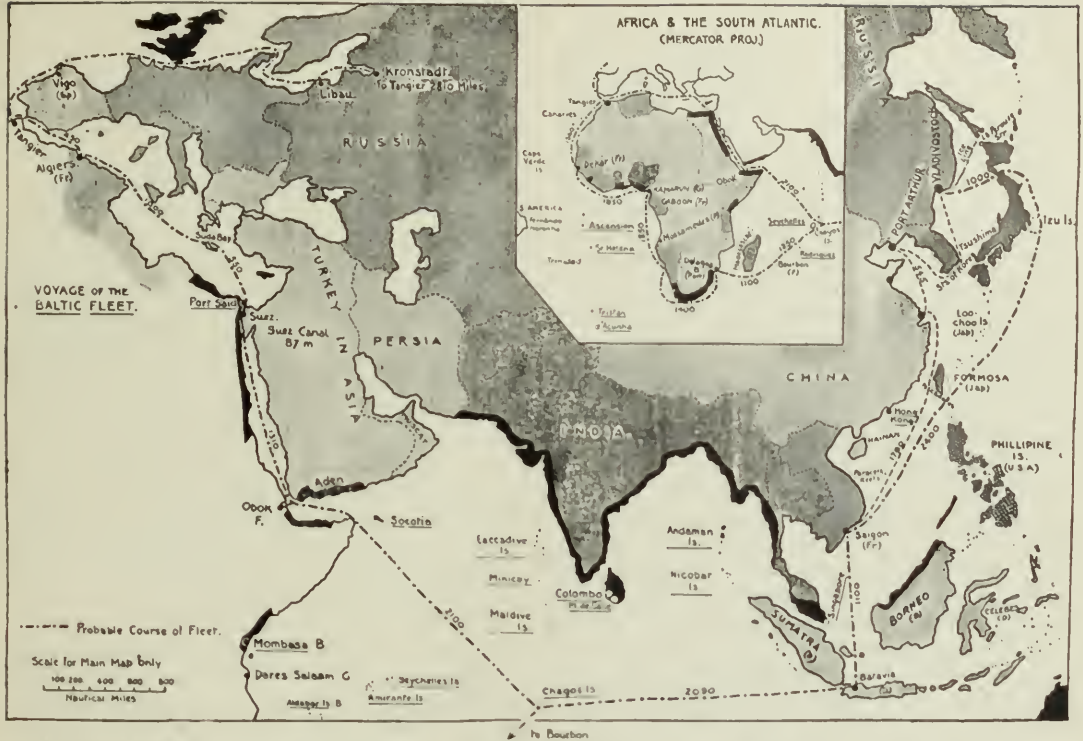
Assassination, it has been said, never brought about a revolution, but it has come very nearly doing so in the case of the late Russian minister of the interior, von Plehve. By making possible the selection of Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski, with his liberal, progressive views, it has resulted in what is virtual revolution in Russia. Encouraged by Prince Mirski's broad, progressive spirit and the reforms already due to his influence (as outlined in these pages last month), the zemstvos, or "county councils," of Russia assembled on November 19, without official sanction, it is true. The result of their deliberations was a memorial presented to the Czar asking for a more liberal administration and a representative government.

The chief resolution in the memorial as finally adopted was as follows :

In order to secure the proper development of the life of the state and the people, it is imperatively necessary that there be regular participation of national representatives, sitting as an especially elected body to make laws, regulate the revenues and expenditures, and determine the legality of the acts of the administration.

Not only did Prince Mirski escape criticism for permitting this meeting to be held, but the Czar received the memorial presented, and also gave an audience to the leaders of the zemstvo conference. A graphic and comprehensive analysis of conditions in Russia leading up to this meeting of the zemstvos, and pointing out the significance of the entire liberal movement, is presented in our pages this month by Dr. E. J. Dillon, who writes from St. Petersburg, and the history of the zemstvo as an institution will be found in our "Leading Articles" department.

Much had been hoped for from the progressive tendencies of the Emperor as influenced by his new minister of the interior. It had been hoped that on the imperial name-day (December 19), or immediately afterward, some reply would be given to the memorial, but these hopes were doomed to disappointment. A number of Socialistic and other radical demonstrations had taken place, principally among the students of St. Petersburg and Moscow, in favor of a constitution, but these outbreaks, although put down, had been handled with remarkable moderation, in many cases by appeals to reason; in not one instance had the Cossack whip been employed. A signal victory for the new liberal movement was the drafting of a plan for the amelioration of the condition of the peasants, submitted to the Czar by former Minister of Finance Witte. His recommendations have the indorsement of Prince Mirski, and, it is reported, the cordial approval of the Czar. Among other signs of progress and liberty had been the Emperor's decree that, beginning January 1, 1905, the Finnish language would be permitted in the official deliberations of the Finnish Senate. The radical revolutionary elements in the empire, embracing nineteen different official bodies,—Poles, Finns, Jews, and Muscovites themselves,—are reported to have come to a complete understanding. They had decided not to embarrass Prince Mirski by hostile demonstrations. The disturbances which had actually taken place are in some quarters attributed to the action of the bureaucracy, which is fighting for its life and trying to create a feeling against the liberal movement.



From the *National Review*.

THE VOYAGE OF THE BALTIC FLEET, SHOWING DISTANCES.
(Coasts under British influence are black on this map.)

The Baltic Fleet's Progress.

Speculation as to whether Russia's Baltic fleet will ever reach the Yellow Sea, or where it will meet Admiral Togo, increases as the now famous ships make their slow progress toward Port Arthur. By the end of the first week in December, Rear Admiral Voelkersam's squadron, consisting of the lighter battleships and most of the cruisers, had passed through the Strait of Babel Mandeb into the Arabian Sea. By the middle of December, the main section of the fleet, composed of the five heavier battleships, under Admiral Rozhdestvenski himself, which had taken the longer voyage by way of the Cape of Good Hope, had been reported off French Congo, about halfway down the west coast of Africa. It had been generally assumed that the squadrons would unite at some point in northern Madagascar and there refit. This is French territory, by the way, and opens up the question of neutrality. The third squadron of the fleet had left later than the other two, and was reported entering the Mediterranean when Admiral Voelkersam's ships left the Red Sea. Distances and courses will be seen by the map we reproduce. The St. Petersburg daily, *Noroye Vremya*, declares that the entire

fleet consumes over 3,000 tons of coal daily when steaming at reduced speed, a consumption which would increase three-fold if full speed were attained. Under the most favorable circumstances, the fleet might reach Port Arthur by the first of February, although it will probably not do so earlier than the first of March, this reckoning not taking account of Admiral Togo. Having destroyed the Russian fleet in the harbor of Port Arthur, the Japanese admiral had taken his heavier ships into dock at Sasebo to be refitted, and then had left for Singapore. This fact, with the announcement that the Japanese Government had warned neutral commerce to keep away from the Pescadores and to be careful along the coast of southern China, would indicate that Admiral Rozhdestvenski will not get into the Yellow Sea without testing the mettle of Japan's hitherto victorious sea-fighters.

Can Rozhdestvenski be Reënforced?

With the destruction of the remaining Russian warships in Port Arthur harbor, the problem before the Baltic fleet became more grave. Although it had been generally believed that Admiral Rozhdestvenski had been coaling and taking in supplies at a

number of French ports along the route, and that France would strain her neutrality even to the point of permitting the Baltic fleet to make its base at some port of Madagascar, yet with all ports under English influence absolutely closed to his warships, Admiral Rozhstvenski would find it very difficult to reach his destination. According to the situation as outlined in the European press, in the middle of December, Russia had two courses open to her,—either to recall the Baltic fleet (and it was once rumored that the Czar had already done this) or to defy the treaty of Paris and send the Black Sea fleet through the Dardanelles to reinforce Admiral Rozhstvenski. A number of Russian leaders, among them Admiral Alexiev and Captain Klado, the latter one of the witnesses to appear before the North Sea Inquiry Commission, had been openly urging that the Black Sea fleet, irrespective of treaty considerations, be sent through the Dardanelles. Captain Klado had gone even further. He had severely criticised the laxity of the Russian admiralty in its conduct of the war. When his criticisms appeared in the *Novoye Vremya*, the captain was arrested and imprisoned, and almost immediately became a popular hero. The idea of sending out the Black Sea fleet, and thus defying Great Britain, had evidently struck a popular chord. It is doubtful, however, whether the Black Sea fleet is in condition to be sent to the far East, reliable reports indicating that most of the ships are dismantled and laid up. Moreover, the naval authorities at St. Petersburg had officially announced that Russia has no intention of sending out the fleet.

The Facing Armies in Manchuria. For a month following the middle of November, the armies of Kuropatkin and Oyama had faced each other on the banks of the Shaho River without any clash more serious than outpost skirmishes. There had been a number of artillery duels, and General Rennenkampf, with his Cossacks, had defeated several Japanese scouting parties; but neither side seemed ready for a general advance. Contrary to the general belief, the setting in of winter had not seriously affected either army. Food, clothing, and other supplies had been sufficient, and on both sides the Red Cross Society had succeeded in thoroughly organizing its work. Each bank of the river, correspondents had said, was transformed into an underground city, trenches and bomb-proof retreats having been dug, into which 220,000 Russians, and perhaps 240,000 Japanese, were living, waiting the favorable opportunity to attack each other,—“a womanless, childless city, which produces

nothing, and consumes every day one thousand tons of food.” Kuropatkin, it had been reported, was awaiting reinforcements by way of Harbin, and Oyama did not care to move until Port Arthur had fallen, and General Nogi could bring his 70,000 men to swell the main Japanese army. Japan's completion of the Seoul-Fusan Railway, and the readjustment of the line from Newchwang to Liao-Yang, had been answered by Russia with the announcement that she had begun the double-tracking of the Trans-Siberian Railroad from Moscow to the seat of the war. General Kaulbars, who will command the third Manchurian army, under General Kuropatkin, had arrived at Mukden, and almost the same day Admiral Alexiev, his resignation as Viceroy of the far East being accepted by the Czar, had arrived in St. Petersburg. In an interview which appeared in a Paris newspaper, the admiral had made some interesting statements as to the management of the campaign, practically repudiating all responsibility, however, and declaring that he had foreseen and predicted the war, but had never desired it.

The Situation at Port Arthur. It is becoming increasingly evident that Port Arthur's capacity for resistance has been greatly underestimated. Despite the significant successes of the Japanese investing force, during November and December, the garrison, according to General Stoessel's latest report to the Czar (on December 19) was confident of holding out for several months—until the arrival of the Baltic fleet, which was expected there by February 1. On December 2, after a series of attacks lasting a month, and with terrible loss of life, the Japanese succeeded in capturing a very important position, known as 203-Meter Hill, dominating not only the harbor, but the heart of the town itself. General Stoessel declares that this hill cost his enemy 20,000 men, and General Nogi admits heavy losses. Mounting guns on this commanding position, the Japanese at once bombarded the Russian warships in the harbor, under Admiral Wirenus. Effective reply was impossible, and after forty-eight hours' bombardment, the battleships *Pobieda*, *Retvizan*, *Peresviet*, and *Poltava*, the cruisers *Bayan* and *Pallada*, and the gunboats *Giliak* and *Amur* were battered and sunk. Several days later, two Japanese torpedo boats (which were afterward lost) succeeded in reaching and disabling the Russian battleship *Serastopol*, thus completing the destruction of Russia's naval fighting force at Port Arthur. A number of gunboats and destroyers had been still unaccounted for, and there were transports and hospital ships in the harbor, but no fighting force worthy the

name. A partial offset to the destruction of the Russian ships was the loss, on November 30, of the Japanese cruiser *Saijen* by a mine.

United Japan.

The Japanese Imperial Diet was opened on November 28 by the Emperor in person, with a formal address in which His Majesty expressed his intention of submitting a scheme for meeting war expenditures and his delight over the victory of his arms and the coöperation of his people. Just before the meeting of the Diet, Premier Count Katsura had made public a carefully prepared statement of Japan's contentions and expectations. Most of these points had been presented before, but it is interesting to note Count Katsura's declaration that, "while everything seems to hinge on the fall of Port Arthur, I do not console myself with the thought that the capture of that ill-fated fortress will bring the war to a speedy termination." Japan, said Count Katsura further, is ready to sacrifice her last man and her last cent for victory in this war, which means her national existence. Financially, politically, and economically, Japan, he declared, was in a satisfactory and united condition. "We have no war party, and no peace party, as Russia has; but, on the contrary, our nation is one and united, with a determination to fight to the last extremity." Very interesting and valuable confirmation of Count Katsura's words is found in Mr. Frederick Palmer's book (noticed in our book department this month) on General Kuroki's campaign. Japan, Mr. Palmer believes, would not in generations suffer any physical exhaustion from her war with Russia. Upon returning to the Island Empire, he says, "you felt more than ever the Japanese point of view in the struggle of the overcrowded islands against a country that has more land than she can develop in a thousand years." After all, "little" Japan is not so accurate a characterization as the world has believed. The Island Empire is larger than England, and more populous. She has six million more people than France. Within six months, she has sent over sea six armies, each of which was as big as either army that met at Waterloo. In eight months, she has sent to Manchuria twice as many soldiers as England sent to South Africa in two years.

The Possible Shifting of Alliances.

That the rise of Japan as a great power, and that her challenge of Russia,—no matter what may be the actual final result of the present conflict,—will bring about a new grouping of the great powers of the world, seems to be the deepening impression in Europe.

A shifting of European alliances is taken for granted. Despite the Franco-Russian alliance and the traditional antipathy between Teuton and Slav, there has been an unmistakable drawing together of Germany and Russia and a distinct alienation of France from her ally. For years, Germany has been trying to break up the Franco-Russian alliance, which has been her nightmare. It begins to look as though German statesmen had already found in the present war an opportunity to make friends with Russia while striking a blow at France. Frenchmen, during the past fifteen years, have loaned to Russia about \$1,600,000,000—on practically unsecured notes—besides which they have invested nearly \$500,000,000 more in private Russian enterprises, largely on the promise of governmental support. And Russia continues to borrow. But there are signs that the French are beginning to weary of the load. The last Russian loan of \$270,000,000 was floated in Brussels, and underwritten, it is generally understood, by German bankers. The course pursued so far by the German Government during the war (in the case, especially, of German commerce interfered with by Russian cruisers) has been such as to warrant the belief that Berlin was striving very hard to please St. Petersburg. If Germany can supplant France in Russia's affection, there will be nothing left for the Republic except to make more deep and lasting her friendship with England, already so auspiciously begun. With France detached from her alliance with Russia, there would be very little reason for the continuance of the triple alliance, under the bonds of which Austria and Italy have already begun to show signs of restlessness.

Could Japan and Russia Join Hands?

In the matter of alliances, a most sensational idea has been advanced and attributed to the initiation of the German Kaiser. This is nothing less than a Russo-Japanese alliance. According to reports from St. Petersburg, an alliance with Japan is now recognized as an indispensable condition for the success of Russia's Eastern policy. The Czar's government, it is said, has determined, for the sake of its prestige, to defeat Japan, but is firmly convinced that, after victory, a permanent peace must be secured with Japan by means of an offensive and defensive alliance. The idea is not absolutely new. It will be recalled that Austria and Prussia became allies almost immediately after their war of 1866. Such a plan might be acceptable to the peculiar exigencies of Russian diplomacy in its need when facing a domestic crisis; but, unless her whole history and national characteristics have belied her, it could never find approval in Japan.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From November 21 to December 20, 1904.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 5.—The third session of the Fifty-eighth Congress is begun; both branches adjourn out of respect to the memory of Senators Hoar and Quay.

December 6.—President Roosevelt's annual message is read in both branches. . . . In the Senate, Mr. Knox (Rep., Penn.) and Mr. Crane (Rep., Mass.) are sworn in. . . . In the House, bills for an inquiry into the affairs of the Panama Railroad and for publicity of corporations' affairs are introduced.

December 7.—In the Senate, Mr. T. C. Platt (Rep., N. Y.) introduces a bill to reduce the Congressional representation of the Southern States; the nominations of Secretaries Morton and Moody, Attorney-General Moody, Postmaster-General Wynne, and William R. Willcox as postmaster of New York are confirmed. . . . In the House, the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill is introduced.

December 9.—The House passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

December 12.—The Senate considers the pure food bill and the Philippine railroad bill. . . . The House passes a bill transferring control of forest reserves from the Interior Department to the Department of Agriculture.

December 13.—The House, by a large majority, votes to impeach Judge Charles Swayne, of the United States Court of Northern Florida.

December 14.—In the Senate, a committee from the House presents impeachment charges against Judge Swayne, and a committee of five Senators is appointed to consider them. . . . In the House, a committee to prepare articles of impeachment against Judge Swayne is appointed.

December 15.—The Senate adopts a resolution providing for consideration of the Swayne impeachment charges. . . . In the House, the Hill financial bill is taken up and discussed.

December 16.—The Senate passes the Philippine public improvement bill by a vote of 44 to 23.

December 19.—The House passes a bill reincorporating the Red Cross.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

November 21.—President Roosevelt appoints Francis E. Leupp, of the District of Columbia, Commissioner of Indian affairs, *vice* William A. Jones, resigned.

December 3.—It is announced that Lieut.-Gen. Nelson A. Miles, U.S.A. (retired), accepts an appointment as adjutant-general on the staff of Governor-elect William L. Douglas, of Massachusetts.

December 8.—The Republican managers in Maryland decide not to contest the electoral vote of that State.

December 17.—The Colorado Supreme Court throws out the vote of four Denver precincts, giving to the Republicans control of the State Legislature.

December 19.—The United States Supreme Court decides that railroads are compelled under the law to provide safety appliances.

December 20.—Senator Platt, of New York, calls a conference of Republicans favorable to the reelection of Senator Dewey.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

November 21.—Representatives of the Russian *zemstvos* adopt a memorial to the Czar (see page 34).

November 22.—Chief of Police Salazar, of Santiago, Cuba, is arrested on charges of bribery and malfeasance in office.

November 24.—In the Cuban budget for the next fiscal year, the estimated expenses of the government are \$19,138,104, and the estimated revenues, \$19,699,850.

November 25.—The Australian defense scheme passes the federal House.

November 27.—Ten thousand Socialists in Vienna make a demonstration against the government.

November 28.—The Cuban House passes the bill prohibiting religious processions in the streets.

November 30.—The Japanese Diet is opened by the Emperor. . . . King Victor Emmanuel opens the Italian Parliament.

December 1.—General Porfirio Diaz is inaugurated as President of Mexico for the seventh time. . . . The Servian ministers of public works, education, and justice resign because of a disagreement in the cabinet over the building of new railroads. . . . The German Reichstag meets.

December 9.—At the opening of the Finnish Diet, the



KING CHARLES I. OF PORTUGAL.
(Who has just paid a visit to England.)

speech from the throne promises the introduction of bills limiting the application of objectionable laws.

December 10.—Earl Grey takes the oath of office as governor-general of Canada. . . . The Brazilian Senate passes a bill to build twenty-eight warships.

December 13.—The opposition in the Hungarian Diet drives out the guard of Premier Tisza and wrecks the House.



GRACE REFORMED CHAPEL, WASHINGTON.
(The church attended by President Roosevelt.)

December 15.—The Spanish cabinet resigns.
December 16.—King Alfonso of Spain appoints the new cabinet, as follows: Premier and minister of marine, General Azcarraga; minister of finance, Senor Castellano; minister of the interior, Senor Vardillo; minister of foreign affairs, Marquis Aguilar de Campo; minister of instruction, Senor Lacierva; minister of justice, Senor Ugarte; minister of agriculture, Senor Cardenas; minister of war, General Villar.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

November 21.—Prince George of Greece addresses a memorandum to the powers urging the union of Crete with Greece....The Hague Court of Arbitration begins hearings on the dispute between Japan and Great Britain, France, and Germany as to the tax on houses in foreign concessions.

November 22.—An arbitration treaty between the United States and Germany is signed at Washington.

November 23.—An arbitration treaty between the United States and Portugal is signed at Washington.

November 24.—Ambassador Choate announces in London that the terms of an Anglo-American arbitration treaty have been agreed upon.

November 25.—The Anglo-Russian North Sea convention is signed at St. Petersburg.

November 26.—The Russian supreme prize court declares the British steamer *Cheltenham* a lawful prize.

November 28.—The Panama contentions in matters affecting the United States are made known to Secretary Taft at a conference in Panama....It is announced that Russia has accepted the invitation of the United



MADAME STOESEL.
(The heroine of Port Arthur.)

States to conclude an arbitration treaty....The British and Russian governments invite the United States to appoint a naval officer as a member of the court of inquiry to investigate the North Sea case.

November 30.—President Roosevelt appoints Rear Admiral Charles H. Davis, U.S.N., to represent the United States on the North Sea court of inquiry.

December 4.—Secretary Taft issues an executive order at Panama, which settles all points in dispute between the Republic of Panama and the United States.

December 7.—The French Senate, by a vote of 252 to 37, approves the Anglo-French colonial treaty.

December 8.—Austria-Hungary offers to reopen negotiations for a commercial treaty with Germany....British holders of Colombian bonds ask President Roosevelt to be arbitrator of the amount of debt to be assumed by Panama....Ratifications of the Anglo-French colonial treaty are exchanged.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

November 21.—Da Pass, on Marshal Oyama's right flank, is taken by the Japanese....A German ship, laden with clothing, medicine, and food, is seized by a Japanese warship near Port Arthur.



DR. FLAVEL S. LUTHER.
(Recently inaugurated president of Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.)

November 22.—Admiral Skrydlov arrives at Vladivostok....A Japanese bombardment of Port Arthur sets fire to buildings near the arsenal.

November 24.—Russia decides to issue in January, 1905, a loan of \$250,000,000.

November 26.—The Japanese make a general assault on Shungshushan and other forts at Port Arthur.

November 28.—A Japanese attack on the Russian eastern flank, on the Shakhe River, is repulsed by the Russians after heavy fighting.

November 30.—The Japanese capture 203-Metre Hill, one of the main defenses of Port Arthur; the Russians make six unsuccessful attempts to retake it.

December 3.—A truce of six hours is arranged at Port Arthur to enable each side to bury its dead and remove the wounded from the slopes of 203-Metre Hill.

December 7.—It is announced that the Russian battleship *Poltava* has been sunk at Port Arthur by shells from the Japanese guns on 203-Metre Hill and that the battleship *Retvizan*, a cruiser, and other vessels have been seriously damaged by the fire.

December 10.—The Japanese cruiser *Saiyen* strikes a Russian mine off Port Arthur and sinks.

December 12.—It is said by the Japanese that four Russian battleships and two cruisers have been completely disabled at Port Arthur.

December 17.—Some of Admiral Togo's ships sail from Port Arthur south.



"THE DRINKING MAIDEN." BY ERNST WENCK.

(Declared by the judges to be the finest piece of sculpture exhibited at the Dresden art exposition of 1904.)

December 18.—The north fort of East Kikwan Hill, near Port Arthur, is blown up by a Japanese mine; infantry occupy the position.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

November 23.—The United States cruiser *Pennsylvania* establishes a new record for the navy by making an average speed of 22.43 knots an hour.

November 26.—President Roosevelt visits the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis.

November 28.—The Department of Commerce begins its investigation of the petroleum industry.

December 1.—The Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis closes.

December 3.—The United States armored cruiser *Tennessee* is launched at Philadelphia.

December 13.—Dr. R. S. Woodward, of Columbia University, is chosen president of the Carnegie Institution.

December 17.—In the burning of the steamer *Glen Island*, on Long Island Sound, nine lives are lost.



THE LATE CHARLES NELAN, THE CARTOONIST.

OBITUARY.

November 21.—Rev. Albert Watson, formerly principal of Brasenose College, Oxford, 77.

November 22.—Rear-Admiral John Russell Bartlett, U.S.N. (retired), 60.

November 26.—Augusto Rotoli, the composer, 57.... Roger Riordan, author, critic, and journalist, 56.

November 28.—Mme. Janauschek, the well-known actress, 74.... Rev. Jeremiah E. Rankin, D.D., formerly president of Howard University, 76.... Rev. William M. Paxton, D.D., formerly president of Princeton Theological Seminary, 80.... Lord Ridley (Sir Matthew White), 62.

November 29.—The Earl of Hardwicke, 37.... Gen. Sir Collingwood Dickson, V. C., 87.

December 1.—Dr. Leonard F. Pitkin, a well-known New York physician, 46.

December 2.—Mrs. George Henry Gilbert, the oldest actress on the American stage, 83.... Rev. Edward H. Welch, a distinguished Jesuit of Washington, D.C., 83.



THE LATE MRS. G. H. GILBERT.
(In the character of "Countess Guckl.")

December 5.—Rev. Samuel E. Herrick, D.D., of Boston, 63.... Adeline Sergeant, the English novelist, 53.... Ex-Postmaster-General James N. Tynen, 78.... Henry P. Moulton, United States District-Attorney for the Massachusetts district, 60.

December 6.—William Blaikie, the author of "How to Get Strong," 61.... Rev. James D. Barbee, D.D., a leader in Southern Methodism, 72.

December 7.—Hugh McLaughlin, the well-known Democratic politician of Kings County, N. Y., 77.... Charles Nelan, the cartoonist,

46.... Samuel S. Mitchell, the American artist.

December 8.—Judge Greenleaf Clark, president of the Board of Regents of Minnesota University, 69.

December 10.—Dr. William H. Bigler, a well-known homeopathic physician of Philadelphia, 64.

December 11.—Rev. John White Chadwick, D.D., the Unitarian clergyman and author, of Brooklyn, N. Y., 64.

December 14.—Lemuel Clarke Davis, editor of the Philadelphia *Public Ledger*, 69.

December 15.—Brig.-Gen. Samuel M. Whitside, U.S.A. (retired), 65.... Norman Maccoll, former editor of the London *Athenaeum*, 61.

December 16.—Ossian D. Ashley, a well-known American railroad man, 83.

December 18.—Dr. Conrad Wesselhoeft, the well-known homeopathist, 70.

December 20.—Rt. Rev. Richard Phelan, Roman Catholic bishop of Pittsburg, 77.

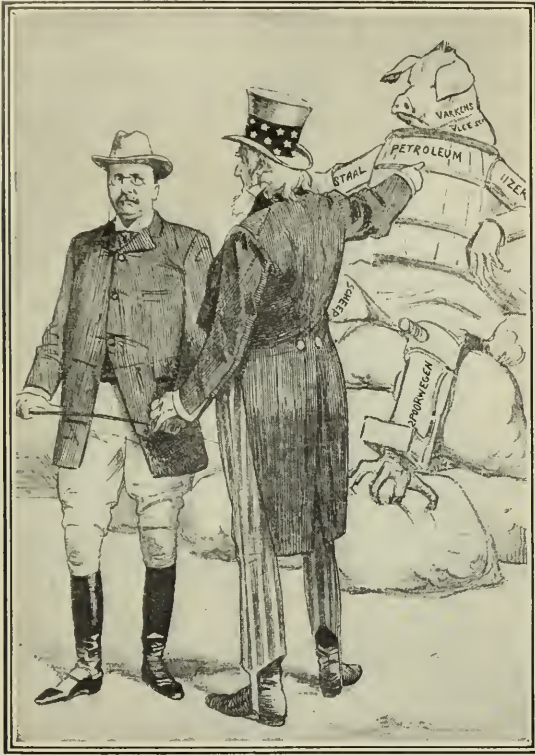
POPULAR AND ELECTORAL VOTE FOR PRESIDENT, 1900.

States.	POPULAR VOTE.								ELECTORAL VOTE.		
	Roosevelt, Rep.	Parker, Dem.	Debs, Soc. Dem.	Swallow, Pro.	Watson, Pop.	Corregan, Soc. Lab.	Scattering.	Pluralities.		Roosevelt, Rep.	Parker, Dem.
								Roosevelt, Rep.	Parker, Dem.		
Alabama	22,472	79,857	863	612	5,051	57,385	11
Arkansas	46,860	64,434	1,816	963	2,318	17,574	9
California	205,226	89,294	29,535	7,380	323	115,932	10
Colorado	134,687	100,105	4,304	3,438	824	336	34,582	5
Connecticut	111,089	72,969	4,543	1,596	495	575	38,180	7
Delaware	23,712	19,347	146	607	51	4,365	3
Florida	8,314	27,046	2,337	5	1,605	18,732	5
Georgia	24,203	83,472	197	684	22,635	59,269	13
Idaho	47,783	18,480	4,949	1,013	353	29,303	3
Illinois	632,645	327,696	69,225	34,770	6,725	1,698	830	305,039	27
Indiana	368,289	274,345	12,013	23,496	2,444	1,598	93,944	15
Iowa	307,907	149,141	11,847	11,691	2,207	158,766	13
Kansas	212,455	86,174	15,869	7,306	6,253	126,781	10
Kentucky	205,277	217,170	3,692	6,669	2,511	596	11,893	13
Louisiana	5,205	47,798	965	42,593	9
Maine	64,437	27,630	2,106	1,510	338	36,807	6
Maine	109,497	109,446	2,247	3,034	51	1	7
Massachusetts	257,822	165,746	13,694	4,279	1,294	2,359	92,076	16
Michigan	361,866	134,170	8,946	13,324	1,144	1,024	227,696	14
Minnesota	214,978	68,631	6,376	5,693	2,004	146,347	11
Mississippi	3,147	53,280	392	1,424	50,133	10
Missouri	321,449	296,312	13,069	7,191	4,226	1,674	25,137	18
Montana	34,932	21,773	5,676	335	1,520	208	13,159	3
Nebraska	138,558	52,921	7,412	6,323	20,518	1,181	85,037	8
Nevada	6,867	3,982	928	344	344	2,885	3
New Hampshire	54,180	43,995	1,090	749	83	20,185	4
New Jersey	251,937	177,339	9,562	6,898	3,703	2,676	74,598	12
New York	859,533	683,981	36,833	20,787	7,459	9,127	175,552	39
North Carolina	82,470	124,121	124	361	819	41,651	12
North Dakota	52,658	14,296	1,945	1,105	153	38,362	4
Ohio	609,095	344,940	36,260	19,339	1,491	2,633	255,155	23
Oregon	69,455	17,521	7,619	3,866	753	42,634	4
Pennsylvania	840,949	335,430	21,863	33,717	2,211	2,598	505,519	34
Rhode Island	41,605	24,839	956	768	488	16,766	4
South Carolina	2,554	52,593	1	21	50,099	9
South Dakota	72,083	21,969	3,138	2,965	1,240	50,114	4
Tennessee	105,369	131,653	1,354	1,889	2,491	26,284	12
Texas	51,242	167,200	2,791	4,292	8,062	421	115,958	18
Utah	62,446	33,413	5,797	36	29,033	3
Vermont	40,459	9,777	859	792	30,682	4
Virginia	47,880	80,648	218	1,383	359	56	32,768	12
Washington	101,540	28,098	10,023	3,229	699	1,592	73,442	5
West Virginia	132,608	100,850	1,572	4,413	99	31,758	7
Wisconsin	289,164	124,107	28,220	9,770	530	223	2	151,057	13
Wyoming	20,489	8,930	1,077	217	11,559	3
Totals	7,630,893	5,106,649	397,208	258,039	114,106	32,516	5,294	3,048,403	524,159	336	140

The figures in the above table are taken from the final official returns, in so far as they could be obtained up to the time that this number of the REVIEW went to press. The vote for the elector receiving the highest number of ballots on each party ticket is given in each case.

The total vote cast for President was 13,544,705; Roosevelt's plurality, 2,524,244; Roosevelt's majority, 1,717,081. The total vote in 1900 was 13,961,566; McKinley's plurality in that year, 849,790; his majority, 456,259.





UNCLE SAM (to President Roosevelt): "Before you can bring about world peace, you must establish peace in your own land by killing the trust monster."
From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



THE GODDESS OF PEACE: "Fly away, my doves. Roosevelt would snare you."
From *Fischietto* (Turin).



KINDRED SPIRITS OF THE STRENUOUS LIFE.
The German Kaiser and President Roosevelt.
From *Punch* (London).

SOME FOREIGN CARTOONS ON INTERNATIONAL TOPICS.

THE European cartoonists are taking increased interest in American affairs, as witness several cartoons on this page. Several weeks ago, *Punch*, of London, published a cartoon showing the Kaiser and President Roosevelt as "Kindred Spirits of the Strenuous Life." In Berlin, the police tore that page out of copies of the English weekly before it could be sold, whereupon *Punch*, a week or two later, published the supplementary cartoon at the bottom of this page. The North Sea incident and Stoessel, at Port Arthur, have been much dwelt upon by the cartoonists.



CONFISCATED BY THE BERLIN POLICE.—From *Punch* (London).

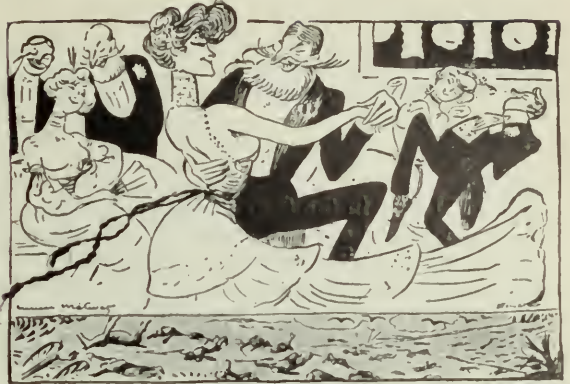


AVE, CAESAR!

(Dedicated to the gallant defender of Port Arthur.)

"The honor of the Russian eagles is untarnished, and to avoid further bloodshed, humanity desires, with one accord, the surrender of the heroic remains of the garrison."—*Times*.

From *Punch* (London).



TWO CABLES.

1. A cable from New York to the press announces that the United States ambassador to St. Petersburg declares that the war has scarcely changed the ordinary life of the country. The season this year at St. Petersburg is almost as gay as ever.

2. The wounded, who, for the most part, have been injured in hand-to-hand fighting, are painfully dragging themselves toward Mukden. One sees them in the middle of inundated fields, taking refuge on little islands in order to escape being drowned.—From *Le Rire* (Paris).



THE ROZHESTVENSKI METHOD.

"When in doubt, I would rather fire at ten friends than an enemy."—From *Le Grelot* (Paris).



THE PRACTICAL SIDE OF IT.

BRITANNIA TO RUSSIA: "I have lost the fishing— Now you've got to pay me for all the herrings of the North Sea,"—From *Le Grelot* (Paris).

THE DAWN OF THE NEW ERA IN RUSSIA.

BY E. J. DILLON.

RUSSIA is in the throes of a great political and social change. Instead of annexing part of Asia by violent means, as many expected she would, she bids fair to be herself annexed to Europe by a seemingly peaceful process, and to join the ranks of self-governing nations. Timid hopes have hardened into beliefs, secret desires have become loud demands. The magic word "constitution" has been frequently pronounced of late even in public and the persons who uttered it have undergone no punishment. "Down with the autocracy!" has been shouted by students and others within and without the walls of public edifices and the prison has not received one additional inmate in consequence. The press frankly discusses a change of *régime* which three months ago it would have been rank treason to allude to. The presidents of local self-governing assemblies have met privately in St. Petersburg, constituting an improvised parliament, and have passed resolutions demanding liberty of the press, liberty of speech, liberty of public meeting, a habeas corpus act, and a representative assembly empowered to vote supplies, control the budget, make laws, and call ministers to account.

Foreign lands and Siberia have given up some of their exiles, the prisons have returned a percentage of their political prisoners. Liberal journals have sprung up and are preaching the new birth of political Russia; old ones sharply criticise the past and hopefully forecast the future. Students turn from science to welcome the advent of justice, crowds assemble suddenly on the slightest provocation in a country where a public meeting is a heinous crime. Strangers fraternize in the streets, buying newspapers and congratulating each other on the new birth of the nation.

The world is astonished at the suddenness of the movement. But in reality it came as a surprise only to outsiders, who had no leisure to note and analyze the symptoms, which were many and unmistakable.

The salient fact of the situation, as Russian patriots apprehend it, is that the governing machine came to a standstill. The blind men who led the blindfold found themselves in a no-thoroughfare, and the latter, undoing the bandage around their eyes, resolved to see for themselves in future. The crevices and safety valves which every civilized society needs and pos-

esses were gradually closed up by successive Russian rulers until at last, in lieu of harmless steam and smoke, deadly explosions followed each other in rapid succession. To become a minister of the interior was to be doomed to a sudden and violent death without even such poor solace as the consciousness of public sympathy.

What foreigners noticed was the broad and odious distinction made between Russians and men of other races, who were treated as an inferior class. All were the Czar's subjects; all were obliged to serve, support, and in case of need, to die for the autocracy. And, one and all, they did their duty unselfishly and well. Yet the Finns, the Armenians, the Poles, the Jews, the Tartars, and the Buriats were not merely despised by the bureaucracy, but they were dealt with as though they were enemies, and dangerous enemies, of the Czardom. And as if that were not enough, the native masses were from time to time deliberately inflamed against them. One of the many baleful results of this wanton provocation was a series of artificial outbursts against the Jews and massacres which the authorities seldom succeeded in stopping.

THE BUREAUCRACY VS. THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE.

That mischievous distinction between various races subject to the Czar was, Russian patriots now affirm, manifest even to the most obtuse. But what most foreigners failed to perceive was that the genuine Russian was even worse off than his fellow-subject of Jewish, Armenian, Polish, or Finnish extraction. Indeed, the Orthodox elements of the population were treated as a conquered race, ever hostile, ever dangerous. And they were accordingly shackled and kept under by the ministry of the interior, which has been often called the "ministry of war against natives." This is how Russians now describe their own condition in the past:

They had no voice in governing the country, no right to tax themselves, no claim to control or criticise the administration, no authority to audit the state accounts, no right to remonstrate against measures fraught with ruin to the masses, no permission to worship God as their conscience dictated. Liberty of public meetings, liberty of the press, of speech, of religious thought displayed in worship, was absolutely suppressed. "With us," writes Vyazemski, "everything ends

in a prohibition or a command. When shall we be forbidden to be slaves and ordered to be reputable men?"

And the consequence was that enterprise in trade, originality in thought, imagination in literature, sincerity in religion, and self-reliance in every-day life were often atrophied and sometimes wholly destroyed. Legislation was a strait-jacket woven by the privileged few for the purpose of crippling the inarticulate millions.

But even those laws were made only to be broken. There was hardly a pretense of applying them for the benefit of the people. Violated when invoked against the privileged social layers, they were stretched, twisted, and intensified when employed to scourge the masses. Russian law says: "No one shall be deprived of the rights of his status, nor shall the rights of any person be curtailed otherwise than by a tribunal as punishment for a crime." Yet since Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski has become minister, numbers of men, women, and youths have been brought back from exile or liberated from prisons, among them lawyers, physicians, students, officers, workmen, peasants, and *sixty striplings not of age*, who were deprived of their rights and liberties without trial, without charge, without crime, without appeal.*

For the judge in Russia was too often the minister, the police director, the official, and his will was the standard by which he summarily condemned. The laws of the empire are voluminous, would fill a good-sized library, and contain many wise regulations. But the most important of them have been for long suspended by "temporary" decrees curtailing the rights of individuals,—temporary, but long lived. Thus, in 1882, a series of measures utterly gagging the press was promulgated—for a short time. They have now lasted twenty-two years, and are still in force. In force? Only partially; for even they have been largely superseded by decrees more stringent still which have received no permanent wording, having been announced to editors by word of mouth or swiftly sent across the telephone wires. Again, the famous *Polozheniye* † which proclaimed a state of siege in various parts of the empire was introduced for three years only. That was in 1881, and it is still enforced to-day. It was to be applied only "when public tranquillity is violated in any place by criminal designs against the existing state form." For more than twenty years, many parts of Russia have been governed congruously with the severe regulations of that statute,—yet one

would not like to infer that during that time the violation of public order has gone on among the population. And if it has, of what use was the Draconic decree?

THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE HAVE NO RIGHTS.

Those measures were put in force against Russians, and they not only did not attain their avowed end,—for the "violation of public order" seemingly continues to this day,—but they, unhappily, had a most pernicious effect on the masses. On the one hand, the extension of the arbitrary powers of the administration stifled in the nation all respect for law, all sense of legality, and, on the other, it gradually accustomed "the rulers of Russia to look upon the people as a servile, inarticulate mass, which ought to have no opinions, must not discuss the acts of the authorities, must not claim to take part in solving any imperial problems, however much their own interests might be affected by them. And when public bodies, exercising a right conferred by law, petitioned the government to modify this or that statute, even this act was regarded as an encroachment on the rights of the supreme power!"*

The members of every civilized community possess the right of meeting and of combining for lawful objects. For there is no cultured community which does not feel the need of discussing its affairs from time to time. Hence the legislation of all civilized states reckons with this requirement and provides the means of satisfying it. Even the archaic Russian penal code allowed in exceptional cases the tocsin to be sounded and the people to be summoned together to deliberate. And since then the need has become more pressing, more frequent, more widespread, but the permission, instead of being enlarged proportionately, has been wholly withdrawn. In the empire of the Czar, there are now only helpless units and an omnipotent ruling class. There is not even a nation, but only a bureaucracy. It is natural, then, that for meetings, assemblies, and associations the law should have no regulations,—only penalties.

LIBERTY OF THE PRESS UNKNOWN.

Liberty of the press is unknown in Russia. Nor are the burning topics of the day ever dealt with by the journals. Current events of the most intense interest are passed over in silence. Americans may perhaps realize what this means by imagining if they can how they would feel if no newspaper were allowed to publish a true and complete statement of the rav-

* Cf. *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, November 13, 1904.

† August 14-26, 1881.

* *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, October 27, 1904.

ages caused by a complete failure of the crops in five States of the Union where the population was dying with hunger; and if every journal were forbidden to criticise the President, Vice-President, the Secretary of State, the Postmaster-General, and every prominent official. But even the idea which Americans would then form of the condition of the Russian press would be inadequate. Take an instance. In 1901, there was a partial famine. People endured harrowing sufferings, children starved before the eyes of their parents, mothers died leaving helpless children dying, too; yet the press scarcely mentioned the famine. Sometimes, indeed, for weeks it never once alluded to it. Hard-hearted indifference, it might seem to a foreigner; in truth, it was only implicit obedience to the authorities.

And even the most obedient papers may be stopped. The *Vyatskaya Gazeta*, for example, was read in proofs and approved by the censor before being published. One day, it occurred to the governor to allow the paper to appear but to hinder the people from reading it. Therefore, 43 police inspectors, 306 rural policemen, and 1,196 police watchmen were dispatched to the huts of the peasants to seek for all numbers of the journal for this year and former years! * In a few days he quashed his order. Respect for law is not fostered by caprices of this nature.

EDUCATION DISCOURAGED.

The government systematically discounted education and enlightenment in all its forms. Committees formed for the purpose of spreading elementary knowledge were deemed harmful in their activity; those of St. Petersburg and Moscow were virtually suppressed. Mutual-help societies founded by members of the intellectual classes were closed. The Authors' Association, the Moscow Juridical Society, and the Imperial Free Economic Society were declared to have forfeited their right of arranging public lectures. Two years ago, in Moscow, a society was projected at the Imperial University and the Imperial Technical High School to promote the advance of experimental science. The professors of the high school were the founders and directors. The objects of the society were admirable, and a sum of \$51,495 was subscribed as capital to promote them. But the government would not consent to sanction the society. Six schools were about to be opened recently by the *zemstvo* in the state of Novgorod. But the project was vetoed. † Hence children are often

taught secretly, although that, too, is a punishable crime. In one of the districts of the state of Vladimir, over one-half of the persons who can read and write learned out of school. In various factories, it was ascertained that 33 per cent. of the "hands" were taught to read out of school.

RUSSIANS HAVE NO FATHERLAND.

Under that system of government, the chief aim of which was seemingly to suppress and to coerce, Russians, it is now publicly asserted, had and have no fatherland. To the bureaucracy they were taxpaying animals, and nothing more. The peasants, who form over three-fourths of the population, the petty traders, and even the wealthy merchants, cannot send their children to army and navy schools to qualify them to enter either service. The class to which they belong is unworthy of the honor. Nay, they are devoid of other rights more elementary still. The merchant-proprietor of a vast industrial enterprise, who gives bread to tens of thousands of workmen, does not dare to read to them the telegrams of a newspaper, say, about the war, nor a chapter from the Gospel. It would be treason to the autocratic *régime*. "What an odd kind of fatherland this is in which I am a stranger," writes the Russian journalist, Menshikoff, "Whatsoever a man touches, he is told, 'that is not your business.' Whose business is it, then? If it is not ours, it follows that we are strangers. What is our fatherland and what is a foreign country? If all my rights here are summed up in the payment of taxes, I had better start for England, where they will bestow that 'right' upon me and at the same time full equality with all citizens, guaranteed protection, and freedom of thought and conscience." *

TERROR THE TURNING-POINT.

In the long run, arbitrary government on those lines engendered lawlessness; religious persecution fostered hypocrisy; coercion brought forth criminal violence. And then came stagnation. Ministers, governors, police directors, prominent officials were killed by Russian malcontents. The latent hostility became open war. Sipyagin, minister of the interior, was shot dead. Plehve, his successor, was killed by a bomb. The administrative machine stopped, at home. Abroad, it had worked very unsatisfactorily. Some practical solution had to be given to the question whether the old system should be continued. Weeks were passed in deliberation. A

* *Russ*, November 24, 1904.

† *Vyestnik Yevropy*, May, 1904, p. 336. Cf. *Russkyyiya Vvedomosti*. N. 94.

* *Novoye Vremya*, October 16, 1904.

victory by Kuropatkin might have turned the scale. But the telegraph chronicled only reverses and retreats. The annals of the campaign contained many a record which was construed as an indictment of the government at home. Murmurs grew loud against the continuation of hostilities; censures were hurled against the bureaucracy for drifting into a needless war; demands were formulated for the conclusion of peace. Finally, Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski was appointed minister of interior. A man of charming frankness, fascinating manners, enlightened views, he disagreed with Plehve's opinions, disapproved his methods, and deplored the results.

The new minister employed soothing language, and followed it up with judicious acts. But he changed none of the principles of government enounced by his predecessor. He began by assuring the Russian people of his confidence, and they were overjoyed thereat. He also released many of the most honored and honorable of the Czar's subjects from prison who ought never to have been incarcerated. Others he recalled from exile. He connived, too, at trivial press peccadillos, and refrained from sending men to jail who had uttered views which differed from those of the bureaucracy. But all his acts and words have been marked with the impress of his own individuality. They bind no one but himself. And if he be relieved of his duties to-morrow, his successor will be free to revert to the system of Plehve without abolishing a law or repudiating an axiom of the government. That is one of the most important elements of the situation.

THE SELF-GOVERNING ZEMSTVOS

The grand historic event of the new *régime* is the assembly of the presidents of the zemski boards. It was a private, almost a secret, meeting, but part of its significance lies in the circumstance that it could have been hindered and was not. The zemstvos are elected provincial bodies invested with certain limited powers. They are charged with repairing the roads, providing medical help for the rural population, organizing schools, collecting statistics, and keeping the thousands who leave their villages every year in search of work from falling victims to hunger and disease. Owing less to the powers conferred upon these bodies than to their representative character and enterprising spirit, they have within them the germs of development and are capable of expanding into a legislative assembly—a Russian Parliament. Hence the government generally regarded them with mistrust and treated them with hostility. For twenty years, the zemstvos have been organizing and spread-

ing education, at first rapidly and then, owing to the opposition of the bureaucracy, slowly. The ministry hindered their work in every conceivable way. Many of the schools founded by them in 1880 were withdrawn from their management in 1884. In 1897, several zemstvos petitioned the government for permission to open schools at their own cost for reading and writing, in the interests of the fatherland, which the bureaucracy might be expected to further. But the authorities refused. For education and autocracy are as fire and water,—they cannot combine. Still, in the face of this great growing opposition the zemstvos made headway. Then, at last the government had recourse to extreme measures,—reduced their budget and narrowed the scope of their educational activity.

But the local boards still worked manfully on for the weal of the helpless people, giving them half a loaf when a whole one could not be procured. When schools were forbidden, books were published,—not trashy or harmful works, but the best creations of Russian classic literature. Here, too, the efforts of the zemstvos were thwarted. In 1901, the central authorities hindered them from issuing cheap editions of Russian classics for the benighted people, but forgot to dam the flood of obscene and superstitious twaddle which inundated the provinces.* At last, when the zemstvos expressed a wish to meet together and concert uniform measures for succoring the sick and wounded soldiers, the government refused. Each local council might help separately, but there must be no combination!

Such were the zemstvos when Plehve was killed,—devoid of power, but possessed of that knowledge which is equivalent to power. They alone knew the masses, knew the economic and moral state, the strivings and the temper of the people. And as the government would soon have to ask the help of that people, it would need the good will and the coöperation of the zemstvos. For the whole economic structure of the Czarism is creaking and shaking,—has, indeed, already broken down in many places, and must shortly be built up anew. And without the zemstvos, who are the spokesmen of the peasants, the government would be groping in the dark, for unlike other governments it has no sound adviser, no influential coadjutor. The men of light and leading in Siberia, in prison or abroad, are all in the camp of the enemies of autocracy. Hence the new minister, whose system would seem to be to keep the people in countenance without changing the old principles of administration, smiled on the zemstvos. He let the presi-

* Those of Smolensk, Tver, Perm, Kaluga, Samara.

dents of the district boards know that if they still desired to meet and adopt measures for succoring the wounded, he would place a council hall in his ministry at their service and authorize their meeting. This was a vast stride in the direction of democracy,—for the Russian Government. To allow the representatives of elective popular bodies to gather together and deliberate on any matter whatever was a new departure. It marked an epoch in Russian history. The assembly was fixed for November 19, 1904.

THE GOVERNMENT WITHDRAWS ITS AUTHORIZATION.

The presidents of the district councils were delighted. But they accepted the concession as a stepping-stone. With frankness born of gratitude, they told the minister that they would discuss other matters besides the help of the wounded. The bulk of the Russian people are, if not wounded by Japanese, hit hard by privations and misery which might easily have been avoided. And measures to alleviate those sufferings, and to hinder their recurrence, would also be discussed, they said,—they even alluded to a representative chamber. Prince Mirski shrugged his shoulders,—he would not forbid them to debate on the state of Russia, but neither could he authorize them to do so. And as for a parliament,—the idea could not be entertained. Would it not be better to put off the gathering until January?

Bureaucratic dignitaries and other partisans of the autocracy, pure and simple, hearing what was planned, grew alarmed. The assembly must be countermanded, come what might. Prevention is so much easier than cure. They made earnest representations to the Czar, one of the most influential among them going so far as to say that if the zemstvo presidents came together with the permission of the government, their assembly would be "the beginning of the end." Thereupon, the Emperor summoned his minister and learned that the 19th of November was the date fixed, but that it might be postponed till January. He refused, however, to authorize it at all. "But the authorization has been already promised," urged Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski. "Well, later on we may see more clearly," replied the Czar.

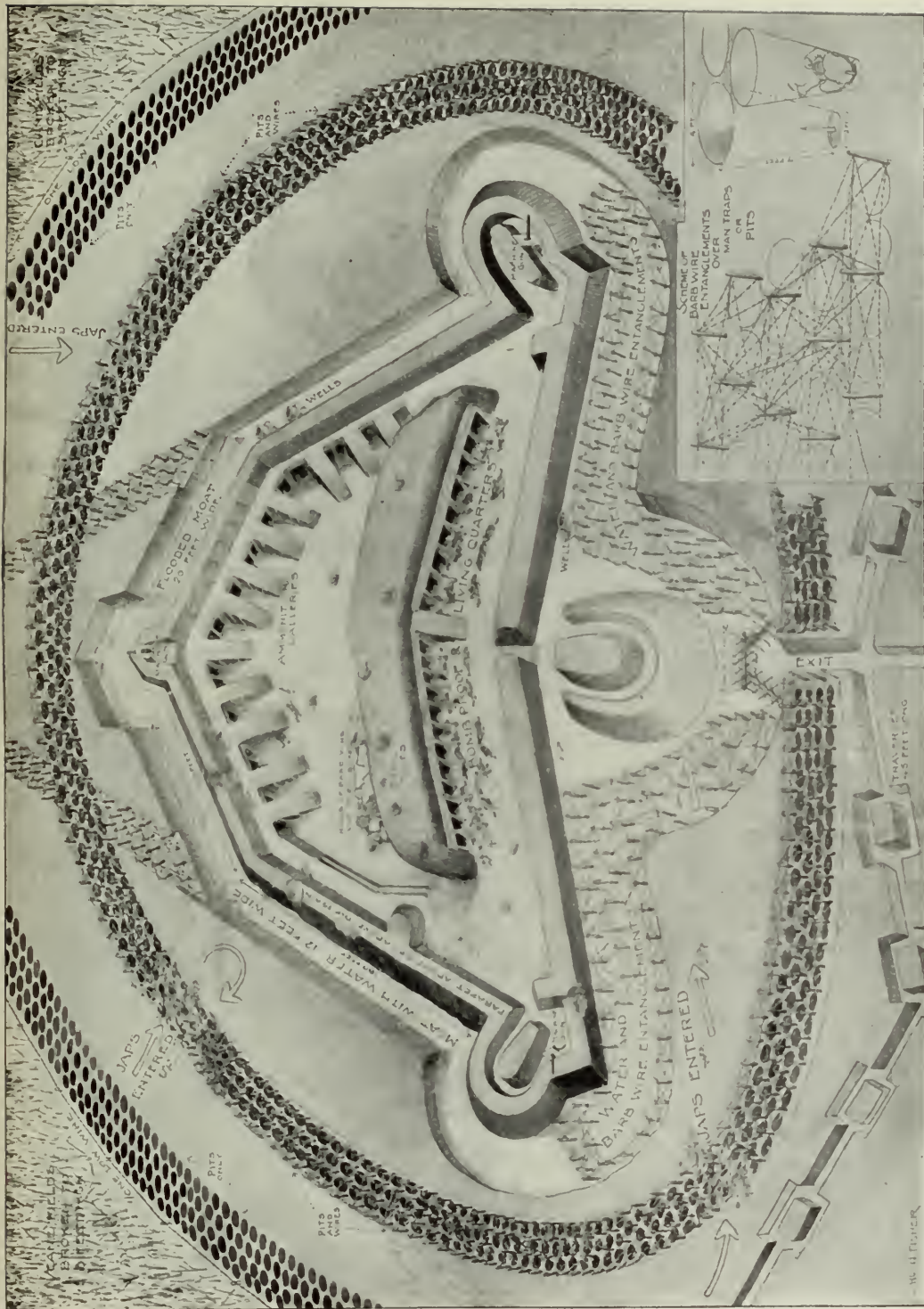
This conversation was reported by the minister the same evening to M. Shipoff, the president of the assembly, whereupon the zemstvo presidents resolved to meet privately and without official authorization. The advantage of this procedure from the government point of view lay in the circumstance that the resolutions

which the council might pass would be those of a hundred unofficial individuals, binding upon no one. From the people's point of view, the authorization was a meaningless formality. For all Russia, men said, is united, all Russia calls for a voice in governing itself, and once the mass is set rolling, it will grow into an avalanche and sweep away all obstacles to its progress.

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT DEMANDED.

The 19th of November is henceforth a historic date in Russian annals,—analogous, one might say, to the 4th of May in pre-revolutionary France, when the States-General met. On that fateful Saturday evening, ninety-eight out of the one hundred and ten invited zemstvo leaders gathered together in a house on the River Fontanka and formed themselves into a preliminary parliament. They deliberated then and on the three following days behind closed doors, no outsider being admitted. That was part of their compact with the minister of the interior. And the press was strictly forbidden to publish any item recognizing their existence,—that being one of the precautions taken by Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski. The result of the debates was that a large majority passed resolutions to the effect that the present *régime* was entirely out of harmony with the needs and aims of the Russian people, who must henceforward be allowed to take an active part in conducting their own affairs. The future government, whatever else it might be or do, shall be based upon law and eschew arbitrary measures, and the woof and web of legislation must be the political equality of all Russian citizens, liberty of conscience, of the press, of public meeting, and the establishment of a permanent representative assembly to make laws, vote the budget, watch over the expenditure, and see that ministers discharge their duty in the interests of the nation. These resolutions were unofficially placed in the hands of the minister by the chairman of the congress, and the minister undertook to lay them before the Czar.

Such are the facts. The resultant of these events and of other happenings, only some of which are known, lies in the seed-plot of the future. The intelligent classes in Russia are extremely hopeful, the workmen and the organized Socialists are very determined, the students and the young generation are buoyant and impulsive. But the troops and all the organized forces of the empire are in the hands of the autocratic government, whose intentions are certainly not suicidal.



THE GREAT RUSSIAN REDOUBT SOUTH OF LIAO-YANG.

(From a sketch made on the morning after the battle by Grant Wallace, the special artist of the "Illustrated London News.")

This redoubt was one of eleven similar earthworks forming the inner line of defense. General Stachelberg's rearguard held it until September 3. This is the spot where many companies of Oku's army were nearly annihilated, and three thousand Japanese fell in the night attack on this one position.



THE GREAT NAPOLEON VISITS THE JAPANESE GENERAL STAFF AND REMINDS THEM OF HIS OWN FATE IN 1812.

WAR PICTURES IN RUSSIA AND JAPAN.

THE Russian masses, who can neither read nor write, are influenced to a really remarkable extent by the colored war pictures called *Lubochnyya Kartiny*, or popular pictures, brought out by a number of publishers of the quasi-patriotic class in St. Petersburg and Moscow. These publishers try to please the authorities, from whom it is rumored they receive financial support, and at the same time are sure of a large sale to the ultra-patriotic Russians. A few of the representative ones we publish this month. These pictures are in bright colors, and represent the triumph of the Russian arms, invariably breathing a spirit of contempt for the Japanese army and navy. Formerly, they were the work of cheap artists, but since the time of the Boxer outbreak in China, some artists of high standing have taken to preparing these pictures. They are sold on the streets to the lower merchant and peasant classes at prices from one to three kopecks (the kopeck is one-half a cent) each. In every village house, one or more of these pictures will be found, some framed, others tacked up on the walls. In the far-away "governments," in the interior of the empire, where the peasants, and even many of the merchants, never see a newspaper, these *Kartiny* have convinced the great Russian masses that



THE RUSSIAN JACK TAR PULLS THE JAPANESE NOSE.
(United States, England, and China are standing by.)—A Russian popular picture.



THE BRAVE PRIEST LEADING A CHARGE AT THE BATTLE OF THE YALU.—A RUSSIAN POPULAR PICTURE.

the army and navy of the Czar have been everywhere triumphant over the "yellow devils." Most of these are of the crudest design, although a few,—for example, the one representing Napoleon appearing to the Japanese General Staff, and the one showing the priest leading the charge

at the battle of the Yalu,—show some artistic touch. These pictures were very popular and of great influence during the Crimean War. The idea is very much older, however, and in peasant huts in the interior, some *Kartiny* of Napoleon's time, and even some describing the



THE BRAVE RUSSIAN SINKS TWO JAPANESE WARSHIPS. (Referring to the loss of the Japanese warships *Hatsuse* and *Yoshino*.)—A Russian popular picture.



ONE COSSACK TAKES CAPTIVE THREE JAPS. (The Cossack is regarded as Russia's best fighter.)—A Russian popular picture.



JAPANESE ARTILLERY AT THE BATTLE OF THE YALU.—A JAPANESE POPULAR PICTURE.

battle of Poltava (1709), may be found. They are exclusively for the illiterate class; no intelligent Russian would admit one of these pictures into his house. They are referred to in a general way as *Lubochnyya Kartiny*, but the real *Lubochnyya* are not war pictures; they represent

fables, fairy tales, and folk stories. In the country districts, these pictures are distributed through agents for church supplies and by itinerant peddlers, the only avenues through which Russian peasants receive anything from the outside world.

The Japanese popular pictures are also printed



FOUR JAPANESE HEROES AT THE YALU.

(They swam the river in the face of artillery fire.)—A Japanese popular picture.



A JAPANESE HERO AT PORT ARTHUR.

(The boarding of a Russian torpedo boat by marines of a Japanese destroyer.)—A Japanese popular picture.

in color, but they appeal to a higher grade public, as the percentage of illiteracy in Japan is much less than that in Russia. The authorities have nothing to do with these pictures in Japan. Their general tone is one of exaltation of the national heroes; and when Russians are referred to, it is not in the coarse, contemptuous way which characterizes the pictures on the other side. There is no appeal to religious prejudice in the Japanese pictures. They are usually very full of detail, and whereas the Russian pictures make much of the individual soldier, the Japanese must always have their national flag in evidence.



THE JAPANESE STORM KIN-CHAU FORT.—A JAPANESE POPULAR PICTURE.



THE JAPANESE INFANTRY WINNING THE BATTLE OF THE YALU.

(The Imperial Guard, under General Hasegawa, as shown in a Japanese popular picture.)

SAMUEL GOMPERS, REPRESENTATIVE OF AMERICAN LABOR.

BY WALTER E. WEYL, Ph.D.

ON November 26, 1904, the representatives of organized labor, in convention assembled, by a practically unanimous vote and amid unbounded enthusiasm, reelected to the presidency of the American Federation of Labor, to the premier position in the labor world, Mr. Samuel Gompers. The result was not unexpected. For twenty years, the Federation had, with one exception, annually voted to retain the present incumbent in his high office. In the whole labor movement, no name has been so closely identified with the fortunes of the great Federation as that of Mr. Gompers.

The life of Samuel Gompers illustrates the influence exerted by a man who concentrates all energies upon a single object. For forty years, Mr. Gompers has been absolutely devoted to one cause, the building up of the trade-union. Neither political ambition nor business opportunity, neither public duties nor social diversions, have forced him even for a moment to swerve from this path. Morning and night, Sundays, weekdays, and holidays, he has lived with this one ideal; to this sole attainment he has directed his every effort. There has been no dissipation of forces, no frittering away of self upon a multitude of small objects; nothing but the intense concentration of a strong mind and an indomitable will upon a living, vital, growing movement.

Samuel Gompers was born in London, on January 27, 1850. At the age of ten, he was apprenticed to the shoemaking trade, but shortly thereafter changed over to the making of cigars, at which occupation his father was employed. In 1863, at the age of thirteen, he emigrated to America, where, in the capacity of journeyman, he continued to work at his trade. In the following year, the first cigar-makers' union of the city of New York was organized, and the young lad immediately joined. Even at that age he was imbued with the spirit of unionism, though his enthusiasm, doubtless, was boyish and uncomprehending.

It was not until Mr. Gompers attained his majority, however, that he secured recognition or preferment in a labor organization. At the age of twenty-four, he was elected to the position of secretary of his local union, to which office he was reelected in the following year. He also

served for six successive terms as president, and during this period, and subsequently, he represented his local in the city and State federative bodies, with which his organization was affiliated.

MR. GOMPERS AS A TRADE-UNIONIST.

In those early days, the trade-union movement was modest in its scope and limited in its powers. The vast majority of labor organizations were merely local, and their activity was directed solely to the achievement of immediate aims. Not until 1887 did the local union to which Mr. Gompers belonged determine to take part in the formation of a national organization, and the first congress convened for this purpose consisted of but seven delegates, of whom Mr. Gompers was one.

In the creation of this organization, now the Cigar Makers' International Union, Mr. Gompers was extremely active, and through his influence and agitation, the new organization ultimately adopted the democratic system of proposing and making laws and nominating and electing officers by the initiative and the referendum.

To Mr. Gompers may also be attributed a large part of the credit for establishing benefit features upon an extensive scale. The British unions, such as the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters, and others, differ chiefly from the American organizations of like nature in that they largely depend upon a well-developed system of trade-union benefits for securing and retaining membership. The union insures the workman against unemployment, sickness, death, accident, and from disability resulting from old age or prolonged illness. The Cigar-Makers' Union is the only large organization in the United States which has adopted an extensive system of benefits. During the last twenty-five years, this union has expended millions of dollars on its members for sickness, death, and out-of-work benefits. In large measure, the credit for this system of benefits, modeled upon the English plan, is to be given to Mr. Gompers, though, of course, its successful administration has been due to the activity of the presidents and other officials of the organization.

Though for the last twenty years Mr. Gompers



PRESIDENT SAMUEL GOMPERS, OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

(From his latest photograph.)

has almost continuously remained president of the American Federation of Labor, he has during this entire period retained membership in his own union, and during the last fourteen years has been its first vice-president. In this connection, and in his various other capacities, he took part in political reforms, looking to the protection of the workers and the betterment of their conditions. Mr. Gompers was active in securing in New York the Saturday half-holiday for employees in financial institutions, and he aided materially in the successful movement for child-labor legislation in that and other States. He was also prominent in the struggle for the creation of a federal department of labor, as well as for legislation prohibiting the immigration of Chinese laborers and of foreign laborers under contract. While interested, however, in political reforms, he has steadfastly refused political preferment. In 1886, while still work-

ing at the bench as a cigar-maker, he declined the honorable and remunerative position of commissioner of the New York State Board of Mediation and Arbitration, and he subsequently rejected a joint nomination for State Senator made by both political parties, as well as the offer of a nomination for Congressman. During President McKinley's administration, Mr. Gompers declined an invitation to become a member of the Industrial Commission, and at various times in his career in the American Federation of Labor, he has been besieged by business offers which would have been tempting to any one to whom wealth was a consideration.

THE FEDERATION OF LABOR.

The principal activity of Mr. Gompers and the work with which his name is most intimately associated is the creation and development of the American Federation of Labor. This organ-

ization was formed in 1881, largely as a protest against the Knights of Labor, then the dominant labor federation. From the beginning, Mr. Gompers was prominent in its development. In 1882, he was elected president, and from 1885 onward he has been annually reelected, with the exception of a single year. Up to the year 1886, Mr. Gompers performed his work entirely gratuitously, earning journeyman's wages at his trade. His latitude of action was circumscribed by the resources of the organization. In one year, during which he drew no salary, his entire expense account amounted to thirteen dollars. The organization was extremely weak. The Knights of Labor exhibited an uncompromising hostility, and the infant Federation was weakened by the defection of many of its members. In 1886, it was reorganized, and the president, who was henceforth to devote his entire time to the organization, was accorded an annual salary of one thousand dollars. This year, also, marked the decline of the Knights of Labor, and from 1886 on, the American Federation of Labor slowly but continuously grew in power, and gradually occupied the position once held by the Knights. Within the last eighteen years, the Federation has grown to a position far more prominent than any ever held by the Knights of Labor, or, in fact, by any other labor organization in the history of the world.

THE GREATEST LABOR ORGANIZATION IN THE WORLD.

The American Federation of Labor, as it exists to-day, is in some ways one of the most impressive organizations in the world. With two millions of unionists in the bodies under its jurisdiction, with the partial allegiance of other millions of workmen, still unorganized but imbued with the union spirit, the Federation rests upon a base, broader in point of numbers, than any labor union or federation in the world, and comparable only with certain vast political and religious bodies. In America, federation of unions has gone further than in Great Britain, or in any of the countries of Continental Europe. In the United Kingdom, there exists a Trade-Union Congress, which aims at the political advancement of the workers and a general federation of trade-unions for the attainment of industrial ends. The American Federation of Labor has the ambition to accomplish both these purposes. Its aim is to represent its constituent unions politically, to assist them in their industrial combats, to use its good offices in the settlement of interunion disputes, to aid in the extension of the union label, to direct the application of the boycott,

and to influence public opinion by the dissemination of information upon unions and unionism.

POWER WITHOUT AUTOCRACY.

The comparatively favorable position now held by the American Federation was not attained without much struggle nor without overcoming apparently insurmountable obstacles. The Federation arose in opposition to the Knights of Labor, which, it was feared, would swallow up the separate trade-unions, as the stork of the fable devoured his batrachian subjects. The unions forming the new organization were extremely jealous of their prerogatives, and the powers accorded to the Federation were strictly defined and sharply limited. The unions, moreover, were poor, and could not afford high assessments to the Federation, which body was thus forced to maintain itself in a meager and extremely economical manner. Until 1887, the total annual receipts of the Federation never amounted to seven hundred dollars; until 1899, the revenue of no year was equal to twenty-five thousand dollars, while not until 1901 did the receipts for the year exceed one hundred thousand dollars, and not until 1903 two hundred thousand dollars. Finally, the Federation, while appealed to to settle many disputes and controversies, both among the unions themselves and between unions and employers, was without the power to enforce its decisions, and only gradually have its decisions acquired more weight and been accorded greater consideration.

In a certain sense, the weakness of the American Federation of Labor has been its strength. It could hope to exist only upon the sufferance of its constituent unions. Had it arrogated to itself vast powers, or sought to exert a dominating influence over the actions of the unions, there would have ensued revolt and secession, and the Federation would have crumbled to the ground. Its sole hope for survival lay in its voluntary recognition of the complete autonomy and independence of the unions, and this guarantee was given and inviolably maintained. More than this, the Federation from its inception has been modest in the extreme in its demand for money and power, and it has exerted the power which it possessed in a moderate and cautious manner.

A LABOR LEADER OF THE MODERN TYPE.

The inherent weakness of the American Federation of Labor, especially during its earlier years, and the cautious, careful, slow-paced policy which this feebleness necessitated, called for a leader with a peculiar and unusual combination of qualities. There are many men of

rare ability who would have signally failed in the difficult task which Mr. Gompers is accomplishing. To have succeeded, one would needs have been, like him, a workingman and the son of a workingman, with a workingman's ideals and a workingman's acute sense of what other workingmen think and feel. A selfish leader would have deserted the Federation; an unpractical enthusiast would have been deserted by it. Mr. Gompers combined warm, generous enthusiasms with a cool, cautious, tentative policy; he was far-sighted in his plans, but careful, steady, opportunistic, even wisely temporizing in their execution; he spoke and wrote of the rights of labor, but he saw that the Federation finances were in good order, and he kept in touch with an infinite multitude of petty details.

Mr. Gompers represents, as completely as any one, the latter-day type of successful labor leader. Earnest and convincing in address, straightforward yet courteous in intercourse, intensely purposeful and tenacious yet tolerant and moderate, bold in thought yet cautious in action, Mr. Gompers, like other labor leaders, is a determined fighter and a persistent pacifier. For years, he has been a peacemaker, than whose there is no more strenuous life, and by his intimate acquaintance with thousands of men, and his knowledge of their point of view, their bias, and their peculiarities, he has been able to pour oil upon many a troubled stream. He has assisted at the birth of many unions,—a task of midwifery that falls to the lot of all officials of the Federation. In the *American Federationist*, which he edits, in hundreds of articles and in thousands of speeches, he has over and over again preached the fundamentals of trade-union policy. By the exercise of tact and forbearance, and by exertions which taxed the whole mental and physical endurance of the man, he has brought the Federation through manifold dangers, and, with others, has placed it in its present advantageous situation.

THE HOPES AND FEARS OF UNIONISM.

If, in the future, the American Federation of Labor is to increase in power, it will probably be due in large part to the greater strength and wealth of its constituent unions. As the unionists learn to pay higher dues, as the funds of the labor organizations increase, the *per capita* tax, upon which the revenues of the Federation depend, will also grow. The intensity of the jurisdictional fights and the debilitating effect which they even now have upon the unions engaged in them, will, of necessity, force the several unions to adjust their grievances through some central body like the American Federation of Labor. The boycott and the label must also

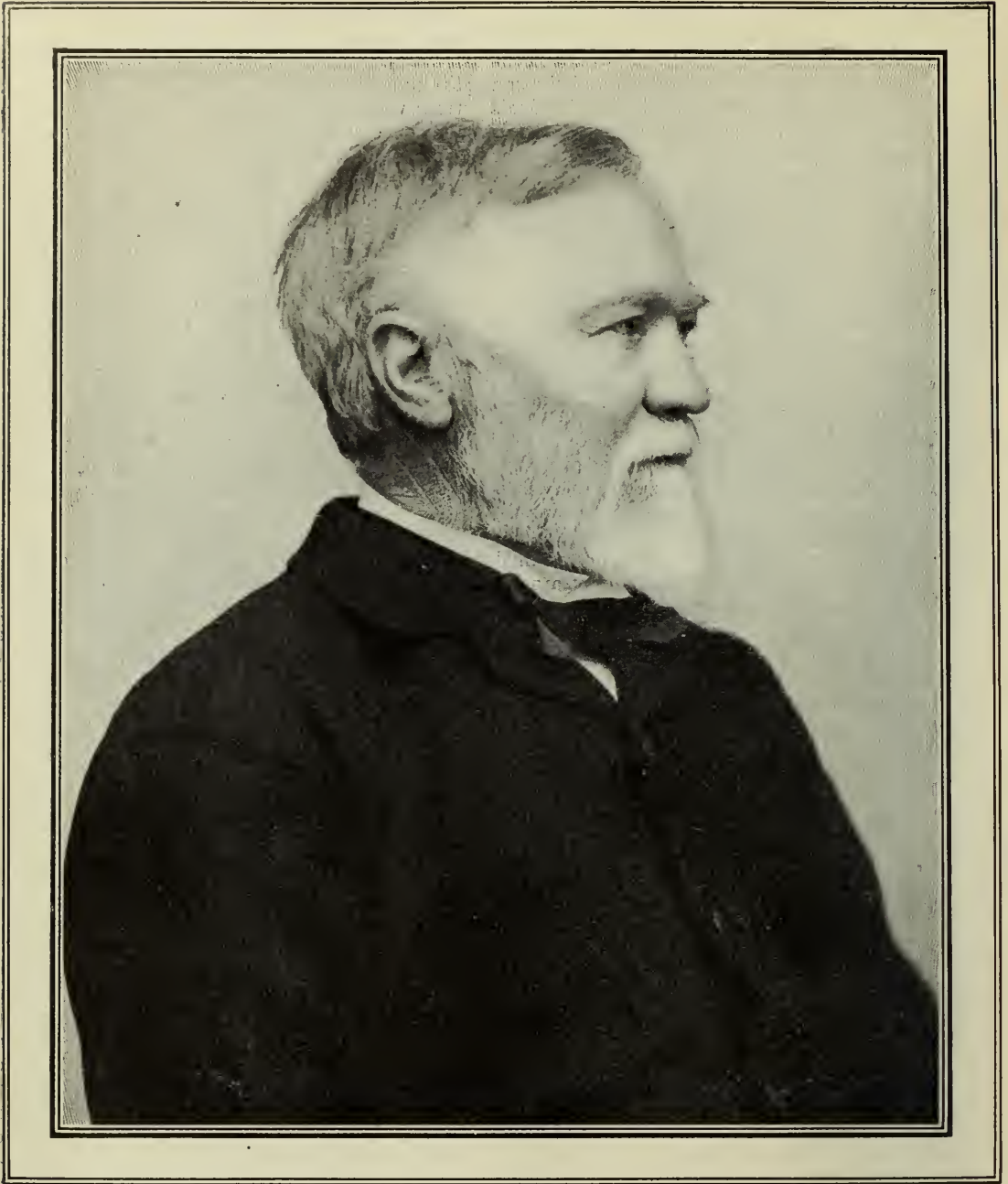
be put upon a broader basis than the individual union, and the political influence, as heretofore, must be exerted by a body which consists of all the unions. Moreover, the future success of the trade-unions will depend in large measure upon the success with which the unskilled workmen are organized.

The recent meeting of the Federation in San Francisco seemed to be sobered by a sense of responsibility, and it was marked by a stronger spirit of good-will and amity than ever before. In the oncoming struggle with antagonistic associations of manufacturers, the unionists may be overmatched in money and in expert skill, but they will not be outdone in enthusiasm and in compactness of organization. The threatened attacks from aggressive associations of employers may, therefore, not improbably mean the strengthening of the very spirit of unionism which is assailed and the growth of harmonious interaction among the unions.

LABOR'S OUTLOOK FOR 1905.

With the advent of the new year, therefore, the unions find themselves in a position that may be called serious, but certainly not perilous. The unions as a whole have survived the attacks and defeats of the past year with little or no loss of membership. In fact, it is claimed, upon the basis of the *per capita* tax of the Federation, that the membership has largely increased. The older and more completely organized unions have more than held their own during the recent depression, and even the newer unions, with their looser organization, have successfully held together despite the attacks of the employers' associations. The attempt to obtain federal legislation shortening the hours of labor upon government contracts and abolishing the use of the injunction in labor disputes met with defeat, but the whole body of unionists has been encouraged by the political successes in Massachusetts and Colorado, and in the coming year, the campaign for federal and State legislation favorable to labor, will be taken up with renewed vigor.

Upon the whole, the unions have suffered little from their opponents' attacks. Even where they have lost in members, they have gained in a sober determination to achieve their ends. Better organized, better financed, better disciplined, taught by the united opposition of associations of employers, the unions will enter the new year stronger than ever, ready to employ more energetically than before the tried policies which have enabled them to bring together in homogeneous groups a majority of the workers in most of the important industries of the country.



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MR. ANDREW CARNEGIE.

(Mr. Carnegie was for many years the foremost representative of the men who developed the industrial interests of the Pittsburg district; recently, he has been the most distinguished patron of Pittsburg's æsthetic and educational interests, while his benefactions to libraries and universities have made his name a household word throughout the United States and Great Britain. In 1903, Mr. Carnegie was made lord rector of the University of St. Andrews, Scotland. On November 25, 1904, he celebrated his sixty-seventh birthday.)

PITTSBURG,—A NEW GREAT CITY.

I.—THE CITY'S BASIC INDUSTRY,—STEEL.

BY WILLIAM LUCIEN SCAIFE.

AN eminent authority on architecture calls the Great Pyramid of Cheops "the most gigantic work in the world,—one which never has been, and perhaps never will be, surpassed." It is fifty feet higher than and occupies nearly three times the area of St. Peter's, Rome, the largest cathedral in the world, while its construction is said to have required the labor of one hundred thousand men during twenty years. It originally contained eighty-five million cubic feet of stone, weighing nearly seven million tons. The ancient Greeks rightly classed it among the seven wonders of the world, while Wendell Phillips, in the full intellectual light of modern New England, eloquently pointed to it as a proof of his favorite theme, "There is nothing new under the sun."

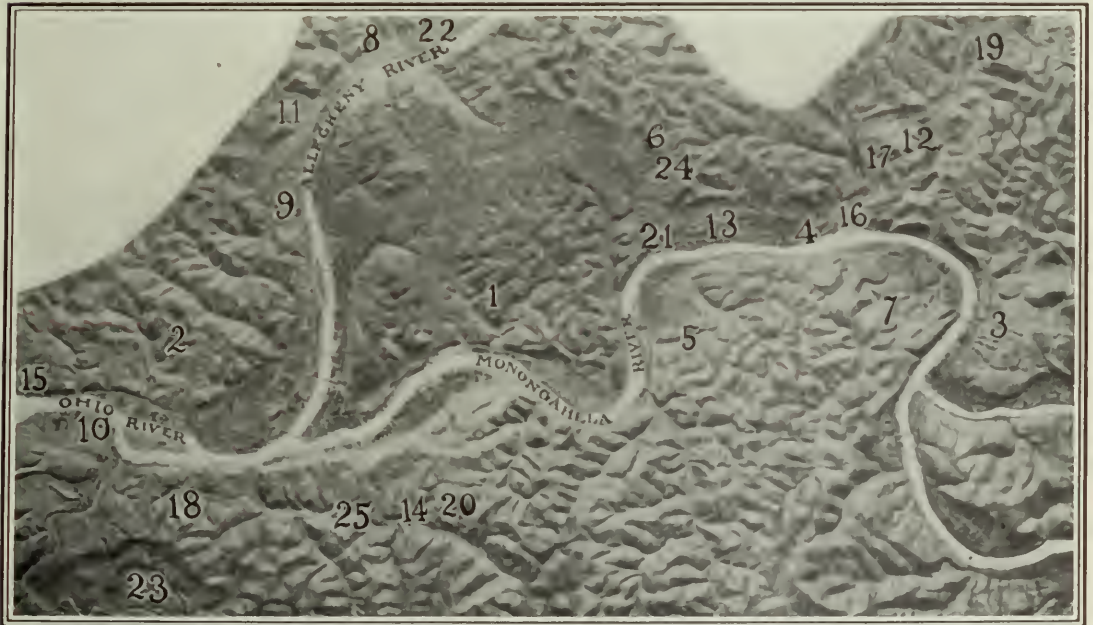
Nevertheless, Pittsburg's industries, modestly

nestling among gently rolling hills and beneath precipitous bluffs, transport many miles to and fro, raise and lower hundreds of feet, and transform *yearly* into the bones and sinews of civilization *the weight of a dozen Great Pyramids.*

The tyrant, Cheops, deprived his toiling slaves of even their religious rites and festivals, in order to hasten the completion of his monumental tomb.

The workers of Pittsburg produce the materials which add to the activity, comfort, and happiness of millions of people, while they themselves are able to enjoy, not only freedom, but many comforts and luxuries unknown to the royal tyrant himself.

Rightly understood, the Great Pyramid is a splendid monument to the material and social progress of the world during the last four thou-



A RELIEF MAP OF PITTSBURG, ALLEGHENY, AND VICINITY.

- (1, Pittsburg; 2, Allegheny; 3, McKeesport; 4, Braddock; 5, Homestead; 6, Wilkinsburg; 7, Duquesne; 8, Sharpsburg; 9, Millvale; 10, McKees Rocks; 11, Etna; 12, Wilmerding; 13, Rankin; 14, Knoxville; 15, Bellevue; 16, Turtle Creek; 17, East Pittsburg; 18, Sheraden; 19, Pitcairn; 20, Mount Oliver; 21, Swissvale; 22, Aspinwall; 23, Crafton; 24, Edgewood; 25, West Liberty. Map from data of the United States Geological Survey made in 1903, and constructed under the auspices of the Pittsburg Chamber of Commerce.)

sand years. Its history extends from the time when the laborer was a beast of burden to the present age of mechanical appliances, when the workers direct the forces of nature for the benefit of man.

This is the "new thing under the sun,"—the utilization of natural forces to replace the enslavement of men. It lies at the foundation of Pittsburg's supremacy in the manufacture of iron and steel, whose rapid growth we shall endeavor to describe.

The accompanying relief map of the Pittsburg district clearly shows the physical features of the greatest manufacturing center of the United States. There we find a rolling country, from seven hundred to thirteen hundred feet above the sea, embraced by two noble rivers, whose united waters form the broad Ohio, and carry merchandise to the Mississippi River, and to the Gulf of Mexico two thousand miles distant.

But the principal source of Pittsburg's wealth, as of its mechanical power, are the vast beds of undisturbed bituminous coal, cheaply mined and of the best quality for manufacturing purposes. The Connellsville coking coal belongs to this deposit. It is the most important factor in the success of the Pittsburg blast furnaces.

A competent authority estimates the still available coal in all of the deposits of this region at over twenty-nine billions of tons, a quantity which would fill thirty continuous lines of freight cars from the earth to the moon. The greatest steel works are on the rivers, which carry to them at very small cost the necessary fuel, and furnish the vast quantity of water re-

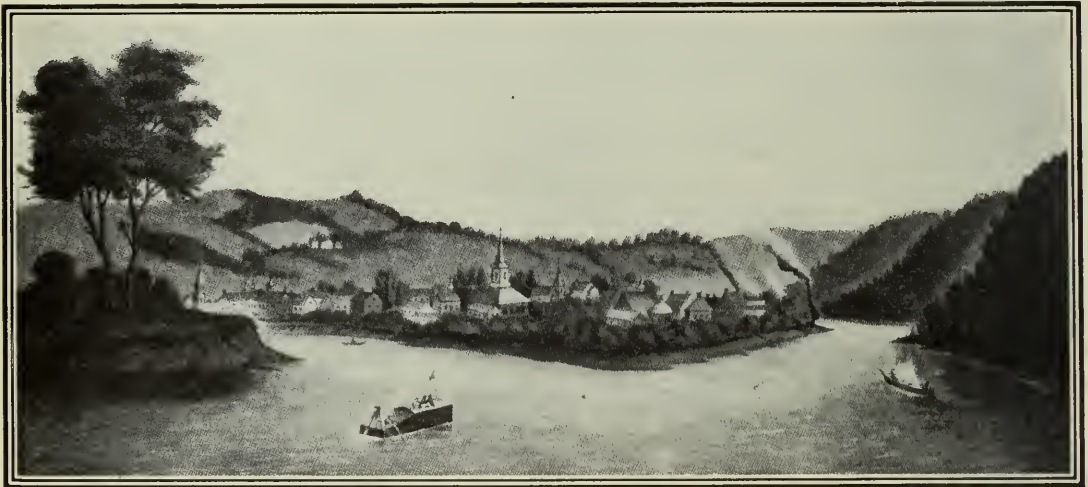
quired for their operations, it being estimated that the entire average discharge of the Monongahela River is used several times in its course past the steel mills and furnaces of the Pittsburg district.

These navigable rivers, a climate tempered by surrounding hills, a picturesque country and fertile soil, attracted the original Scotch-Irish settlers to make their homes in this region, a century and a half ago, in spite of the dangers from hostile Indians and the great hardships of frontier life. Their descendants, with numerous additions from England and the Continent, were the ancestors of the present conservative, energetic, and resourceful population, which has learned to exert powers and accomplish material results far beyond the reach of the ancient world.

Early in the nineteenth century, the enterprising people of Pittsburg began to take the coal from the adjacent hillsides along the Monongahela River, using it to furnish power for their growing manufactories, and shipping their surplus down the Ohio to Cincinnati and other interior ports.

Immediately after Fulton's invention of the steamboat, Pittsburg began to build steam craft of ever-increasing power, until she broke the world's record of a single day's shipment by water when, on June 24, 1903, 399,350 tons left her harbor. Had this freight been carried by rail, a train about one hundred and twenty-five miles in length would have been necessary.

The Pittsburg coal vein, celebrated for its wide extent, uniformly great thickness, and ex-



A VIEW OF THE CITY OF PITTSBURG IN 1817.—FROM AN OLD PRINT.

("The Forks of the Ohio" was taken by a force of French and Indians in 1754, and held under the name of Fort Duquesne until 1758, when the place was taken by General Forbes, and named Fort Pitt, or Pittsburg.)



A VIEW OF PITTSBURG FROM DUQUESNE HEIGHTS.

(The Monongahela River to the right; Allegheny River to the left, beyond covered bridge.)

cellence, was originally mined and transported entirely by human labor. The output was therefore small. Later, horses, mules, and engines were used for handling the coal, but the miners were compelled to excavate by hand, aided by blasting with gunpowder, the prevailing method of mining being known as the room-and-pillar system.

Recently, electricity has been successfully applied to undercutting the coal, to hoisting, transportation, and lighting, so that a single mine can ship over four thousand tons per day, and the whole district yields about thirty-six million tons yearly, or more than the entire output of France, and sufficient to supply about five pounds of coal to every man, woman, and child in the world.

Mechanical power multiplies laborers, and machines multiply brains. The entire working population of the United States could not do the work of the small Pittsburgh district, if unaided by power-driven machinery.

As a ton of coal costs less than a common laborer's daily wages, and yet can drive machines which do the physical work of three hundred skilled men, it is not hard to understand how the Carnegie Steel Company can pay its employees the highest wages in the world and yet sell steel beams, rails, and bars at a profit for less than two cents per pound.

In the distant regions around Lake Superior, where finely divided iron ores have been de-

posited in immense strata during past ages, they are cheaply excavated by great steam shovels, and dropped into railway cars, which are quickly drawn to the lake and there emptied by machinery into large steamers. The latter transport great cargoes of ore to ports on Lake Erie, where steam hoists and travelers, which seem inspired with conscious intelligence, quickly transfer the ore to trains waiting to carry it to Pittsburgh, or pile it in great heaps until it is needed.

At Pittsburgh it is distributed to the Duquesne, Edgar Thomson, Carrie, Lucy, Eliza, and other furnaces. These are the giant offspring of very feeble ancestors. Originally furnishing only a few tons of pig iron per day, by the severe labor of many men, they have grown to a hundred feet in height, and are fed night and day with ore, coke, and limestone by means of self-dumping cars traveling to the closed furnace tops, emptying their loads first on one distributing bell, then on another and larger bell, which spreads the iron-producing materials evenly around the furnace body.

Great and costly engines compress immense volumes of air to twice the atmospheric pressure. After blowing it through high stoves, which stand like sentinels beside the blast furnace and receive its heated gases, the hot-air blast enters the furnace through pipes, or tuyeres, at the base of the stack, and there heats so intensely the materials piled in it that the ore gives up its



MR. HENRY CLAY FRICK.

(Chairman of the Board of Managers of the Carnegie Steel Company, and head of the largest coke company in the world.)

oxygen, while the freed iron sinks to the bottom. At stated intervals the metal is drawn off and cooled as pig iron, or is carried in its molten state to great vessels called mixers, where it mingles with liquid iron from other furnaces. The mixed iron, whose uniformity is thereby increased, is emptied continuously into ladles on wheels, which are drawn by locomotives to the Bessemer converters, to be turned by them into steel.

When Andrew Carnegie and his partners started in business in Allegheny, over forty years ago, they possessed only a small forging shop, whose specialty was axles, made from scrap iron. A few years later, they built a small rolling mill in Pittsburg, where they rolled into bars wrought iron made in four puddling furnaces. During the Civil War these works paid handsome profits, so that a new plant, known as the Upper Union Iron Mills, was added, and afterward became one of the principal factors in the enrichment of Mr. Carnegie and his partners. For there they made the universal plates and the beams, channels, and other shapes so essential in bridge and building construction.

As the entire Pittsburg district at that time,—only a generation ago,—produced less pig iron in a year than the Duquesne furnaces alone now make in a month, and as all the pig iron needed for the Upper and Lower Union Mills had to be purchased at high prices, Kloran, Carnegie & Company built the first Lucy furnace, making it considerably larger than the Clinton, Eliza, and other blast furnaces already existing. A few years later, the second Lucy furnace was built. Both have been constantly improved up to the present time, with the result of greatly reducing labor and increasing the output by means of mechanical and metallurgical devices.

One of the greatest steps in advance was the employment of chemists to aid the blast-furnace manager, and subsequently to direct the operation of the Bessemer and open-hearth steel works, in conjunction with educated mechanical



MR. HENRY PHIPPS.

(Who holds, next to Mr. Carnegie, the largest interest in the United States Steel Corporation.)

engineers, whose importance also increased as mechanical appliances multiplied. To-day, the analyses and drawings of large steel works are numbered by thousands.

What has brought about the displacement of iron by steel in less than thirty years? Princi-

pally, the cheapness and great productivity of the processes of soft-steel manufacture and the small number of men required for a large output.

Moreover, one of the greatest aids to the introduction of the Bessemer process in the Pittsburgh district was the desire on the part of ironmasters to get rid of puddling, which was the cause of more labor troubles than all the other departments of their works. The puddler himself has been benefited by the change, so far as he has been able to exchange his former laborious task for the less strenuous steel processes.

Another important reason for the change to steel was the comparative excellence of the product and its adaptability to railway and engineering construction. In fact, our modern railway development and fireproof building construction would be impossible without Bessemer and open-hearth steel.

Let us see how the Edgar Thomson Steel Works, begun about thirty years ago by the two Carnegie brothers, Phipps, Kloman, McCandless, and a few others, were able to advance with gigantic strides, until to-day they can manufacture ten finished rails per minute, or enough in one year to encompass the earth, and in four years to make a double track around the globe.

This Bessemer plant was designed by Alexander L. Holley, who combined the knowledge of what England and America had done in this direction with native American ingenuity. More-



A BLAST FURNACE OF THE NATIONAL STEEL COMPANY.

over, owing to labor difficulties at the Cambria Steel Works, and with that sagacity in selecting his assistants which has been one of the principal causes of his success, Mr. Carnegie persuaded his partners to employ Capt. William R. Jones as superintendent of the Edgar Thomson Works. To Captain Jones and several men who came with him from Cambria is largely due the phenomenal success and early growth of the works at Braddock. Not a year passed without the introduction of new machinery and processes to increase the output and decrease the necessary human labor. Any device was considered antiquated when something better became known, and stories are related of thousands of dollars' worth of new and unused machinery being "scrapped" in favor of later and better devices.

Omitting the multitude of improvements in the past, we will briefly describe the present Edgar Thomson Steel Works, which, with their marvelous adaptation to the manufacture of pig iron and Bessemer steel, are capable of producing every year about a million and a half tons of pig iron, a million tons of ingots, and nine hundred thousand tons of steel rails.



THE LUCY FURNACES OF THE CARNEGIE STEEL COMPANY.

On the right bank of the

Monongahela River, not far from the scene of General Braddock's defeat by the Indians, a century and a half ago, stand eleven blast furnaces, successively built during the last twenty-four years. Near by are the boiler plants, the engine houses, and the pumping plants, which draw enough water from the river to supply a large town. Below the ground level are the bins for the Lake Superior ore, the Connellsville coke, and the Pennsylvania limestone. Although nearly

half a million tons of ore are piled up, the visitor is surprised to see the neatness which is everywhere maintained, and the few workmen necessary for feeding these insatiable monsters, which require about ten tons of material every minute, or thirty carloads every hour. At frequent intervals the furnaces are "tapped," and the molten iron quietly flows into large ladle-cars, which, when filled, are quickly drawn by locomotives to the great mixer and their contents poured into it. By simple hydraulic apparatus, the mixer, holding perhaps two hundred tons of steel, is turned down until a small portion of its contents is emptied into other ladle-cars, which are hauled by locomotives to the Bessemer converting plant. There four large suspended vessels successively, in about twenty minutes, change their contents



THE EDGAR THOMSON STEEL WORKS.

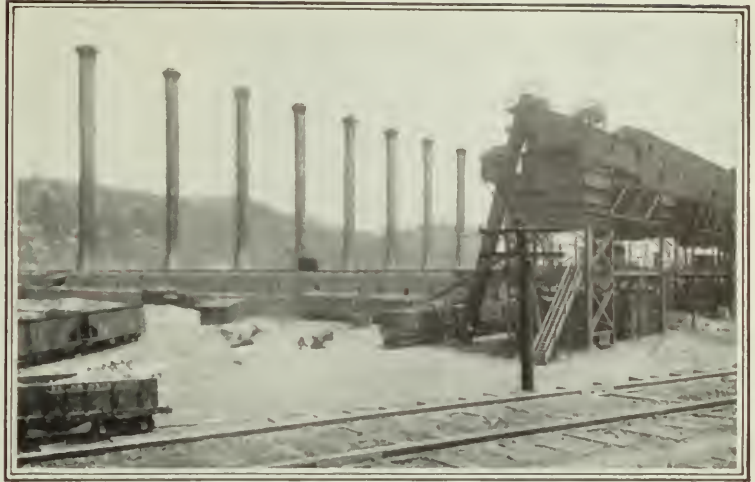
from pig iron to about fifteen tons of soft steel. In so doing they produce the most brilliant spectacle that metallurgy affords, one which led Professor Langley, when in charge of the Allegheny Observatory, to make accurate experiments, which showed that the sun's surface radiates fifty-three hundred times as much light as an equal area of metal in the Bessemer converter.

The bewildered visitor has to seek for some time before he discovers the few individuals who direct the work and manipulate the hydraulic apparatus that gently turns down the converters and pours their contents into great ladles, which, in turn, fill the ingot molds. The molds are hauled in little trains to an adjacent building, where, after the removal of the red-hot ingots, the latter are placed in pits. There they



THE JONES & LAUGHLIN STEEL WORKS AND FURNACES.

are kept hot by natural gas until required for the blooming mill. This is a large and powerful machine, with massive rolls, which receives the ingots from the heating pits, whence they are carried by electric machinery and an automatic cable road. After a number of powerful squeezes through the rolls, the ingot is reduced in section and increased in length. It then passes to a shear, which quickly cuts off any imperfection. After its heat has been raised in a gas furnace, the ingot is quickly brought by an ingenious automatic electric car to the rail rolls, which pass the lengthening bar of steel backward and forward until it has received the desired shape. Then it runs over rollers to the hot saws, which simultaneously cut both ends in a few seconds, producing a brilliant display of fireworks. In less time than it requires to describe the process, the rail has passed on through a cold rolling machine, which hardens its surface, after which the metal is allowed to cool for the first time since it was formed as pig iron in the blast furnace. Moreover, in straighten-



THE COKE OVENS OF THE JONES & LAUGHLIN STEEL COMPANY, AT HAZLEWOOD.
(The tall stacks carry off the fumes and unconsumed smoke.)

ing and drilling the ends of the cold rail, human labor is applied directly to it for the first time, all the other operations being done by machinery directed by a few scattered individuals.

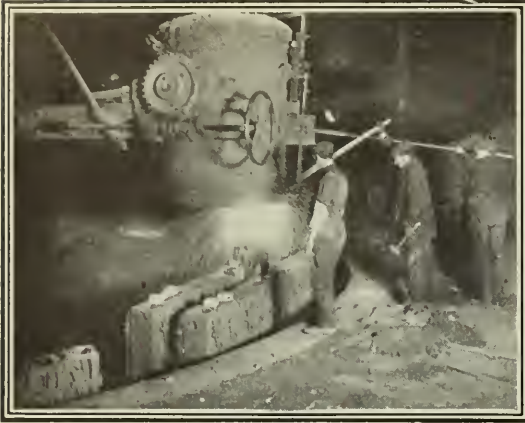
After inspection, electric cranes load the rails in cars standing outside the mill. Although they are sold to the railroads at less than a cent and a half per pound, yet some of the railroad companies have gone into the rail business in order to save the profit and reduce the price of rails in the market.



THE GREAT FURNACES OF THE DU'QUESNE PLANT.

The Carnegie Steel Company, now a part of the United States Steel Corporation, built a railroad to Lake Erie, some years ago, to save freight on their lake ores. As the conflict of freight interests led to the formation of the great Steel Corporation, so the competition in rail manufacture may cause the latter to purchase and build railroads in order to secure a market for its products. These great interests must ultimately come to some understanding. It seems likely that they will either consolidate, or that each will agree to remain in its own particular field.

The original Homestead Works were erected in 1880-81 by the Pittsburg



A BESSEMER CONVERTER.

Bessemer Steel Company, composed of several independent manufacturers of Pittsburg. It consisted of two small converters and a rail mill producing about two hundred tons of rails per day. Owing to a very troublesome strike and the depressed condition of the steel business, the plant was sold to the Carnegie Company, in 1883, at a very low price.

The speedy revival of business enabled the new owners to pay for the plant in a few years, and to add one new machine after another to meet the ever-increasing consumption of steel. At present, the 140-inch plate mill can make 500 tons of plates per day. The Bessemer converters yield 425,000 tons of Bessemer steel ingots, while the more recent basic open-hearth furnaces, fed and served by powerful machines, produce annually 1,500,000 tons of steel of various grades. Here is made the nickel-steel armor-plate, whose mighty ingots, exceeding at times one hundred tons, are handled with the greatest ease by electric cranes, and pressed into shape, like baker's dough, by a powerful hydraulic forging machine. This quietly operating mechanism, with its accurately regulated strokes, is capable of producing a pressure of 14,000 tons, or sufficient to lift 186,000 men, the population of a large city. At Homestead are also made the beams and channels which enter into modern buildings and engineering structures of every variety.

In the struggle for existence between the Bessemer and the basic open-hearth processes at these works, the open-hearth furnaces have, apparently, gained the preference, every effort having been made to increase their product and cheapen their cost of operation as compared with the Bessemer process, on account of the superior quality and uniformity of the open-hearth steel and the pos-

sibility of removing the objectionable phosphorus from pig irons used in its manufacture.

A portion of the necessary pig iron and spiegel is brought across the Monongahela River from the five great Carrie furnaces at Rankin, which are among the more recent purchases and constructions of the Carnegie Steel Company. They furnish about six hundred and seventy-two thousand tons per annum.

Additional pig iron is produced by the adjacent Duquesne Steel Works, erected in 1886-89 by some of the original competitors, who built the Pittsburg Bessemer Steel Company's Works at Homestead. They possessed at first a two-vessel Bessemer plant, a blooming mill, and a rail mill. Like the Homestead Works, they were purchased cheaply in the latter part of 1890 by the Carnegie Company, which thus obtained a valuable plant and extinguished a formidable rival at the same time. Since then, four blast furnaces, one hundred feet high, have been built, and at present the Duquesne Works hold the world-record for the greatest annual product of a small blast furnace. Rails are not now made there, but the works furnish annually 750,000 tons of pig iron, 600,000 tons of Bessemer steel ingots, and 820,000 tons of blooms, billets, bars, and slabs. The plant possesses a modern continuous mill, which not only reduces the ingot to the required section without stopping, but cuts the long traveling slabs to length by means of a flying shear, which operates as it travels.

At Duquesne, as at Edgar Thomson and at Homestead, the visitor is astonished at the absence of dirt and obstructions, at the intense but orderly activity everywhere, and at the small number of men who keep in motion the endless stream of material,—about five tons being required every minute for the blast furnaces alone.

Many of the ingenious contrivances in the various works were designed by men selected and developed by Mr. Carnegie and his partners. They were generally rewarded by handsome presents in addition to their salaries, and by rapid advancement to positions of trust. Some of them, with others who had shown exceptional ability in the business, received small interests in the Carnegie Company, to be paid out of the profits. When the billion-dollar United States Steel Corporation was formed by purchasing plants, apparently, on a basis of the capitalization of maximum profits, these little interests blossomed into millions, and men who had started at the bottom of fortune's ladder were suddenly thrown to the top. Much of this suddenly acquired wealth has gone into palatial residences, works of art, and great business

buildings and enterprises, not only in Pittsburg, but in various parts of the United States.

For a time it seemed as if the chief business of the great corporation was to be carried on at the New York Stock Exchange and the Waldorf-Astoria; but hard times and shrunken values have checked this tendency, and have partly restored to Pittsburg its well-deserved supremacy in the steel consolidation.

When the central management is completely transferred to industrious Pittsburg, and when the progressive, non-speculative, non-bureaucratic spirit of the old Carnegie Company animates the entire corporation, we may hope to see the latter become one of the most prosperous and reliable institutions of the country.

The Carnegie Technical Schools, recently founded in Pittsburg, will doubtless play an important part in the future success of this greatest of all manufacturing aggregations, as well as in the industrial and educational development of Pittsburg.

The speculative cyclone which, a few years ago, swept into a common control most of the large iron and steel works of the United States, left one great independent rival in Pittsburg,—the Jones & Laughlin Steel Company. Founded, half a century ago, as the American Iron Works, at a time when there were but few rolling mills and no blast furnaces in Allegheny County, these plants, under the direction of the late B. F. Jones and his partners, have grown rapidly in wealth and productive capacity. At present, the

company is successfully operating its extensive Bessemer and open-hearth steel plants, cold rolling mills, structural works, and its own blast furnaces on the banks of the Monongahela River. There can be seen barges laden with coal from its own mines, which supply not only the mills, but the coke ovens along the river and adjacent to the blast furnaces.

While the Carnegie Steel Company is perfecting a method of removing moisture from compressed air for blast furnaces, which promises to rival the hot-blast stoves in the saving of fuel and the increase of output, the Jones & Laughlin Company is testing a new continuous open-hearth process, which may possibly hasten the final extinction of that hitherto remarkable and indispensable mammoth of steel manufacture,—the Bessemer converter.

Space does not permit detailed reference to other important steel and iron works of the Pittsburg district: the Crucible Steel Company of America, which recently built the Clairton plant of blast and open-hearth furnaces and sold them to the United States Steel Corporation; the celebrated tube works; the steel-car, wire-fence, nail, and sheet works, which have added their quota to the growth and wealth of the Steel City, until now,—the business center of six hundred thousand inhabitants,—she furnishes about one-third of all the steel and over one-half of all the coke production of the United States.

Nor can we describe the multitude of uses



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MILLIONS OF BUSHELS OF COAL TIED UP ON THE MONONGAHELA RIVER.

(Awaiting a freshet to enable shipment to New Orleans. The business section of Pittsburg lies to the left.)

which she makes of the three hundred and fifty million cubic feet of natural gas annually consumed by her industries and homes.

In a recent very able and sympathetic address, on Founder's Day, at the Carnegie Institute, Mr. John Morley said, in substance, that "ideas are greater than iron and steel works and open-hearth furnaces." With due allowance for his probable reference to the truth, that living ideas are in general more potent than material things, we think that the eminent English statesman and author, unlike his countryman, Herbert Spencer, when visiting Pittsburg, did not fully appreciate the great intellectual equipment required for, and the influence exerted by, her industrial masterpieces.

Given a broad-minded employer, with ability to appreciate and utilize mechanical genius, to successfully organize the labor of others, and to foresee and supply men's wants,—a wide business experience will lead him to realize the necessity for the elevation and enlightenment of the work-

ers, the unlimited expansion of trade, and for the ultimate establishment of industrial and international peace.

These are among the leading ideals of the world to-day; and Pittsburg's ever-increasing quota of ideas, men, and means will have much to do with their realization, in spite of, or rather because of, the creation and operation of her unequalled mills and furnaces.

When, in the near future, there is established that international Temple of Peace,—which is one of the noblest results of a Pittsburger's Gospel of Wealth,—may its Parliament of Man promulgate and maintain, with the united forces of civilization, the Magna Charta of individual and national duties, whose accepted principles are increasing with the growth of commerce and industry, the association of labor and capital, the peaceful rivalry of nations, and especially with all those moral and educational influences which foster in men a strong sense of justice and of social responsibility.

II.—PITTSBURG AS AN INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL CENTER.

BY J. E. MCKIRDY.

NINETY million tons of freight handled annually on the railroads and rivers of the Pittsburg district tell in startling figures the story of an industrial empire's marvelous size and growth. Not alone iron and steel and coal and coke, but innumerable other manufactured articles, in which the remarkable city at the headwaters of the Ohio has taken first rank in the ceaseless progress of the commercial world, combine to make this surprising total.

Pittsburg has for many years justly enjoyed the honor of being "The Workshop of the World," but few outside of the boundaries of Allegheny County have any conception that this meant anything beyond the mere fact that she made enormous quantities of iron and steel, mined appalling quantities of coal, and produced a great deal of smoke and soot, and boasted much in doing it. The industrial revolution, which had its beginning in the early hours of the new century in mergers and combinations spreading throughout almost every branch of manufacturing, brought about an awakening among the people of the world. Pittsburg stood forth as a power of no mean moment, industrially and financially.

The existence of cheap fuel in the shape of exhaustless beds of finest coal and of labor of

the highest skill have brought about manufacturing economies and possibilities which have enabled the building in Pittsburg of industrial establishments, other than those directly of iron and steel, which lead the world. Pittsburg manufacturers have parted with their birth-rights to enable the combination of industries, and the people of the entire country have become partners in the big mill enterprises. The great wealth released has sought and is seeking new fields of investment, which promise a future of exceptional brightness to Pittsburg. There are no idlers and no idle capital in the Pittsburg district.

Census figures as to population do not tell the true story of Pittsburg's splendid growth. The city's apparent population is 359,250 people. A municipality of 675,000 souls more truly pictures its size. Growth of business demanding expansion of mill facilities has forced many plants out beyond the confines of the city proper, where sufficiently large sites are available. The result is that year by year manufacturing centers of no mean size have clustered about the old boundaries until one compact city is virtually the result. That is why strangers are surprised to find that census figures do not tell the whole story of Pittsburg's economic development.



A VIEW OF PITTSBURG'S SKY-LINE, AS SEEN FROM THE SOUTH SIDE.
(The Monongahela River and the Smithfield Street Bridge in the foreground.)

FINANCIAL STRENGTH SHOWN BY THE CITY'S BANKS.

The growth is better illustrated in the splendid banking progress and in the city's building. Business trepidation, naturally severe in an industrial center during the past year, has held in check the growth which in previous years was surprising. In 1890, Pittsburg had but forty-seven banking institutions, including national and State banks and trust companies, with a total capital of \$15,213,750, deposits of \$71,302,567, and total resources of \$97,151,316. In November, 1902, the city possessed eighty-three similar institutions, with \$40,599,625 of capital, \$259,776,378 of deposits, and \$361,990,911 in total resources, while the dividends of the year were \$3,093,356.

In the year following, the banking growth was something which startled even the bankers themselves. There became an epidemic of new trust companies and of capital inflation, which spread the fear that strength might be sacrificed in the interest of expansion more ambitious than the necessities of the community warranted. In November, 1903, the number of banks had increased to ninety-five, the capital had climbed from \$12,590,597 to \$53,190,222, the surplus had risen from \$29,679,887 to \$69,471,849, and deposits had grown to \$261,165,357, while the

total resources had increased from \$52,262,250 to a grand total of \$414,253,161, and annual dividends had become \$4,880,052.

The total number of banks in Allegheny County increased between November, 1902, and November, 1903, from one hundred and forty-two to one hundred and seventy-four, with an increase in capital of \$15,065,972 to \$63,586,322; the surplus was \$75,638,244, an increase of \$35,630,957; deposits had grown from \$1,104,311 to \$301,870,518, while the total resources had gone up from \$58,689,793 to a total of \$473,493,980. This gives a correct idea of the true financial strength of Pittsburg. Although Allegheny County contains three cities, that one grand community is virtually Pittsburg as the world should know it. Bank clearings for 1903 illustrate the titanic strides taken, the figures of 1890, amounting to \$786,156,221, having grown to \$2,356,875,350.

Much of the money secured by Pittsburgers through the sale of their plants to the various combinations has been reinvested in banking institutions, while a large part has found its way into real estate in the business section. Former steel manufacturers now control the downtown business section, two former partners in the Carnegie Steel Company having invested more than \$20,000,000 in real estate and buildings, H. C. Frick alone having expended \$11,000,000, se-

cured through the enhancement of his wealth by combination.

RECENT GROWTH IN BUILDING.

Ten years ago, or in 1894, only 1,365 permits for new buildings, with a total valuation of \$4,123,439, were issued by the city. In 1900, the valuation of buildings being erected had grown to \$11,703,613; while in 1901, after so many Pittsburgers were able to retire from the steel business because of the formation of combinations, the valuation of new structures had leaped to \$19,567,474. This large increase in the value of new buildings was caused by the construction of large office buildings of the skyscraper type. There was a lull in valuations in 1902 to \$16,901,350; but in 1903 the figures had mounted to \$19,050,275, despite the fact that labor disturbances and congestion in structural steel mills prevented the full development of building expansion. The estimate for 1904, exclusive of December, is \$12,657,335. Allegheny's figures will increase the total \$2,250,000. Although Pittsburg stood eleventh in population in 1903, its splendid prosperity enabled it to reach the fourth place in building operations, preceded only by New York, Chicago, and Boston.

RECORD FIGURES IN FREIGHT TONNAGE.

Tonnage figures of Pittsburg are startling in comparison with those of cities many times more extensive. It is estimated that during 1903 the railroads carried into and out of the Pittsburg district 79,750,000 tons of freight, necessitating the use of more than 2,500,000 cars. In the same time, there were hauled out over the Monongahela, Allegheny, and Ohio rivers 10,000,000 tons more, principally coal, making the total tonnage of the district for the year practically 90,000,000 tons. During 1904 these figures will not have been equaled because of the business depression, although they are not considered exceptional, inasmuch as Pittsburg's tonnage in 1902 was 86,636,680 tons. One of the great engineering projects now contemplated, and upon which much preliminary work in the way of surveys and securing necessary legislation has been done, is the Lake Erie and Ohio River Ship Canal, which is to be a fifteen-foot-deep waterway to connect Pittsburg with Lake Erie *via* the Ohio, Beaver, and Mahoning rivers. This great work will cost thirty-three million dollars, and will when completed make Pittsburg the greatest inland city in the country. For its great iron and steel manufactories will be able to get the raw iron ore from the Lake Superior mines much cheaper than at present, while the coal and coke of the Pittsburg district will be

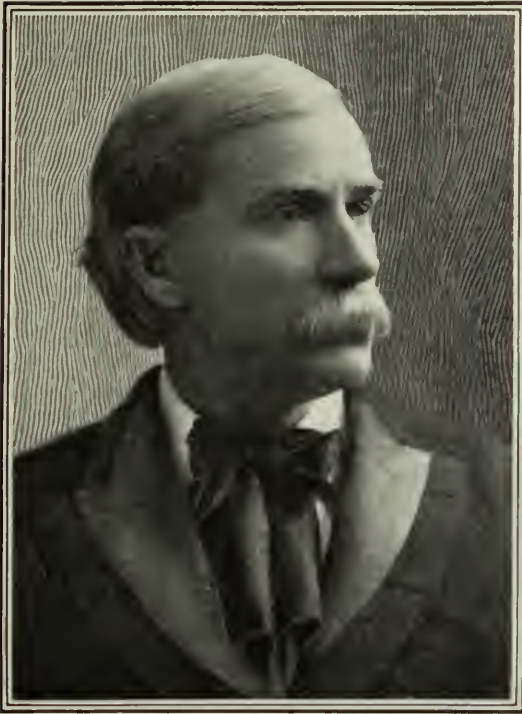
sent to the lake ports much cheaper than is the case now.

Pittsburg holds the record for a single day's water shipment, as, on June 24, 1903, coal to the amount of 399,350 tons was towed out over the Ohio for markets along the lower Mississippi. These totals are not surprising when it is known that shipments are controlled by freshets, upon which the coal is towed out to market periodically; but when they are compared with figures from such cities as London and New York, they furnish some food for thought. In 1902, it was estimated that the tonnage of London was 17,564,110 tons, and that of New York 17,398,000 tons. Antwerp received and sent out a total of 16,721,000 tons, while Hamburg's total was only 15,853,490; that of Hongkong, 14,724,270, and Liverpool, the great export center of England, had but 13,157,720 tons. The total tonnage of these six leading ocean ports was just 95,418,590 tons, compared with Pittsburg's total of 86,636,680 tons. Official figures show a total river and rail coal movement for the Pittsburg district in 1902 of 28,898,000 tons, while the transport of iron ore was very heavy, and shipments of coke amounted to 14,138,740 tons.

THE PETROLEUM INTEREST.

Pittsburg retains the supremacy of the United States in petroleum and natural gas, despite the fact that the discoveries of oil were made near it over forty-five years ago. It was oil which gave Andrew Carnegie the nucleus of the great fortune he later acquired in the steel business. Mr. Carnegie was then a young man, the superintendent of the Pittsburg division of the Pennsylvania Railroad. It was shortly after the Drake well had been discovered in what is still known as "the oil country" of Pennsylvania. He was induced to borrow \$3,500 to take a share in a company which was prospecting north of Pittsburg. Mr. Carnegie gave his note for the amount, and left in May for a trip to Europe with some young comrades. In November, he returned to find that his investment had increased 1,200 per cent., and it was not long afterward that he was persuaded to acquire a substantial interest in the Kloman forge, which became the nucleus of the company which forty years afterward earned forty million dollars a year.

At that time the product of the Northern fields was floated down the Allegheny River to Pittsburg, and a great refining industry flourished until combination brought about the introduction of pipe lines to the seaboard to secure economies of transportation. Charles Lockhart, one of the multi-millionaire capitalists of Pitts-



COL. JAMES M. GUFFEY.

(The largest independent oil-producer in the world.)

burg, was then one of the powers in the petroleum trade, and was one of the active associates of John D. Rockefeller in the formation of the great oil producing and refining corporation. Refining of petroleum in Pittsburg dwindled to comparative insignificance, although there are still some considerable operations within the city. Pittsburg, however, is adjacent to rich oil-producing territory, and, by reason of this and the enormous territorial possessions of its capitalists, it holds its rank as the world's oil center.

It is estimated that the annual production of petroleum in Pittsburg district territory is about 30,000,000 barrels, of a present value of \$50,000,000. This is interesting in comparison with the world's production of only 125,909,900 barrels in 1902, of which the United States produced 67,775,500 barrels and Russia 52,320,000 barrels. Operations in every portion of the United States are conducted from Pittsburg by Pittsburg capitalists. It was Col. James M. Guffey, an intrepid independent producer, who secured the record-breaking well in the McDonald field, and who, "wildcatting" far in advance of developments, discovered the celebrated Lucas well in the Beaumont pool of Texas. Colonel Guffey had hundreds of thousands of acres under lease.

built large refineries at Port Arthur, Texas, and equipped steamship fleets for the distribution of the product throughout the world. He has also been the pioneer in Indian Territory, Kansas, and Louisiana.

SUPREMACY IN NATURAL GAS.

George Westinghouse, the eminent engineer and capitalist, deserves the credit for making possible the utilization of natural gas as a fuel in Pittsburg at a time when his friends doubted the success of his experiments. He devised the plan for piping the gas long distances, and it was due to his efforts that many of the obstacles in the way of the natural gas producer of that day were removed. It was twenty-five years ago that natural gas was discovered in commercial quantities, and it was five years later before effective plans for its control were perfected. It was immediately introduced into the mills and dwellings of Pittsburg because of its cheapness and cleanliness. It brought Pittsburg to the attention of the world as a center of cheap fuel. Glass factories flourished as they never have since. Lavish use of the new fuel soon exhausted the gas fields adjacent to Pittsburg, the producers of petroleum assisting in the waste in their anxiety to obtain a quicker and better return from the oil. Failing supply increased the rates and decreased the mill consumption, but new fields in the Southwest were sought, and



DRILLING A GAS WELL.

(Showing the apparatus for drilling for oil and natural gas in the great fields tributary to Pittsburg.)

costly pipe lines were laid into the mountains of West Virginia, to keep the supply in the Pittsburg district adequate to the needs.

Natural gas became a luxury, but its domestic consumption increased at a remarkable rate each year. Large manufacturers, impressed with the importance of the fuel, sought their own fields with their own companies, and some of these ventures have grown to such size that one large steel company now has 100,000 acres of producing gas land under lease easily accessible to Pittsburg, has 130 producing wells, 300 miles of pipe line, and an annual supply of 11,000,000,000 cubic feet of gas. The discovery of natural gas in large quantities in districts other than Pittsburg attracted many of the glass factories away from what had been the recognized glass center, as the lack of demand in sparsely settled territory and the enormous sup-

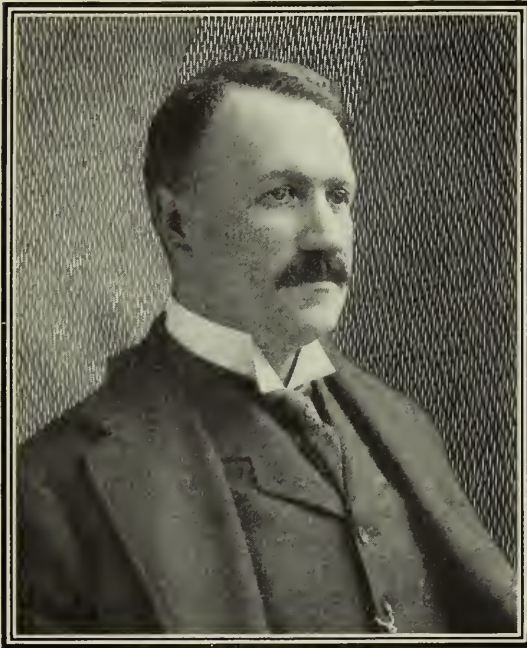
sumed daily in dwellings throughout western Pennsylvania. It is estimated that the daily consumption of natural gas in the Pittsburg district in 1903 was 350,000,000 cubic feet, 130,000 families being supplied from 2,000 wells by companies having an aggregate capital of \$60,000,000. Over 750,000 acres of gas lands are held under lease, one company having over 370,000 acres, with a daily production of over 800,000,000 cubic feet and a daily consumption of 200,000,000 cubic feet, while another large company, with 300,000 acres under lease, has a yearly consumption of nearly 32,000,000,000 cubic feet among 60,000 customers. In the Pittsburg district alone, the pipe lines aggregate in length 4,000 miles, and over 500 new wells are drilled each year to maintain the supply.

It was natural, in view of the supremacy in petroleum and natural gas, that Pittsburg should lead the world in the manufacture of oil-well supplies. Apparatus for the drilling of wells is not only sent to every oil and gas field in the United States, but to every foreign country in which crude oil has been discovered. The manufacture of great steel storage tanks for oil and gas became an important industry in Pittsburg, and this product is now sent to all parts of the world.

RAILROAD EQUIPMENT.

It was in the late sixties that Mr. Westinghouse was the occupant of a train wrecked near Schenectady, and the thought of a preventive and the fortunate experiments at Mont Cenis tunnel with compressed air resulted in the invention of the air brake in 1868. It is related that Mr. Westinghouse sought assistance from the late Commodore Vanderbilt, but that the millionaire railroad owner rejected him, only to regret his lack of wisdom not long afterward. Mr. Westinghouse has repeatedly laughed at what he considers a good story, but unfortunately untrue, as the reputed Vanderbilt was no other than a superintendent of the New York Central at Schenectady, who could see no good in the invention, until long afterward he discovered that Pennsylvania officials who assisted Mr. Westinghouse were becoming wealthy.

Mr. Westinghouse found a sympathetic purse in Pittsburg, and from the small plant with 100 employees in 1869 has grown a works with 3,000 operatives and producing annually brakes to the value of \$8,453,000. It was from that modest start that the present Westinghouse interests grew, with their \$100,000,000 capital, \$75,000,000 annual output of material, and 30,000 skilled employees. It was while Mr. Westinghouse was in Europe, in 1884, in the interest of his air



MR. FRANCIS L. ROBBINS.

(President of the Pittsburg Coal Company, the largest producer of coal in the world.)

plies made low prices imperative. These, with other inducements, made profitable the change of the base of operations.

Some of these plants have returned to the Pittsburg district, owing to the exhaustion of supplies in the West, and it is estimated that at present one thousand mills and factories in the Pittsburg district are using the splendid fuel. Enormous quantities, however, are being con-

brake that he learned of patents for the alternating system of electrical distribution, and from that grew in two years a plant with 200 employees in Allegheny, which has since expanded into a system of works employing 12,000 trained working people. A plant with 5,000 employees has been established in England, and electrical apparatus is manufactured in France, Germany, and Russia in plants controlled from Pittsburg.

The value of electrical apparatus manufactured in the Pittsburg district yearly is \$10,000,000, compared with \$136,475,000 for the entire United States. It was a Pittsburg engineer who developed the principle of the rotary magnetic field, and it was largely a result of Mr. Westinghouse's genius that Niagara Falls was harnessed. Perfection of electrical apparatus led naturally to perfection in railway-signaling equipment, and the largest works in the world, in the Pittsburg district, annually produce 40,000 tons of equipment, valued at \$2,133,000. Railway travel has been protected as a result to a degree realized by few. Steam turbines and steam engines of the largest type have followed the marvelous development of the interests which have arisen from the invention of the air brake.

OTHER STEEL MANUFACTURES.

Some years ago, at a banquet in Pittsburg, Mr. Carnegie expressed regret that he and other manufacturers were compelled to go elsewhere than in Pittsburg to purchase the costly blast furnaces and mill engines bought in such large quantities. The idea took root, and two of the largest plants for the manufacture of stationary engines of the largest and most modern type have been perfected. One of the most important plants for the manufacture of car couplings in the United States is located in Pittsburg, and the manufacture of railway steel springs is controlled from Pittsburg.

One of the most recent industries, and one of the most striking, is that for the manufacture of steel cars. It is only a few years ago that Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Charles M. Schwab conceived the car as a new avenue for the consumption of steel, and they led the way by introducing the big steel hopper in the coal and iron-ore carrying trade. This industry has since grown to such an extent that it now employs 11,000 men in the construction of 40,000 cars a year, valued at \$40,000,000. In producing these, 500,000 tons of steel plates are consumed annually. The manufacture of locomotives and steel and iron car wheels is also an important industry in Pittsburg.

In the manufacture of fireproof buildings, Pittsburg leads the world, and in the production



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MR. GEORGE WESTINGHOUSE.

(The inventor of the air brake, and prominent in the manufacture of steam and electrical machinery.)

of fireproofing material alone \$15,000,000 of capital is invested, with an annual output of 1,000,000 tons. The Pittsburg district is the leading manufacturer of sewer pipe in the United States. In the manufacture of underground cables for telephone and telegraph lines, Pittsburg leads the country, with an annual output of \$12,000,000, and the largest insulating-varnish works in the world is located there. Pittsburg stands first in the size and extent of its gear-cutting, and is one of the nation's leading manufacturers of sanitary enameled ware.

GLASS AND POTTERY WORKS.

Pittsburg is still an important center for the manufacture of glass of all kinds, although cheaper gas and land bonuses have induced the removal of many plants elsewhere. It is estimated that the value of glass products in the United States in 1902 was \$31,427,203, and of this the Pittsburg district produced \$14,276,228. In plate glass, Pittsburg easily leads the world, the annual consumption of domestic glass being 24,000,000 square feet. The manufacture of plate glass was introduced into Pittsburg by the late Capt. J. B. Ford, and at that time it sold for \$2.40 per square foot. Economies and keen competition have reduced the price to but 28 cents per foot. The industry founded by Captain Ford has so expanded that the capacity of the factories



GLASS-BLOWING.

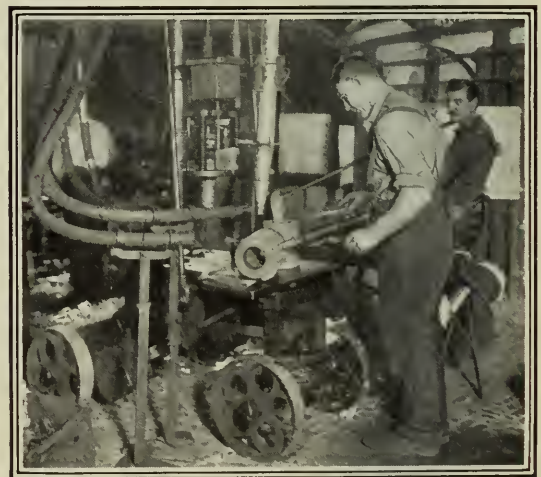
of one Pittsburg company is 25,000,000 square feet, although last year 18,000,000 square feet only were manufactured. The independent manufacturers are now being welded together, and their annual output is from 17,000,000 to 18,000,000 square feet.

In the manufacture of tableware, bottles, tumblers, and similar products, 1,529 pots, or furnaces, are operated out of a total of 2,026, while 448 pots operated in other States are controlled in Pittsburg. In window glass, 900 pots are operated in addition to continuous tanks. It is estimated that in 1902 Pittsburg manufactured window glass to the value of \$5,279,000, compared with a total of \$7,918,000 for the balance of the United States. The city ships every year approximately 2,000,000 boxes of window glass, equal to 90,000,000 square feet, or 62,000 tons, about 40 per cent. of the country's output. The district annually produces 70,000 tons of pressed ware, and its potteries are the largest and finest of their kind in the world. Pittsburg still remains supreme with respect to the manufacture of lamp chimneys, the value of the product being placed at \$2,500,000. Lamp chimneys made in Pittsburg in one year, if placed end to end, would stretch halfway around the world, while the bottles made there during the season, if laid end to end, would cover a distance of 16,000 miles.

Twenty years ago, England furnished practically all of the high-grade silica brick and fire brick used in the glass and steel furnaces of the United States; but since the discovery of exceptionally fine clay beds in the Allegheny Mountains by eager and tireless capital, domination of the American market has been wrested from the English and placed in the hands of Pittsburgers. Samuel P. Harbison has been active and instrumental in the development of this important industry now so peculiar to Pittsburg. The country's daily production of the finest grade of silica brick is 250,000, and of this Pittsburg produces 200,000. The country's daily production of high-grade fire brick for blast-furnace, soaking-pit, and puddling-furnace linings is 3,500,000, and of this total Pittsburg produces 2,000,000, with a value of \$50,000. Fine clay deposits in Ohio and Kentucky are owned in Pittsburg, and operated from there for the manufacture of high-grade bricks necessary in steel manufacture. Until ten years ago, glass manufacturers persisted in using foreign bricks, but Pittsburgers now produce all that are necessary, and in addition, export them to every State in the Union, to Cuba, Mexico, South America, and even to China.

VARIED INDUSTRIES.

Pittsburg continues to occupy a prominent place in the production of manufactured copper, the estimated annual output being about 6,000,000 pounds. Capitalists of Pittsburg have for years been large owners of Michigan, and later of Montana and other Western, copper properties, and until recently they have directed the raw material toward Pittsburg. The presence of one of the largest electrical-apparatus build-



MOLDING GLASS FOR TABLEWARE.

ing concerns in the country affords a ready market.

Strange as it may seem, Pittsburg possesses the largest cork-manufacturing plant in the United States, or the world, and it also controls the cork forests of Spain and Portugal. One-sixth of the entire exports of Spain and Portugal are taken by one Pittsburg firm, which owns large forests in those countries, and from 5,000 tons of cork bark imported annually 2,500 tons of manufactured cork articles are produced by the 1,200 employees, most of whom are women. This output is valued at \$2,500,000. Corks for bottles, life-preservers, mats, shoes, soles, and a hundred other manufactured articles consuming



BLOWING THE BALL IS THE MANUFACTURE OF WINDOW GLASS.

every particle of the cork, are made in large quantities and sent to every portion of the country.

Pittsburg once practically stood at the head of the oak harness leather industry, but the destruction of the forests of western Pennsylvania has caused the removal of the trade to other sections. Over 250 cars of cattle are received into Pittsburg daily, however, and are consumed or sent East. The leather trade still continues a feature. The daily output of eight tanneries is 2,875 hides, valued at \$3,413,400. The district is one of the largest lumber-consuming and distributing centers in the United States, the estimated annual consumption being 1,000,000,000 feet, valued at \$25,000,000. It is estimated that 25,000 cars of perishable fruits and



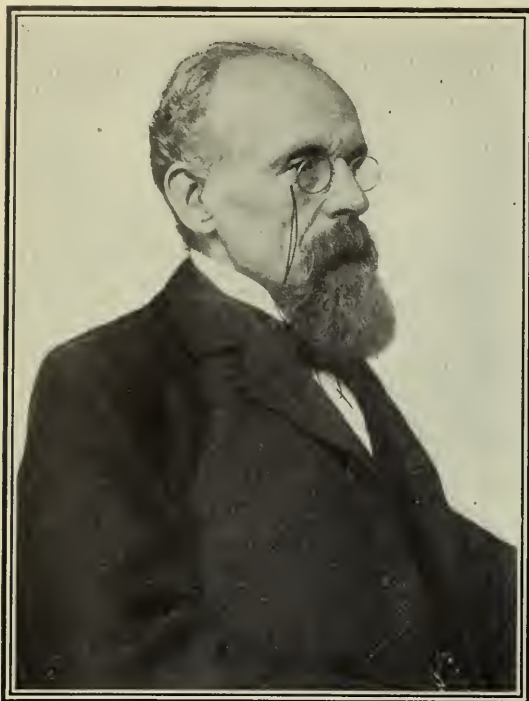
MR. H. J. HEINZ.

(Head of the great pickling and preserving works at Allegheny.)

produce are received yearly, the value exceeding \$15,000,000. Pittsburg easily leads all other cities in the manufacture of white and red lead. At least 500 carloads are shipped from the city every year, the value of the product being from \$110 to \$125 per ton.

The largest pickling and preserving works in the world is located in Allegheny. It employs 2,800 persons constantly, and consumes material which calls for the labor 20,000 people in caring for the crops used entirely by one firm. The company operates 9 factories, employs 400 traveling salesmen from all parts of the world, and uses the products of 18,000 acres of vegetable farms. The main factory covers 13 acres, the capital invested amounting to \$3,475,000, and the product being valued at \$4,650,000. The one company operates its own glass factory, and makes all of its own bottles and jars.

Pittsburg is so accustomed to figures of large tonnage that many are surprised at the fact that the city is renowned throughout the world for the perfection of its astronomical instruments. These are in every modern observatory of the



PROF. JOHN A. BRASHEAR.

(The noted scientist and manufacturer of lenses and optical goods.)

world, and during the Spanish-American war, Pittsburg range-finders were used to aim more correctly Pittsburg projectiles. There was recently made in the astronomical laboratory of Prof. John A. Brashear the largest perfect plane in existence. It is thirty inches in diameter, and no part of the surface varies one-millionth of an inch from a true plane. The delicacy and perfection of its instruments have resulted in many important discoveries during the past decade or more.

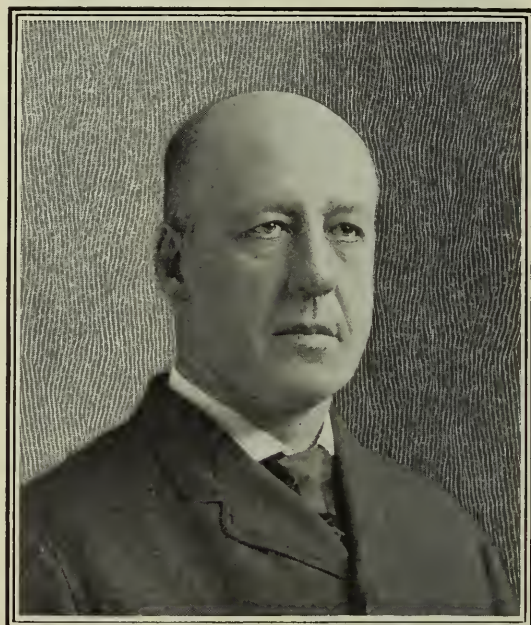
There are in all in the Pittsburg district 5,000 manufacturing plants, many of them unusually large. These give employment to 250,000 persons, and the value of the product they make in one year is estimated at \$450,000,000. The capital invested is about \$2,000,000,000.

For many years, Pittsburg devoted itself almost exclusively to the manufacture of iron and steel tonnage, but since the day of mergers the tendency has been more and more to expand in the direction of highly finished articles. The aim has been to produce quality and perfection of grades without any necessary sacrifice of tonnage. Capital formerly employed in the manufacture of rough steel products is now seeking investment

along machinery lines, and the conviction is that during the next decade the development of Pittsburg along new and varied lines of manufacture will be startling.

PITTSBURG AS A RAILROAD CENTER.

The enormous tonnage offered the railroads by Pittsburg's steel mills naturally makes that city one of the important railroad centers of the United States. Ten thousand cars of freight are handled daily, and yard provisions have been made for 60,000 cars. Within the last two or three years one of the leading lines has been compelled to expend \$21,000,000 entirely on terminals to prevent freight congestion, and in doing this a 100-mile belt line about the Pittsburg business district has been perfected, with yards containing 350 miles of track.



MR. JULIAN KENNEDY.

(Pittsburg's most distinguished engineer.)

In six years, four railroads expended for wages, improvements, supplies, and equipment in Pittsburg \$256,575,531, while one road in one year, 1902, expended at that point for extraordinary purposes \$57,752,323, equal to one-fifth of the taxable property valuation. The tonnage offered by the Pittsburg district is of such importance that one other great system has expended \$22,000,000 in building a 60-mile entrance, and has provided an additional fund of \$25,000,000 to permit of the building of spurs and terminals.

III.—THE ÆSTHETIC AND INTELLECTUAL SIDE OF PITTSBURG.

BY BURD SHIPPEN PATTERSON.

TO the ordinary mind, the name of Pittsburg stands only for great achievements in material things. It is associated preëminently with the conception of a vast and marvelous industrial development, the promotion of which has presumably absorbed all the remarkable energies of its people, whose character and tastes have accordingly been molded upon the pattern of their work. The titles of the Smoky or the Iron City, by which Pittsburg has long been known, have served to inculcate in the minds of the uninitiated the belief that all the talents of its busy people have been devoted to the upbuilding of its great and numerous manufacturing establishments, its iron and steel mills and furnaces, its glass works, its vast electrical factories, and its thousand other similar industrial operations, from whose myriad chimney stacks ascend the pillars of fire which so magnificently illuminate it by night, and the pillars of smoke which so often enshroud it by day.

The stranger visiting the business portion of Pittsburg on one of its dark days, which, owing to the large use of natural gas and of smoke-consumers, are not quite so frequent or, as a rule, so gloomy, as they once were, and observing the push and energy with which the whole population appears to be laboring for material advancement, cannot realize that under the smoke and fog, and amid the universal hum of the vast street traffic or the clang of the omnipresent machinery, there is abundant evidence to be found that the higher life,—the life which takes keen delight, not only in the spiritual, but in the intellectual and the artistic,—is being cultivated by a multitude of the inhabitants of the city in a manner which reflects the same energetic vigor and thoroughness that have signalized their efforts along material lines. Pittsburg, once symbolic only for the things which are the product of man's muscle and mechanical skill is now forging to a high place in the scientific, literary, artistic, and musical world.

It was not until about forty years ago that the growth of the city began to assume the marvelous character which has made it the wonder of the world. The introduction of steel-making, the discovery of oil and natural gas, and the opening up of rich coal fields were prime factors in this remarkable industrial development. From these and kindred sources sprang in a few years the great fortunes which made a considerable number of Pittsburg's citizens millionaires and multi-

millionaires and phenomenally increased the average wealth of the city's inhabitants. The industrial development of the community in the last century, and especially during its latter half, was rapid and continuous, and it required and obtained the close and unremitting attention of the men who were movers in it.

It must not be supposed, however, that there have not always been in Pittsburg those who, amid its busy industrial environment, found delight in cultivating the higher life. In the earlier days, and indeed up to the present time, the city was a center of religious thought and education.

As early as 1787, there was a Pittsburg Academy chartered, the first incorporated institution of learning west of the Alleghenies and north of the Ohio. In 1808, the academy became the Western University of Pennsylvania, which is to-day a large and flourishing institution. More than fifty years ago, Stephen C. Foster, a native of the city, wrote his immortal songs, thereby proving that among its hard and practical conditions there was being developed the lighter and brighter side of life.

THE CITY'S PUBLIC PARKS.

Leaving the earlier history of the city and coming to the period of its wonderful development, which is still in progress, note can appropriately first be made of the remarkable improvement in the topography of Pittsburg during the last quarter of a century. The building of the street railways was accompanied by the construction of many miles of fine paved streets and the creation of the large and beautiful residence districts in Oakland and the East End, which are great surprises to the stranger who has seen only the business and manufacturing sections of the city. In the Oakland district is the large Schenley Park, most of which was given by the late Mrs. Mary E. Schenley, a one-time resident of Pittsburg, the balance being purchased by the city. In the East End is the beautiful Highland Park, belonging to the city.

At the entrance to Schenley Park are situated the great groups of buildings given to the city by Andrew Carnegie. In the park is the Phipps Conservatory, given by Henry Phipps, Jr., which is one of the largest and finest in the world. Connected with it is a botanical building, wherein lectures are given on botany to the children of the schools, who visit

the conservatory, which is daily open to the public free. A fine monument has recently been erected in the park to Col. Alexander L. Hawkins and the men of the Tenth Pennsylvania Volunteers, who did such good service in the Philippines.

At the entrance to Highland Park are two pillars of highly artistic design. The grounds are beautifully laid out. An artificial body of water, called Lake Carnegie, is a feature.

Much of the credit for the topographical improvement of the city is due to the late Christopher L. Magee, who did for Pittsburg in this respect what the late Alexander R. Shepherd did for Washington, and who also gave several millions of dollars for philanthropic and educational purposes.

CULTIVATION OF THE FINE ARTS.

During the past twenty years, a portion of the energy of the men who have amassed great wealth in Pittsburg has been devoted to the acquisition of paintings by noted artists, and the city now contains a number of valuable private collections of such. In 1902, a loan exhibition of fine paintings was held at the Carnegie Art Galleries, and a large portion of the works shown were from the private galleries of Pittsburg and Allegheny. These paintings represented the

work of fully seventy-five well-known American and foreign artists, among whom were Alma Tadema, Rosa Bonheur, Jules Breton, William M. Chase, John Constable, Corot, Dagnan-Bouveret, Diaz, Gérôme, Hals, Inness, Mauve, Millet, Murillo, Rembrandt, Reynolds, Romney, Rousseau, Rubens, Turner, and Van Dyck.

A great stimulus to the love of art in Pittsburg has been afforded by the Art Department of the Carnegie Institute. The institute was founded in 1896 by Andrew Carnegie, who for many years had been a citizen of Pittsburg, and who at that time contributed over a million dollars for the building, which contains a library, music hall, museum, and art gallery, and for the erection of several branch library buildings. The library building, which cost about \$800,000, is now being enlarged to about five times its original size, the cost of the addition being estimated at about \$5,000,000, all of which Mr. Carnegie has contributed. He also, some years ago, contributed \$2,000,000, the income of which has been used for the special purposes of the Scientific Museum and Fine Arts departments of the institute. He has, from time to time, also given special sums to these departments. The government of the library and institute is vested in a board of trustees, a portion of whom are life members appointed by Mr. Carnegie, the re-



A VIEW OF HIGHLAND PARK, SHOWING ENTRANCE.



A VIEW OF THE CARNEGIE LIBRARY AND MUSIC HALL, AT ENTRANCE TO SCHENLEY PARK.
(An addition, costing several millions, is now being constructed. See illustration on page 71.)



MR. WILLIAM N. FREW.

(President of the Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Institute and the Carnegie Library.)

mainder being public officials elected by the people of the city, or by city councils, or appointed by the mayor. The city pays the ordinary cost of the maintenance of the library and institute, the appropriation for the present year being \$158,000. William N. Frew has been the efficient president of the board of trustees almost from the beginning.

The Art Department has from the beginning been under the direction of John W. Beatty, whose intelligent and well-directed labors have contributed largely to its great success. The art galleries of the institute contain a fine permanent collection of paintings and sculpture, the property of the institute, as well as some paintings loaned by private owners for an indefinite period. This permanent exhibit is open to the public daily without charge during three-fourths of the year. Among the notable pictures belonging to the permanent collection are the following: "Clouded Sun," by George Inness; "Portrait of Sarasate," by Whistler; "The Wreck," by Winslow Homer; "May," by D. W. Tryon; "Penance of Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester," by Edwin A. Abbey; "Woman in Pink," by John W. Alexander; "Peasant," by Jules Bastian Le Page; "Fifth Avenue in Winter," by Childe Hassam; "Did You Speak?" by W. M. Chase; "The Boats," by André Dauchez; "The Sailor and His Sweetheart," by

Julius Gari Melchers; "A Vision of Antiquity," by Pierre Cecile Puvis de Chavannes; "The Window Seat," by Alexander Roche; "The Arques at Ancourt," by Fritz Thaulow, and "The Keeper of the Threshold," by Elihu Vedder. Henry C. Frick presented to the collection Dagnan-Bouveret's large painting of the "Disciples at Emaus."

In November and December there is, as a rule, a competitive exhibition of paintings, open to the artists of the world, although it has on occasion been confined to the works of American artists. The loan exhibition heretofore spoken of also took the place of this exhibit two years ago.

For the last exhibit, which opened November 3, 1904, more than six hundred and fifty paintings were offered, of which three hundred and twenty-eight were deemed worthy of being placed on view.

The children of the public schools are encouraged to take an interest in the art exhibits. Director Beatty is in the habit of giving art talks to classes of such visitors. Another feature of the Art Department's work, recently introduced, is the sending of fine photographs of the pictures on exhibition to the schools, where the drawing teachers report the experiment to have been remarkably successful.

The Pittsburgh Art Society, of which E. Z. Smith has long been president, composed of artists and others who take an interest in art, music, and literature, has, since its organization in 1873, also had an important effect in stimulating interest in the Pittsburgh community in these subjects. Some of the Pittsburgh artists have achieved a wide reputation, among them being John W. Alexander, Charles S. Reinhart, John W. Beatty, George Hetzel, Thomas S. Clark, Clarence M. Johns, A. G. Reinhart, Joseph R. Woodwell, William Wall, Alfred Wall, A. Bryan Wall, Charles Linford, Jasper Lawman, Martin B. Leisser, and David Blythe. Among the earliest well-known artists in the city were J. R. Carroll, S. H. Dearborn, A. Bowman, and J. R. Lambdin. During its existence, the Pittsburgh Art School, founded by John W. Beatty, did excellent work.

MUSIC IN PITTSBURG.

In the field of music, Pittsburgh has made a notable advance during recent years. The inspiration has largely come from the Music Department of the Carnegie Institute and the Art Society. In the music hall of the institute building there is a magnificent organ, and twice a week, on Saturday evening and Sunday afternoon, except during the summer vacation season, free organ recitals are given, which are always well at-

tended. The late Frederic Archer was for many years the organist. Since his death, Edwin H. Lemare, of London, has filled the position. The organists have been in the habit of giving free musical lectures during the year. The Pittsburgh Orchestra makes its headquarters at the Carnegie Music Hall. Its management is in the hands of the orchestra committee of the Pittsburgh Art Society, whose chairman is James I. Buchanan, a leading business man. The business manager is George H. Wilson, who is head of the Music Department of the institute. The orchestra's first conductor was Frederic Archer, who was succeeded by Victor Herbert, under whom it became known as one of the leading musical organizations of the country. Its present conductor is Emil Paur, who bears an international reputation. The orchestra concerts are not free, but are, nevertheless, largely attended. The members of the Art Society annually raise a large guarantee fund for the support of the orchestra, this year the amount exceeding forty thousand dollars. The orchestra gives a large number of concerts in Pittsburgh every year, and also makes a tour of the large cities of the country. Annually the Western Exposition Society engages four or five of the leading musical organizations of the country for a week or more each during September and October. Last year, about five hundred thousand people attended these concerts. In some years, the Pittsburgh Orchestra has appeared at the exposition. Each year there is a season of grand opera in Pittsburgh. Many of the churches have excellent choirs and talented organists, and there are a number of musical societies in the city, including the Apollo Club.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEM OF THE GREATER PITTSBURG.

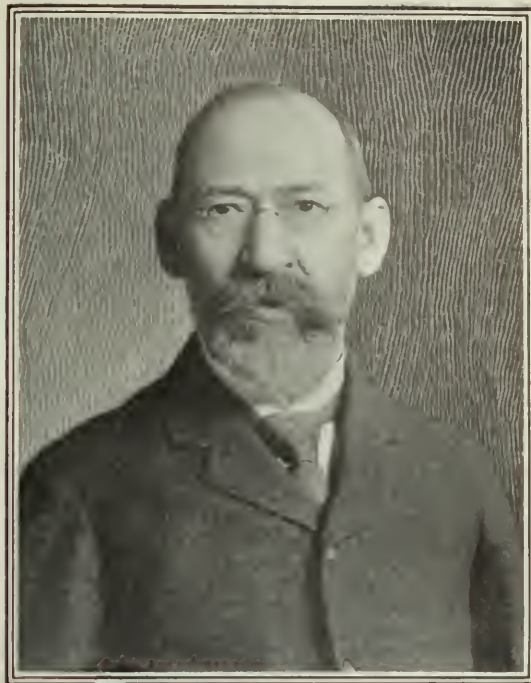
The work of the Carnegie Library, affiliated with the Carnegie Institute, has been of the greatest importance in contributing to the promotion of the higher life of Pittsburgh. Edwin H. Anderson was its efficient head from its opening, in 1895, until last month, when his resignation on account of ill health caused general regret. The main library building, in Schenley Park, is also the home of the institute. There are also at present five branch libraries in various parts of the city. Another branch is about to be opened, and others are contemplated. The reference library is especially well equipped and is widely patronized, inquiries coming to it from all parts of the country. Books from the main library can also be obtained by special arrangement by people living outside the city.

The Children's Department of the library is

doing an especially valuable work. There is a children's room in the main library, and also in each of the branch ones. These rooms are always well filled with little ones during their hours out of school. The circulation of books among the children constitutes a large proportion of the total of the library. An interesting feature of the work among the children is conducted by the Home Libraries' Department.

The establishment of branch libraries in all parts of the city, where they reach the workmen, and the work among the children, supplemented by that of the main library, has earned the institution the good-will of all classes of people. One of the interesting branches of the work of the library is the furnishing of collections of books to the public schools, nearly all of which are now so provided. During the summer, books are sent from the library to the playgrounds and vacation schools in considerable numbers. The story-hour is another interesting feature of the work of the Children's Department of the library. Stories from the ancient and modern classics are related to the children in their rooms in the main and branch libraries, and also in the schools, and they are thereby led to read of the people and the things they are thus introduced to.

The popular appreciation of the library has far exceeded the hopes which its generous founder cherished when its work was inaugurated. At the dinner given to celebrate the opening of the library, William A. Magee, for fifteen years chairman of the Finance Committee of the Pittsburgh City Councils, to whom Mr. Carnegie intrusted the task of securing the municipal legislation necessary for the acceptance of his gift, made a speech in which he said he expected to see the time when the people of Pittsburgh



MR. GEORGE A. MACBETH.

(Chairman of the Library Committee of the Carnegie Library.)

would gladly approve of the initial appropriation of \$40,000 a year for the maintenance of the institution being increased to \$125,000. At this Mr. Carnegie threw up his hands and exclaimed, "Not in my lifetime, Mr. Magee; it will take fifty years before they get to that point." "You will see it done in five years," replied Mr. Magee, a prophecy which was ful-



THE NEW ADDITION TO THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE AND LIBRARY.

(The Forbes street façade of enlarged building, now in process of construction. This building will be four hundred feet long, while the depth will be nearly six hundred feet.)

filled to the letter, while the present year's appropriation is \$33,000 in excess of the figure named by the Pittsburg councilman.

In this connection, also, should be mentioned the valuable work of the Carnegie Library of Allegheny City, the first of Mr. Carnegie's benefactions, and which was founded in memory of James Anderson, a citizen of Allegheny, who had loaned Mr. Carnegie, when a boy, books from his library, which was subsequently presented to the public. Recently, a monument to Mr. Anderson was erected by Mr. Carnegie in front of the library. There are also libraries at Braddock, Carnegie, McKeesport, and other places in Allegheny County, established by the munificence of Mr. Carnegie. There is a fine one at Homestead, with which a clubhouse feature is embraced. All the expenses of this library, as well as of those at Braddock and Duquesne, are paid by Mr. Carnegie.

ARCHITECTURE IN THE STEEL CITY.

In architecture, Pittsburg has also made a great advance in recent years. For a long period, its most notable buildings were the Ro-

man Catholic Cathedral, recently demolished, a fine example of the early Gothic, situated at Grant Street and Fifth Avenue, and Trinity Protestant Episcopal Church, still standing on Sixth Avenue. A great stimulus to architecture in the city was given by the erection of the Allegheny County Court House in 1884-88. Richardson, the great Boston architect, was the designer of the work, which is considered his masterpiece. It is one of the most notable pieces of architecture in the country. The city now boasts a large number of buildings having great architectural merit. Among the churches are the new Roman Catholic Cathedral, approaching completion at Fifth Avenue and Craig Street, the Protestant Episcopal churches of the Ascension and St. Peter's, the First and Third Presbyterian churches, the Christ Methodist Episcopal Church, the Sixth United Presbyterian Church, and many others. Many of the schools recently erected are also fine examples of good architecture, among them being Friendship Park, Alinda Preparatory, Margaretta, Shakespeare, and others.

The Bank of Pittsburg and the Union Trust Company's buildings are especially noteworthy structures in the financial district. Among the skyscrapers, of which the city has a large number, are the Frick, Oliver, Bessemer, and Farmers' National Bank buildings. The Nixon Theater, completed within the last year, is one of the most beautiful and artistically constructed places of amusement in the country. Hundreds of artistic residences beautify the Oakland and East End districts of Pittsburg, and also Allegheny. Among them may be mentioned those of Durbin Horne, Nathaniel Holmes, R. V. Messler, Benjamin Thaw, Thomas Morrison, Mrs. Christopher L. Magee, W. H. Schoen, Julian Kennedy, and W. N. Frew.

The Pittsburg Chapter of the American Institute of Architects has a large membership, and its influence as an organization is steadily exerted for the improvement of the profession. The Women's School of Design, for a long time, did excellent work.

PITTSBURG'S INTEREST IN SCIENCE.

In the field of science, Pittsburgers naturally take great interest. The continued success of the great industries of the community is largely dependent upon the application of the latest scientific knowledge to their work. As a consequence, there is a very large body of men in the community who are highly skilled in many branches of technical research. Years ago, they got together and founded, on March 31, 1890, the Academy of Science and Art of Pittsburg, and other societies. Later, the academy, in con-



THE NEW ROMAN CATHOLIC CATHEDRAL.
(Now in process of construction.)

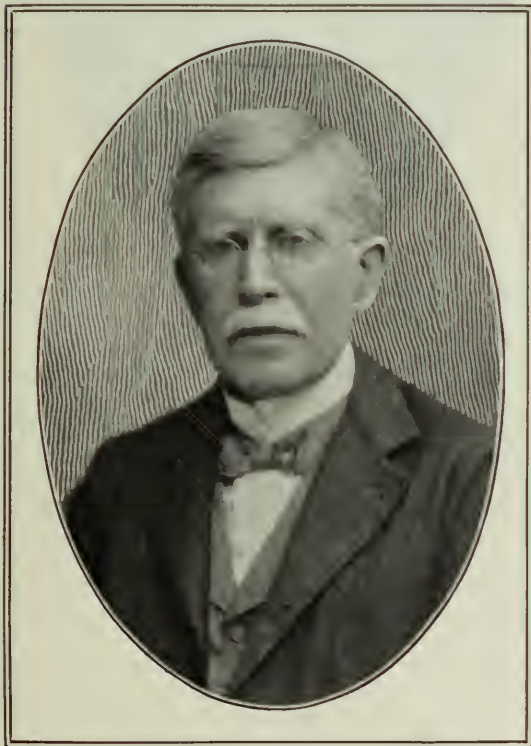
nection with the Engineers' Society of Western Pennsylvania, the Botanical Society, the Historical Society of Western Pennsylvania, the Architects' Society, the Amateur Photographers' Association, and the Art Society, leased the old William Thaw mansion, on Fifth Street, now occupied by the Young Women's Christian Association. A library was started and arrangements made to employ a curator for it and the museum. About this time, Mr. Carnegie announced his intention of founding the Carnegie Institute, and when the latter was erected, the academy and the other organizations transferred their headquarters to it. The institute contains a lecture hall, in which and in the music hall many scientific lectures are given every year, under the auspices of the academy and the other societies. These lectures are free, and are well attended.

The Museum Department of the institute, which is under the direction of Dr. William J. Holland, formerly chancellor of the Western University of Pennsylvania, is filled with a vast collection of interesting exhibits. These, in deed, are so numerous that a private building



THE ALLEGHENY COUNTY COURTHOUSE.

(One of the most notable pieces of architecture in the country.)



MR. C. C. MELLOR.

(Chairman of the Museum Committee of the Carnegie Institute.)

in another portion of the city has had to be engaged to hold some of them, while others are stored away in warehouses. They are all expected to be displayed in the greatly enlarged quarters assigned to the museum in the addition to the institute now being erected. The museum has parties constantly in the field in this and other countries, securing new specimens for its collection. It publishes a periodical, under the editorship of Dr. Holland, which contains much new scientific information. Every year the museum is visited by many thousands of people, its doors being opened freely to all during the whole year, except when necessary changes are being made for the annual Founder's Day celebration. An interesting feature is the work among the children. Prizes are offered every year to the pupils of the Pittsburg and Allegheny public schools for the best essays upon subjects which are exhibited in the museum, the idea being original with the authorities of the latter. Last year, over seventeen hundred essays were received in the competition. The prizes are presented publicly in the music hall, the event always being signaled by a large attendance. Lectures are given to classes of scholars who visit the museum with their teachers.

There is an Andrew Carnegie Boys' Naturalist Club, presided over by Prof. Frederic S. Webster, the chief of the Department of Zoological Preparation of the museum. There are also other societies connected with the museum.

LITERARY WORKERS.

Pittsburg has for a long time been engaged rather in producing the materials for literature than literature itself. Nevertheless, it has always had among its citizens those who wielded the pen with considerable power. Over a century ago, Hugh H. Brackenridge's "Modern Chivalry" made a sensation as an effective, sarcastic exposition of the politics of the day. Stephen C. Foster, whose "Old Folks at Home" and other popular songs will never die, was a native of Pittsburg, whose people have recently raised a monument to his memory in a local cemetery. Samuel Harden Church, who has long been a resident of Pittsburg, achieved a wide reputation by his "Life of Cromwell" and his historical novels and poems. Dr. William J. Holland's "Butterfly Book" and "Moth Book" are authorities on the subjects of which they treat. Pittsburgers lay special claim to Andrew Carnegie, whose "Triumphant Democracy" and other writings are known the world over. A number of persons distinguished as writers have made their homes in Pittsburg for a period. Among these are Richard Realf, Bartley Campbell, Samuel P. Langley, William M. Sloane, James E. Keeler, Jane G. Swisshelm, Margaret Wade Campbell Deland, and Rev. Morgan M. Sheedy and Rev. George Hodges. Other Pittsburg writers have been or are Morgan Neville, Henry M. Brackenridge, Charles Shiras, Neville B. Craig, Thomas Plympton, Josiah Copley, Robert P. Nevin, W. M. Darlington, James M. Swank, Charles McKnight, Rev. A. A. Lambing, president of the Historical Society; Sarah H. Killikelly, Emily Veeder, Logan G. McPherson, Martha F. Boggs, Henry J. Ford, James Mills, Wm. G. Johnston, Marshall Brown, J. E. Parke, Thomas Mellon, William B. Phillips, Stephen Quinon, Erasmus Wilson, Arthur G. Burgoyne, Cara Reese, James F. Hudson, E. W. Hassler, Anna P. Siviter, Mary Agnes Byrne, and David Lowry.

Pittsburg has long been noted for the number and excellence of its newspapers, which have had in their employ many men who have achieved great success in the profession of journalism and also in other lines.

EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS.

Pittsburg's and Allegheny's school systems are among the best in the country. In recent years, the school buildings have all been rebuilt or re-

modeled. Pittsburg has three high-school buildings, and another is contemplated. Allegheny has a fine high school. Special attention is given to industrial training in both cities, and the Allegheny schools won a gold medal for their work in this line at the St. Louis Exposition. And speaking of this matter, it may be remarked here that Pittsburg received more gold medals and



REV. SAMUEL B. McCORMICK.

(Chancellor of the Western University of Pennsylvania.)

other prizes at that exposition than any other city. There are numerous Catholic parochial schools in the city, and a Catholic high school is contemplated. The Pittsburg College of the Holy Ghost, a Catholic institution, is located in the city. The Pennsylvania College for Women is also within its borders, and there are several private academies for boys and girls, and also several business colleges and a kindergarten training school.

The Western University of Pennsylvania, of which the Rev. Samuel B. McCormick is chancellor, and the theological seminaries of the Presbyterian, United Presbyterian, and Reformed Presbyterian churches are situated in Allegheny, and their thousands of graduates have had an important influence in promoting the higher life,

not only of the Pittsburg community, but of the world generally. The late William Thaw, who was the city's earliest philanthropist on a large scale, gave about \$500,000 to found the Allegheny Observatory, connected with the university, at which the late James E. Keeler, Samuel P. Langley, and John A. Brashear have done such important astronomical work.

The Carnegie technical schools promise to be one of the greatest educational institutions in the world. They will afford training for those who propose to work in the great industries of the city and country, and the object of their generous founder is to make secure the supremacy of Pittsburg in the industrial field. The director, Prof. Arthur Hamerschlag, has been for a year past engaged in preparing for the opening of the schools. The buildings will cost from \$5,000,000 to \$10,000,000, all of which is to be provided by Mr. Carnegie. Work has already been begun upon them, and the architects were recently selected by competition from among about fifty of the leading members of the profession in the country. Already over five thousand persons have signified their desire to take the course of the schools, which are expected to begin their regular work next fall. Preliminary lectures, given by Professor Hamerschlag and others, were attended by several thousands more than this number.

There is a flourishing University Extension Society in Pittsburg, and many lectures are given under its auspices at the Carnegie main and branch libraries in Pittsburg and also in Allegheny.

Some years ago, a Small Parks Association was organized, which secured legislation permitting the use of the school grounds for playgrounds during vacation and at other times, and the acquisition of land by the city for small parks and playgrounds. The work of the association was, after some years, taken up by the women's clubs, and among the results have been the securing of the Washington Park and South Side playgrounds in thickly settled parts of the city, and the opening of some of the school grounds for playground purposes. Some school boards are still, however, so unenlightened that they prefer to devote the school grounds to the raising of grass and flowers for the sole benefit of the janitors' families to utilizing them for the good of the large bodies of children under their care.

It should be mentioned that Allegheny has a fine park system in the heart of the city, adorned with monuments and fountains, and also the large Riverview Park in the outskirts.

No notice of the advancement of Pittsburg in



MR. WILLIAM McCONWAY.

(Chairman of the Technical Schools Committee of the Carnegie Institute.)

the higher life would be complete without reference to the work of the women's clubs of the city. There are a large number of these, and they have done excellent work in many lines, not only for the intellectual improvement of their members, but for the advancement of the city generally. The headquarters of many of them are in the Twentieth Century Club building. The Daughters of the American Revolution have made a successful fight to prevent the removal of the Old Blockhouse, built by Colonel Bouquet in 1764, from its historic site. The Civic Club, composed of men and women, has done excellent work. So also has the Kingsley House Association, a college-settlement organization.

CLUBS AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONS.

An important agency in the development of the character of the people of Pittsburg has been that of the clubs and other organizations of business men. The Duquesne Club has long been



"THE BLOCKHOUSE."

(Pittsburg's notable revolutionary relic, a remnant of Fort Duquesne, almost in the heart of the city's business district.)

the chief business and social organization of the city. Its membership, probably, embraces more men of great wealth than that of any other organization in the country of the same kind. At its magnificent clubhouse, on Sixth Avenue, many great business and industrial projects have been considered and launched. A similar organization, whose existence dates back only a few years, is the Union Club, which has large and handsome apartments on the top floor of the Frick building. The Pittsburg Club, on Penn Avenue, is a purely social club of high standing. The University Club has a large membership of university and college graduates; it long had its own quarters, but is now temporarily domiciled at the Union Club. The Pittsburg Chamber of Commerce has in the past exerted an important influence in the business development of Pittsburg. The Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association, organized about a year ago, has performed a remarkable work in increasing the trade and transportation facilities of Pittsburg; it is largely composed of prominent young business men, who are alive to the advantages of the city, and also its needs.

The Country Club has fine quarters in the East End. The Press Club is composed of newspaper men, and has on its rolls many names of men prominent in business and the professions. The Woman's Press Club also has a considerable membership.

From its earliest days, Pittsburg has been a strongly religious community. Many of its ministers were and are highly educated men, and

they are now doing important work, not only in the spiritual, but the intellectual field. The city has a strong Young Men's Christian Association, which is also doing much to uplift the people, as is the Young Women's Christian Association of the city.

PROFESSIONAL LIFE.

There are a large number of members of the engineering profession in all its branches in the Pittsburg community, many of whom are connected with the Engineering Society of Western Pennsylvania. Among them are many who have earned a high reputation.

The bench and bar of Pittsburg have always been famous for the ability of their members. The medical profession of the city has also had many distinguished members. There is a medical school connected with the Western University, and there are many large and well-conducted hospitals in the city, with able medical staffs.

Pittsburg, it will therefore be seen, has a large group of devotees of the higher life to draw upon. Its artists, architects, engineers, judges, lawyers, writers, ministers, as well as scientists and enlightened and educated business men, form a society which is animated by a desire for better things. As they all evince the energy in their pursuit which is characteristic of Pittsburg, it is not surprising that a few years should have registered great achievements such as have been briefly sketched.

PITTSBURG'S MUNICIPAL NEEDS.

What Pittsburg needs more than anything else now is higher civic life. Its people, so keen to appreciate the necessity for material, spiritual, and intellectual advancement, have been slow to perceive the urgency for a high-class municipal government. Pittsburg especially needs more small parks and playgrounds, open all the year round to the children of its thickly settled districts. It needs public free baths in larger numbers than at present. It needs the cleaning out of the tenement district and the erection of safe and sanitary buildings in it. It needs a pure water-supply, the lack of which has caused thousands of deaths by typhoid fever, and the securing of which has been criminally delayed by petty politicians quarreling over contracts. These things Pittsburg does not now possess, but the progress which its people, as we have shown, are making toward the higher life in other directions must inevitably, sooner or later, bring about their acquisition, and when this happens Pittsburg will indeed be in all respects a great city, of which its people may be justly proud.



"THE GALE," BY WINSLOW HOMER.

(Homer's marines are fairly permeated with sea articulation; and his brush marks the path of the elements as though he had the perception of a seer.) Kind permission of the owner, Mr. John Harsen Rhoades.

A COMPARATIVE EXHIBITION OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN PAINTINGS.

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.

THE Centennial Exhibition, in 1876, indicated that there were a few American artists, but no American art. In 1893, Chicago proved that we at last had a native school. At the Pan-American, in 1900, and at St. Louis, in 1904, we saw that the younger men were preserving our best traditions, but no distinct progress was marked.

These exhibitions signified what our artists have accomplished; they took little reckoning of public taste. Taste that manifested itself, prior to 1850, in the purchase of copies of old masters, about 1860 was shown in acquiring the work of the Düsseldorf school. A little later, we bought the work of the French figure painters (strongly indorsing Bougereau, Lefèvre, and Gérôme), more recently of the Barbizon school, and nearly always (save around 1870, when the "Hudson River" school was patronized and works by Bierstadt and Church were purchased at high figures) ignored the home art.

Of recent years, however, a finer taste has led our collectors to extend their patronage to American art. That this confidence has not been misdirected was shown in the "Comparative Exhibition" of paintings by American and foreign artists recently held in New York under the auspices of the Society of Art Collectors.

Here were hung, side by side, examples of American and foreign art, and in the contest the Americans held their own. The foreign paintings were for the most part French (mostly of the Barbizon school); the American paintings were what are called "tonal" pictures. Landscapes predominated; story-telling pictures were totally absent. Expression in color was the keynote of the exhibition.

Ten examples of Whistler were shown. His marines, called "Symphonies" and "Nocturnes," possess poetry of color that defies analysis. His blue-grays and his gray-blues appeal to the cultivated taste as do the cerulean blues of Oriental



"THE GREAT OAKS OF BAS BRÉAU," BY THEO. ROUSSEAU.

(We may distinguish a human figure standing in a sunlit spot to our right, which the artist introduces as a unit, or module, by which we may measure the height of the gigantic oaks. Though merely a first rubbing-in, the painting is a complete, indeed a titanic, rendering of nature's forms.)

Kind permission of the owner, Sir William Van Horne.

silks and ceramics. In order to prove Whistler's high place in art, one need not assert that his grays are any closer to nature than the more neutral grays of Corot, or that his blue skies suggest the spacious firmament more than does the deeper-toned sky of, say, Winslow Homer in his "All's Well." It is simply that Whistler's distinguishing characteristic is beauty of color, and that whenever his paintings are shown in a group, as here, they compose into a color-symphony that moves the visitor even when he cannot quite "make out" a "Nocturne" or accept the, obviously unfinished, portraits.

Self-reliance as to method, or technique, absolute independence of academic art, and yet decisive attainment in expression marked the American work.

We saw, for example, that George Fuller, in his "Romany Girl," painting with a method that would shock a Beaux-Arts professor, presented, not only a poetical conception, not only a scholarly characterization of type (a most rare accomplishment), but achieved a unit of color of which few Europeans, are capable.

Fuller (1822-84) was among our pioneers, but Abbott H. Thayer, living to-day, employing a palette daringly keyed up to the pigments of the rainbow, painting his shadows now violet, now green, working with a swinging brush that seems to encounter no impediments, gives us none of the warm tones of Fuller, yet he, too, in his "Caritas" and "Virgin Enthroned," has evolved types that are delightfully fresh and modern.

John La Farge, with less verve than Whistler or Thayer and less naïveté than Fuller, has created, in his "Visit of Nicodemus to Christ," two figures monumental in their simplicity. They are enwrapped in an atmosphere of chiaroscuro that lends depth and adds a religious significance to the composition, and the picture satisfies every artistic demand as regards coloring, drawing, and modeling.

These works of Fuller, Thayer, and La Farge belong to the realm of the ideal; so, too, when George De Forest Brush confines his talent to realism as he infuses into that realism the same idealistic charm, in his "Mother and Child."

Homer D. Martin's "Adirondack Scenery" and John La Farge's "Paradise Valley" (Newport) represent the high-water mark of American landscapes. Martin gives us the very essence of mountain scenery. He unites form and local color with seemingly one brushwork, and, seemingly using the same pigment for both, obtains a marvelous *ensemble*.

La Farge painted his "Paradise Valley" (Newport) as early as 1868-69! At that period, such exquisite shell-like grays, made of violet, wild-rose pink, and jonquil yellow, were quite absent in the shadow portions of most European and American landscapes. The picture is very near perfection.

Inness painted the times of day and the seasons with a rare certitude. One would fancy, on looking at his "Sunset on the Passaic," that his palette had been charged with radium rather than with common pigments, so glowing is the canvas. In the "Wood Gatherers" there is an emerald tone, luminous and golden, that the Frenchmen rarely attain.



"CAVALIER SUR UNE ROUTE," BY J. B. C. COROT.

(The sky is of a delicate opal blue, the foliage a silvery gray, and the roadway a warm ochre.)

Kind permission of the owner, Mr. Henry B. Wilson.

Winslow Homer was perhaps the most adequately represented of all the Americans, five of his best paintings being shown. Just as Millet wishes the spectator, on looking at his "Angelus," to feel the holiness of the hour and to hear the ringing of the bells, so Homer wishes us to hear the voice of the lookout as he calls "All's Well" and to hear the booming of the surf in his "Maine Coast," "The Gale," "High Cliff, Coast of Maine," and he succeeds as far as painting can succeed in such suggestion. His art is not subtle, but direct and frank. His compositions are never confused, but are clarity itself.

The connoisseur derives from Monticelli's paintings some such pleasure as he does from the rapidly painted figures on a Chinese or a Dutch jar. He is not tempted to scrutinize the drawing of the figures, but he finds beauty in the cobalt-blue outlines as they vary in intensity under the transparent enamel, like pebbles in a pellucid stream. Monticelli's tonal language is a closed book to the public, but luxury to those who care for color in the absolute.

The American, Albert Ryder, like Monticelli, concocts color fantasies the subject-matter of which it is difficult to comprehend. The names



"CARITAS," BY ABBOTT H. THAYER.

(A canvas showing much individuality, and beauty of color.)
Kind permission of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



"TAUREAU ET GENISSE" (HEIFER AND BULL),
BY GUSTAVE COURBET.

(Courbet painted with a breadth that was revolutionary in the sixties. The landscape here rolls off into the background with a fine suggestion of *terra firma*; the faun-color of the heifer is as beautifully rendered as though the artist were painting a deer; the sky, a broad expanse of vibrating blue.)

Kind permission of the owner, M. Durand-Ruel.

"Siegfried," "Cunstance," and "The Flying Dutchman" give one but a scant idea of his pictures. Incoherent as to subject, they are not without charm, especially the sky in "Cunstance." Blakelock paints landscapes in somewhat the same vague suggestive manner. Both succeed, in

moonlight effects, in conveying a vibrating sensation that is most difficult to obtain on canvas.

Wyant, Tryon, Minor, Ranger, Hassam, Walker, Murphy, Twachtman, and Kost face problems in realism in a way that allowed them to hold their own with Sisley and Monet.

The names of William Morris Hunt and William M. Chase stand for all that is best in the progress of American art.

Hunt was among the first Americans to teach collectors to appreciate the Barbizon school. So we looked upon his "Bathers" with reverence because of the man behind the brush, as well as for the refinement of execution. His small marine, "The Spouting Whale," is painted with an abandon and a fine color-sense quite worthy of Whistler. As Hunt taught in Boston, so William M. Chase has taught in New York. His still-life, "An English Cod," served as a token for visiting students as significant of the truth that an artist's brush may make any subject a worthy one for a picture.



"NOANK," BY HENRY W. RANGER.

(One of the most colorful pictures in the exhibition, it glows with the golden yellow of sunlight, and is most happy in its rendition of receding objects.)
Kind permission of the owner.

In such paintings as Wyatt Eaton's "Reverie" and J. Alden Weir's "The Green Bodice," compared with a Lawrence figure piece, we found the superior quality of tone and color that belongs to our best art. Compared with English work, American technique is far the more painter-like. The English stain their canvas and paint their shadows coal black, while the Americans brush in with an impasto and paint their shadows luminously.

T. W. Dewing's "Spinnet" is a very small canvas but a triumph of fine draughtsmanship. It is exquisite in its tones. Dewing's art reaches an apex that was never dreamed of by the American painters of the early part of the last century. His delicacy of touch and superfine sense of values is essentially modern, and his elegance of graphic diction is well-nigh unsurpassable.

Millet was a demigod among the painters of his day. The loftiness of his poetic nature, the potency of his draughtsmanship (at times equal to that of Michael Angelo), the sentiment which abounds in his canvases, as well as the saneness of his art tenets, have made his influence strongly felt, equally among painters and among art lovers. In the "Sheep Shearers," there is that wealth of tangibility that he always gave to his most important canvases. Everything in it "exists." The sheep, shepherds, trees, and farm

buildings are painted with a stupendous knowledge of form. In comparison with this Millet and the Rousseau "Oaks" our painters, it must be confessed, do fail to display quite that understanding of plastic beauty that the greatest foreign artists are capable of rendering.

Corot,—a name to conjure with in writing of landscape art,—was represented by five examples, among them "Lac Nemi," one of the most beautifully "arranged" pictures of the nineteenth century. Corot was a master of arrangement.

Rousseau, like Corot, painted with a mastery that is both native and scholarly. He served his apprenticeship, as did our Inness, in painting faithful transcripts from nature, mindful of the botanical character of a tree and the geological structure

of a rock. But later in life he graduated into a broader, more synthetic, method, wherein his massive forms characterize the very essence of nature. It was a rare treat to see his unfinished canvas "Great Oaks of Bas Bréau" (the *frottée* in which he intended to paint with a more ample palette), but still complete,—the expression of a man who knew nature perfectly.

Daubigny, Dupré, Tryon, Jacque, and Diaz because they stand for the fine color-sense that developed in French art in the period known as "1830;" Fromentin, represented by the "Falconer," because he was a great writer on art; Delacroix, Couture, Courbet, Regnault, and Degas, interesting among foreigners, because of the vital influence they had in forming modern French art; Israels, Neuhuys, Jongkind, Jakob, and William Maris, among the Dutch painters, were all justly included in this exhibition.

It was perhaps a mistake to include a Turner in the collection, as it was a mistake to include a Lawrence. Constable would have been more appropriately represented. Turner was a great colorist in a kaleidoscopic sense, but he had little or no conception of profound chromatic depth, the timbre of his scale was weak, and his "Venice," which was hung near the Lawrence, failed, like the latter, to hold its own among the more vibrating canvases of the modern school.

ENGLISH SPELLING OF RUSSIAN WORDS.

BY HERMAN ROSENTHAL.

(Of the New York Public Library.)

THE importance of correct transliteration—of conveying accurately the sounds of a foreign language, particularly of one which has a non-Latin alphabet or no alphabet at all—has long been recognized. There are many difficulties, however. These difficulties are especially numerous in the case of Russian-English transliteration. The Table of Rules adopted by the New York Public Library, and by many other libraries of the United States, is as follows:

with *sch*, or even with *tsch*, as has been done in most of the standard works on music. The improper transliteration in this case is due to the indirect derivation of the English spelling, the name having been retransliterated from the German. There being no phonetic equivalent in the latter language for the Russian Ч the German transliterator is obliged to use for it the group of letters *tsch*. That the English transliterator is not compelled to follow the

А а	<i>a</i>	Н н	<i>n</i>	Щ щ	<i>shch</i>
Б б	<i>b</i>	О о	<i>o</i>	Ъ ъ	<i>mute</i>
В в	<i>v</i>	П п	<i>p</i>	Ы ы	<i>y</i>
Г г	<i>h, v, or g</i>	Р р	<i>r</i>	Ь ь	<i>halfmute</i>
Д д	<i>d</i>	С с	<i>s</i>	Ѣ ѣ	<i>ye</i>
Е е	<i>e and ye</i> at the beginning.	Т т	<i>t</i>	Э э	<i>e</i>
Ж ж	<i>zh</i>	У у	<i>u</i>	Ю ю	<i>yu</i>
З з	<i>z</i>	Ф ф	<i>f</i>	Я я	<i>ya</i>
И и І і	<i>i</i>	Х х	<i>kh</i>	Ө ө	<i>F</i>
К к	<i>k</i>	Ц ц	<i>tz</i>	Ѳ ѳ	<i>æ</i>
Л л	<i>l</i>	Ч ч	<i>ch</i>	Й й	<i>i</i>
М м	<i>m</i>	Ш ш	<i>sh</i>		

RUSSIAN CHARACTERS AND THEIR ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.

In proving the correctness of any given transliteration from one language into another, it is necessary to make comparisons with other known languages. For example, the Russian letter Я is equivalent in sound to the German word *ja* (yes), and to make the exact phonetic transliteration of this word into English we must represent it by the letters *ya* as in *yard*, *yacht*, etc. The third letter in the Russian proper name *Svyatopolk*, therefore, which is a Я and which is transliterated into German as *j* (*Swjatopolk*), should be transliterated into English with a *y* (*Svyatopolk*), and not with an *i*.

The Russian Ч is correctly expressed in English as *ch*. It has the same sound as *ch* in *chapel*, *church*, *Chatham*, *child*, *much*, *teach*, etc. It is, therefore, unnecessary to transliterate *Chaikowski*

German usage may be proved by citing such words as *Kamchatka*, which is transliterated into German as *Kamtschatka*, or *Manchu-German Mandschu*. These remarks apply also to the spelling of the Russian name *Chekhov*, which in German is transliterated as *Tschechow*. Exceptions may, however, be made in the case of names made known to the English-speaking peoples by the French or Germans; for example, where the French or German form has become well known, and for all practical purposes fixed. *Metschnikoff* is a case in point where the French rendering of Мечниковъ is so well known that it would be mere pedantry to insist upon *Mechnikov*. There are few who would urge *Thoukidides* as a substitute for the better-known *Thucydides*, even though the former undoubtedly be

nearer the original Greek. Germans, Poles, Hebrews—not Russians by education—whose works may be translated into Russian, or even written in Russian, likewise should have followed the native form of their name. Thus, the Polish *Czacki* may be in Russian Чацкій, but should in Russian-English transliteration not become *Chatzki*, but must remain *Czacki*. The German *Westberg* should not become *Vestberg*; the Hebrew *Fuenn* should not become *Finn*. Their Russianized descendants, however, may become *Chatzkis*, *Vestbergs*, *Fins*, as has happened also with the names of Americanized Germans, like *Wise* from *Weiss*, *Swartz* from *Schwartz*, and *Wanamaker* from *Wannemacher*.

Instances occur, however, where the librarian or writer is puzzled as to the proper spelling of Russian names. A case in hand is the spelling of ВЕРЕЩАГИНЪ (*Vereshchagin*), the name of the well-known Russian painter of war scenes who met an untimely death on the battleship *Petro-pavlovsk*. This famous artist-traveler and peace advocate, who spoke fluently English, French, and German, modified the spelling of his name to suit the country where his pictures were being exhibited. He rendered it *Wereschagin* in Germany, *Vereschagine* in France, and *Verestchagin* in England and America. When questioned, two years ago, as to the reason for these different spellings, he jokingly answered that the Russian Ш, whose German equivalent contains a group of seven consonants (*Wereschtschagin*), cannot be pronounced by the foreigner without sneezing. Hence it seems advisable, on the whole, to spell his name, in accordance with the rules given below, *Vereshchagin*, which he himself approved.

As to the transliteration of the Russian X into the English *kh*, where the equivalent German transliteration is *ch*, it is sufficient to cite here as an example the word ХАНЪ, which for a long time has been spelled in English as *khan*, while the Germans spell it *chan*.

The Russian letter Ц is best transliterated by *tz*, and not by *cz*, as in the case of other Slavonic languages with Latin alphabets. Nevertheless, in spite of the almost universal adoption by librarians, and by some periodicals, of *tz* as the proper English equivalent, most persons seem to prefer *cz* as in *Czar*; and not a few are in favor of employing *ts* in place of *tz*. The Germans have abandoned the incorrect spelling *Zaar* or *Czar*, and have adopted exclusively the spelling *Zar*. That the German Z is equivalent to the English *tz* may be proved by the word *Tzigany* (gypsies), whose German equivalent is *Zigeuner*.

A wide diversity of spelling is also noticeable

in the ending of Russian names, where *ff* or *f* is used by preference in place of the correct transliteration by *v* as the equivalent of the Russian B. While the British Museum and the New York Public Library have the spelling *Lermontov*, *Turgenev*, *Mikhailov*, etc., translators, journalists, and occasionally also dictionaries, persist in using the endings *f* or *ff*. The latest edition of Brockhaus' "Konversations-Lexikon," which has introduced many radical changes in the transliteration of Russian terms, renders the words *Lermontow* and *Turgenjew* correctly, but commits the error of advising the reader to pronounce the final *ow* as *toff*. The sound is not like *f* in *loaf*; but like *v* in *loaves*. In all cases, the Russian final B should be transliterated by the English *v* and the German *w*, as is proved clearly enough by declining the words in question. The genitive of *Lermontov*, for example, would be *Lermontova*, and not *Lermontoffa*, and the dative would be *Lermontovu*; and not *Lermontoffu*.

The transliteration of the Russian Г (*G*) may be dismissed with a brief reference. There being no *h* in the Russian alphabet, words like *Homel* are spelled in the Russian as *Gomel*, even though the South-Russian (Ruthenian) or Polish pronunciation of the word is *Homel*, and hence the English transliteration should also be *Homel*. *Gogol*, however, because of its pronunciation in all the Slavonic languages with a *G*, should be thus spelled in English. The pronunciation of the Russian word *yego* (his) is *yevo*; hence, the Russian *g* must at times be transliterated as *v*.

The Russian Е when placed at the beginning of such words as *Ekkipazh*, *Epilog*, is pronounced like the English *E*, but in the great majority of cases it is pronounced as *ye*; hence, the Russian names *Yekaterinoslav*, *Yelisavelgrad*, *Yekaterinburg*, etc., should be so transliterated, not *Eka-terinoslav*, etc. The letter Ж sounds like the French *j* in *jour*. It corresponds, according to Whitney ("Oriental and Semitic Studies"), to the *zh* sound in *plaisure*, *glazier*, *azure*. There is no necessity, therefore, to transliterate РОЖЕСТВЕНСКІЙ after the French *Rojestvensky*, when we have the correct sound of the Ж in the English transliteration *Rozhestvenski*. The name of the rear admiral so prominently brought before the public in the recent North Sea incident should not be mistaken, however, for the more familiar name of the Russian writers *Rozhdestvenski*, as was done by some of our newspapers. Although both names denote Christmas-child, the latter are Great Russians, while the rear admiral is of Ukrainian origin, and in the Ruthenian language the *d* is dropped.

The III is sounded like the English words

sharp, *shure*, *she*, or the German *sch* as in *Schule*, *Schwert*, etc. Therefore, the word *Pushkin*, for instance, is rendered in English with *sh*, while the Germans spell it *Puschkin*. As the Russian letter Ш is the combination of *sh* and *ch*, there is no proof needed that such is the correct manner of transliteration.

The Russian Ш is best transliterated by the English *y*, which is also adopted by the Germans.

As early as 1889, Mr. Charles A. Cutter included in his "Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue" the report of a transliteration committee, whose data on the transliteration of Russian terms were collected by the late scholar and linguist, Michael Heilprin. Most of his suggestions have been adopted by the library associations, as may be seen from a later report on Russian transliteration by H. Carrington Bolton, in the *Library Journal*, September, 1892. The latter points out that his system was developed in England and might be called the English system. It differs in only a few particulars from the system commonly used in the United States, proposed by Heilprin, and published in Appendix 2 to Cutter's "Rules." The most important differences may be tabulated as follows:

Russian system.	English system.	American system.
В	v	v and f at the end of family names.
Г	gh	h, v, or g, according to circumstances.
Е	e	e and y at the beginning of words
Ч	ch	teh
Ш	shch	shtch
Ш	ui	y

Bolton expresses his regret that there should be two distinct systems of transliteration in English, and suggests that an attempt be made to secure uniformity. Unfortunately, such uniformity has not, so far, been established, as may be seen from the report of the American Library Association committee on the transliteration of Slavic languages (which, according to Whitney, Max Müller, and the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, should be called *Slavonic* languages), presented at the Montreal meeting (June 11, 1900). This report also contains a table for transliteration, which differs but little from the method of transliteration developed by the writer for the New York Public Library in 1899. In this report, the committee arrives at the conclusion that it seems at present impossible to offer a strictly scientific scheme, and that recognition must be made of methods adopted in the large libraries of this country and of Europe,

The amount of time wasted by librarians, as well as by general readers, owing to unfamiliarity in regard to the proper transliteration of Russian words, is illustrated by the following incident: A lady of intelligence, who desired to read a paper before a society of which she was a member, asked the librarian in charge of the Slavonic Department of the New York Public Library for a good English biography of Turgenev. She was referred to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, but, after a long search, was forced to declare that she could find nothing concerning him. This was due to the fact that the name was spelled in the *Britannica* with *ou* (Tourgenoff), instead of *u* (Turgenev).

It is scarcely necessary to say here that the effect on the Russian mind of incorrect transliterations, if at times amusing, is not always pleasing. The impressions of the educated Russian in this respect may be better understood, perhaps, when we examine the files of the Russian papers, where we may find transliterations of American terms bearing ear-marks of similar carelessness. Thus, in a recent review of American events in one of the prominent periodicals (*Mir Bozhi* for October, 1904), there is mentioned as among the Presidential candidates a *Mr. Kharst*, who, as the owner of many newspapers and as a friend of the laboring class, was reported to have excellent chances for becoming the next President of the United States. The writer was evidently not sufficiently informed to be able to distinguish between nomination and election. Having been taught that *ou* as in the word *hour* is equivalent to the Russian *i*, he naturally assumed that *Hearst* should be transliterated accordingly. The correct transliteration should have been *Gerst*, since there is no letter *h* in the Russian alphabet, but the writer preferred the letter X instead, this having the sound *kh* when transliterated into English, as, for example, Харьковъ = Kharkov.

While it can hardly be expected that publishers who have spent large sums of money on the publication of dictionaries, gazetteers, and encyclopædias should hastily discard the old system of spelling for new and radical systems, even though the latter be the correct ones, it is annoying to find in the English language such words as *Tartar* instead of *Tatar*, when it has been known for many years that the origin of the word is "Tat" and not "Tart." Such errors and inconsistencies in spelling could be pointed out by the hundred in most of the dictionaries and encyclopædias, and even in the excellent catalogue of the British Museum.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE AUSTRIAN PERIODICALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN AUSTRIA AND BOHEMIA.

[The Austro-Hungarian monarchy is made up of peoples speaking so many different languages that we have considered it under several heads. The periodical press of Galicia (Austrian Poland) was treated in the article "What the People Read in Poland and Finland," in the REVIEW for July, and the periodical press of Hungary in the REVIEW for November. This month, we consider Austria proper and Bohemia. For most of the data about the Bohemian press we are indebted to Mr. John Skotthy, American correspondent of the *Budapesti Hirtap*.]

THE periodical press of Austria is virtually the press of Vienna. With a few notable exceptions, all the important publications of Austria are published in the capital. There is a large number of monthlies and weeklies, almost all, of course, published in German, which is the official language of Austria.

The dailies of the Austrian capital are numerous and excellently edited. Vienna, moreover, has the distinction of publishing one of the three best-known and most influential political journals of the world—the *Neue Freie Presse* (New Free Press). This journal is the organ of the Austrian foreign office. It shares with the *London Times* and the *Frankfurter Zeitung* the distinction of being a world-authority on international politics. It is one of the two European newspapers which President Roosevelt reads every day,—the *Independence Belge* being the other. During the first three quarters of the

past century, the *Presse* was the most influential of the Austrian dailies, and one of the best edited newspapers on the Continent. At the close of the Franco-Prussian War, the *Presse* was conducted by some of the ablest and best literary men in Europe, including Étienne, Friedlander, Bacher, and Benedikt. A desire for a newer and a larger field took possession of them, and they assisted in founding the *Neue Freie Presse*, to which they brought the high literary tone and broad outlook of the *Presse*. The older journal languished, and about five years ago it expired of inanition. The *Neue Freie Presse* was very influential during the days of Liberal ascendancy in Austria. It was the uncontrolled organ of the Liberal party; and almost all the statesmen of the empire, during a quarter of a century, have at some time or other entered the office of this newspaper and written editorials. This journal is now chiefly political,—perhaps not so

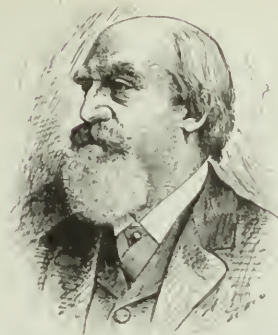
influential as formerly, because at present the Liberal party is not in power.

When the Vienna government wishes to make an official announcement, it does so through the *Fremdenblatt* (Foreign Journal); when it desires to impart very important information without official sanction, it does so through the *Neue Freie Presse*. The *Fremdenblatt* is really the organ of the minister of foreign affairs. It was founded by Baron Heine-Gehlern, the uncle of the famous poet. The *Zeit* (Times) is the newest of the daily journals, having been founded two years ago. It is not yet firmly established. An excellent daily of influence and large circulation is the *Neues Wiener Tageblatt* (New Vienna Daily), edited by the famous Singer. The *Allgemeine Zeitung* (General Herald) is one of the chief evening journals. The *Arbeiter Zeitung* (Workingman's Herald) is the organ of the Socialists. It is excellently edited and very outspoken. Formerly, before the Liberal treatment recently inaugurated by the government with regard to the censorship of the press, the *Arbeiter Zeitung* was confiscated nearly every other day. It is immensely popular. Among other dailies of the capital are the *Reichswehr* (National Defense); the *Vaterland* (Fatherland), the Catholic and Conservative organ; the *Deutsche Volksblatt* (German People's Paper), strongly anti-Semitic; the *Ostdeutsche Rundschau* (East German Review), radical and pan-German, and the *Illustrirte Extrablatt* (Illustrated Extra), making a specialty of sensations.

Outside of the capital, the best-known dailies are: The *Gratzer Tagespost* (Gratz Daily Post); the *Linzer Tagespost* (Linz Daily Post); the *Reichenberger Zeitung* (Reichenberg Herald); the *Brunn Morgenpost* (Brunn Morning Post); the *Trieste Piccolo* and *Matino* (in Italian); the *Innsbruck Tyroler Rundschau* (Tyrolean Review), and *Scherer* (*Scherer* is a dialect expression and cannot be translated), the latter a satirical, pan-German weekly; the *Sarjewe Bomschepost* and the *Karnetno Slovenroth* (in the Slavonic language).

Vienna publishes a number of bright, clever, and witty cartoon papers, chief among which are *Kikiriki* (Cock-a-doodle-doo), which is anti-Semitic; the *Figaro*; the *Humoristische Blätter* (Humorous Journal); the *Floh* (Flea); the *Bombe* (Bomb); the *Neue Glühlichter* (literally, New Incandescent Light), Socialistic; the *Pikante Blätter* (Piquante Journal), and the *Wiener Caricaturen* (Vienna Caricatures).

There is a vast number of artistic, technical, and scientific journals issued, most of them excellent typographically, but not of large circulation. *Ver Sacrum* (Holy Spring) is an artistic weekly, and the *Kunst und Kunsthandwerk* (Arts



THE LATE EDOUARD HANSLICK,
(For many years editor of the
Neue Freie Presse.)

and Craftmanship) are well known. *Interessante Blatt* (Interesting Journal), and the *Oesterreichische Illustrirte Zeitung* (Austrian Illustrated Herald) are picture weeklies of the same general character as the German *Illustrirte Zeitung*. Quotations in American and English periodicals are frequently made from the *Politische Correspondenz* (Political Correspondence), which is not a periodical in the true sense of the word, but primarily a news agency, originally founded to collect and disseminate information about the Balkans.

THE PERIODICAL PRESS OF BOHEMIA.

Although a population of only seven millions, the Bohemians (or Czechs, as they, more properly, call themselves) support a large number of periodicals. The standard of education being as high as it is both in the purely intellectual and in technical branches, there is a well-developed press to supplement and inspire it. Counting both languages—Czech and German—there are more than fifty daily newspapers published in Bohemia. These dailies are mainly political. Most of them, however, are in addition good newspapers, and they also discuss questions of public economy, social life, industries and trade, theaters, religion, etc. There are weeklies, numbering well into the hundreds, that also serve political purposes. Others deal with literature, art, and religion. The Bohemian comic papers are famous, as are also the trade publications.

Among the daily papers published in the Bohemian (Czech) language, the best and most widely circulated is the *Národní Listy* (National Journal), of Prague, the capital. Josef Anyz is the editor. He is a clever journalist and a publicist of prominence. The *Národní Listy* supports the so-called New, or Young, Czech party. The aim of the Young Czechs is to restore their country to its former rights,—that is to say, to achieve for the Bohemian kingdom dignity and autonomy. The same political tendencies as are advocated by the *Národní Listy* are followed more or less closely by the rest of the political papers in the Bohemian language. Among these we must mention the *Národní Politika* (National Politics); the *Rovnost* (Equality), the organ of



SOME REPRESENTATIVE BOHEMIAN PUBLICATIONS.

the Social Democrats, and the *Právo Lidu* (Human Rights), which stands for the aspirations of the Czech-Sloven Social Democrats. Among the weeklies, the most noteworthy are the *Zar* (March), which is read mostly by the laboring classes, and the *Nová Doba* (New World), which also advocates the platform of the Social Democrats. Of the dailies published in German, the best and most widely read is the *Bohemia*, which proclaims the party principles of the *Altdeutsche*, or Old Czech (German), party, and supports those political relations which now exist between Bohemia and Austria.

Among the Bohemian literary publications, the best known is the *Zvon* (Bell), which is of high literary standard. Around the *Zvon* are assembled the most promising representatives of Czech literature. Another periodical of great literary value is the *Devatenacté Století* (Nineteenth Century), an illustrated review. Its editor is Joseph R. Vilimck. The *Vyndlezy a Pokroky* (Discoveries and Progress), which publishes articles and pictures of the latest technical and other discoveries, belongs to the same class, as does also the *Po Stopách Maurů* (On the Trails of Architecture), which intro-

duces the world's architectural masterpieces in words and illustrations to its readers. Then there are *Zlatá Praha* (Golden Prague) and the *Kvety* (Blossoms), which are other illustrated literary weeklies. The *Štastný Domov* (Happy Home) is a journal for ladies, treating on household subjects in a charming manner. The *Paleček* and *Rok Na Vsi* are periodicals of higher literary quality, publishing the best products of Bohemian literature. Of the comic papers, the *Sip* (File), the *Rasple* (Grater), and the *Humoristické Listy* (Humorous Journal) are the best. There are two monthlies worthy of note, the *Česka Revue* (Bohemian Review) and the *Osvěta* (Enlightenment), both of Prague.

It is a characteristic feature of the press of Bohemia that the German publications are much stronger and wealthier in the matter of artistic printing, literary contents, and financial support than are their Czech rivals. The explanation of this fact can be found partly in the relations existing between Bohemia and Austria, partly in the fact that, as a result of these political relations, the German papers are supported and protected by the government, whereas the Czech papers must rely upon the support of the people.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

AN ITALIAN VIEW OF OUR PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

BEGINNING with the statement that nothing is more interesting to Latins than information about some phase of American political life, though Italians in general know no more of it than they do of classic Greece or Carthage, Francesco Bianchi gives in *Italia Moderna*, of Rome, a description of our recent Presidential election, and a really admirable sketch of President Roosevelt, together with interesting comments on American public life in general. November, he says, brings "with the well-known American vehemence, the daily oratorical battle on the platforms of the two historic parties, while a river of gold, inexhaustible as the words of the programme, follows the footsteps of the candidates. All will remember how in the preceding campaign between O'Bryan (*sic*) and Mac-Kinley, besides thousands of speeches delivered, hundreds of millions [of francs] were spent."

The writer credits our President with more power than any constitutional king or president of Europe, and says, "all the political life of the Union is centered in the hands of the head of the state," giving in detail his constitutional and other powers. As to the spoils system, he makes the exaggerated statement that "all the offices, from letter-carriers to judges, from doorkeeper to a ministry to the most powerful director-general, are assigned to new men belonging to the victorious party."

Recounting the political history of our country up to Roosevelt, he calls him "the representative man of the most fervid generation of the vigorous republic," and sees in his varied career a reflection of the organization of American society. Here we quote again :

In America, the man is everything. The great social machine of American civil life, the most complex, the most active, the gravest that is in progress among all the nations of the world, should be considered as free (untied) in every single member. This society lacks what the French call rigid *charpente*,—that is, it has no framework ; is free from that formal ceiling, under which, relatively unchangeable, European civil life settles down.

From this comes the stirring and rapid American activity, whose ever-varied results amaze us with marvels. American men move as freely in the organism of

national life as do blood globules in the veins. This is the fundamental principle reigning in the constitutional organization of the United States. The functions of each office in the state are clearly and rather rigidly divided, but the men move freely, pass like drops of water through a sieve. It is Montesquien's theory applied in its best sense,—power checked by power,—while the active liberty of the individual is every day increased and better guaranteed.

The American man knows from his youth that he must be apt for any social activity, continues this Italian writer. He looks on the state as a field that can be entirely traversed, in the most diverse directions. "If to-day an American works in a post-office, to-morrow he may very well sit as judge in a court, and then be on the police, or a legislator, or even elected Vice-President or President of the Union."

We Europeans are generally classified by the state like other objects, according to our functions and specialized activities, which we do not quit during our lives. We are a particular species of man,—lawyer, professor, office-holder, magistrate, etc., but we are not man, man in the noble integrity of his active consciousness, prepared to welcome and perform any manifestation of civil life. The American youth forms his personality in the struggle of life itself, into which he launches himself as soon as he is old enough. He receives that virile education that Tacitus records in regard to the young Romans of the last years of the republic, who *pugnare in praetio discabant*. Thus, the Yankee enters into political life without scruples of prejudice, without scholastic preconceptions and academic bonds. And thus Roosevelt set out in his public career as a combatant, and came to the Presidency, not through an official hierarchy, but through the varied activity of a life lived intensely.

This writer says that since the two American political parties have abandoned all special differences of programme, it is just that the man who sums up in his personality the essential characteristics of the people he is to represent should be chosen. Quoting the French writer, J. Charles Roux, who said Theodore Roosevelt appeared "a great man, a little summary, who lacks only a few centuries of civilization," Mr. Bianchi declares that this judgment applies subtly and justly to the whole population of North America. He believes that in saying that the old nations had a "morbidness of

character that develops culture and refinement at the expense of the qualities that assure the triumph of the race," President Roosevelt had in mind the fact that the Roman republic suffered more from the banquets and songs in the

house of Claudia than from the agitation and tumults of Claudius and Catiline. In other words, his strenuosity is taken as "an intentional protest against the decay of luxury and the weakness of civic character that it entails."

THE REASONS FOR AMERICA'S SYMPATHY WITH JAPAN.

NONE of the bugbears raised by the fears of Europe in the present conflict between Russia and Japan have been able to influence the opinion of the American people. And this fact M. Louis Aubert, who has studied and lectured in this country, declares, in an article in the *Revue de Paris*, is due principally to the history and the geographical situation of the United States, as well as to the occupations of most of its people. The cry of a yellow race against a white race, of barbarians against civilized people, of Pagans against Christians,—these have had no effect on the American people. M. Aubert recalls the fact that it was in the search for the far East, for the western passage to India, that Columbus found the new world—America. Ever since then, he continues, American progress has been westward. America and American interests have gone west so far that they have reached the East. When the United States became a nation, Americans looked for the passage to India. When Louisiana had been bought from France, almost immediately Lewis and Clark set out on that exploring tour through our Great West to the Pacific.

As early as 1843, President Tyler wrote to the Emperor of China that the domains of these two rulers touched but for the ocean. Ten years later, with his cannon, Commodore Perry opened Japan to the commerce of the West. Fifteen years after this, in 1869, the first transcontinental railroad united the Atlantic with the Pacific. And now the Panama Canal is being built by the Yankee. All the routes of the Pacific are in American possession. From San Francisco, one goes to China, to Japan, to the Philippines, and to Hawaii; from Puget Sound, to Japan, by way of the Aleutians, to Australia, to Samoa. With the Aleutian Islands on the north and the Philippines on the south, the United States almost surround the Japanese domain. Discovered and explored by Europeans, who were attracted by the mirage of the Orient, America, inheritor of the desires and aims of Europe, makes to-day Europe's historic march to the extreme Orient.

On the morning following the attack on Port Arthur, says this French writer, American

sympathy was practically unanimous for Japan. He attributes this ready sympathy largely to the preparedness of mind brought about by newspaper dispatches furnished to the United States principally through London. Even the American Associated Press, he declares, depends largely on information from sources under British "inspiration." He cites other reasons for American sympathy with Japan: (1) the Anglo-Saxon tendency to always sympathize with the "under dog;" (2) the "smartness" of the Japanese (a quality which, he tells us, is first in the estimation of the American people); (3) the fact that, having opened Japan to the world, the United States regards the Japs as her pupils. He recalls the fact that, according to the Japanese census of 1900, 123,900 Japanese resided abroad, and of these 90,100 were in the United States or in American possessions. Of the 940 students outside of Japan, 554 were at American universities. After the revolution of 1868, the reform of the national education scheme in Japan was brought about according to American counsel.

The whole life of the Japanese has been impressed with the American spirit. From the financial system and the public schools, from the organization of political parties down to the trolley cars and the game of baseball—all these are American. The Americans, therefore, feel that the Japanese are their scholars. The greater part of the important books written on Japanese civilization are in the English language, by far the most of them written by Englishmen or Americans. Buddhism, this writer claims, makes its stand in the United States in the form of Christian Science, which he compares to the elder religious belief. There is a tendency also among American progressive Japanese to admit the influence, if not to adopt the principles, of Protestant Christianity, and to eradicate the orthodoxy of the Russian Church, despite the missionary labors of that body.

On the other hand, we are told that the Japanese have exerted an influence on the Americans, particularly in matters of art. There are many collections of Japanese art in the United States, this writer declares, some of them the best in the world outside of Japan. A number

of American artists, he says further, notably John La Farge and Whistler, have shown how strong an influence Japanese art can have. Whistler shows this influence in the combinations of his colors,—his grays, his blacks, his roses, in his fine comprehension of color value, and in his taste for harmonious shades. He loves that subdued color which marked the best period of Japanese art. The interests of the two people in the Pacific are very close. The commercial relations of Japan with the United States have developed more rapidly than those of Japan and any other country. Exports and imports are greatest from the United States. All these reasons, sentimental, artistic, historic, religious, and economic, explain the familiarity which Japanese minds and influence have for Americans. It was only necessary to make a short tour of the St. Louis Fair (the Japanese endeavored to show by the extent of their exhibits that all their force had not been taken up by the war) to observe in Americans of all classes a sort of brotherly love for the little Japs, who are as hardy and as confident of their future as the Yankees themselves.

IS AMERICAN OPINION ANTI-RUSSIAN ?

American opinion, says M. Aubert, is not only pro-Japanese—it is anti-Russian. Several generations ago, the friendship of Russia for the United States was a generally believed tradition, but during recent years enmity to Great Britain, which had been Russia's card in this game, was transferred to Germany, and with the growing friendship between the two English-speaking peoples there came to the United States a little of English dislike of the Russians. Then, Americans do not know Russia. When they go abroad, they go to Europe or Japan. Russia does not seem to attract them. It is a comparatively new country. Americans do not know its literature or its art. They know Tolstoi and a few fragments of Russian music; but the realism of the Russian story-tellers they know not. I have often heard, he says, Americans declare that Russia has no art.

American travelers are continually harping upon the dirt and ignorance of the muzhik and his superstition before the icons. To them he is a poor sort of fellow,



From the London Graphic.

GENERAL KUROKI AND HIS FAMILY AT THEIR HOME IN TOKIO.

scarcely emerged from savagery, knowing nothing of the benefits of a public school. He is not a citizen, but is chained for life to a low level of opportunity. To an American, all civilization which does not give to the poor man a chance to become a millionaire is to be condemned.

There are other reasons for an unfavorable opinion of Russia obtaining in America. The subjects of the empire,—Russians, Poles, Jews, Armenians,—who come to the United States as immigrants, by their oppressed and neglected appearance and their superstitious ignorance, confirm this opinion. Then, some Americans have had disagreeable experiences in Russia and Siberia with the passport system, the censor, and the police. Many of those Russians who have visited the United States have been wealthy, dissolute members of the aristocratic class. Americans who have written about Russia have mostly seen its unfavorable side. Hebrews all over the world have denounced Russia and the Russian people, and to crown it all, Count Leo Tolstoi, the most eminent of Russians, has himself bitterly denounced the conditions, theories of life, and actualities in the empire. Tolstoi is read much more than all Russian writers combined in all Anglo-Saxon countries, and his views are accepted as right and proper.

Turning to political matters, M. Aubert declares that Russia and the United States are naturally at enmity because of differences of policy, political and economic, in the far East. There is not room for both in Manchuria, according to the Russian idea, and, on the other hand, Americans are likely to insist, possibly with force, upon the policy of the open door.

The whole history of the Manchurian problem has shown the widening distance between Russian and American views. The Russian diplomacy, this French writer points out, has always been characterized chiefly by a certain subtlety and shrewdness, which is not understood and is bound to be disliked in the United States. Russian diplomats prefer cunning, while American diplomacy is nothing if not frank and direct. The construction of the Trans-Siberian Railroad to Vladivostok and Port Arthur, and the operation of the American Great Northern to the Pacific coast, have brought the economic advance of the two peoples almost within fighting distance. Americans, this French writer declares, have become alarmed and jealous over Russia's economic success in Siberia and China. The people of the United States, he believes, would not object to Russia opening up and developing this great territory, if she would permit free competition with other nations; but Russia realizes that she

cannot do this with safety to her own as yet crudely developed industries.

The American people, says M. Aubert, believe that a victorious Japan will mean larger markets for them. They do not realize, however, that the Japanese, if victorious, will surely become serious rivals of American industries. This writer doubts Japan's sincerity in her declaration to adhere to the policy of the open door. If Uncle Sam has any fear of Japanese rivalry, he conceals it in face of the greater danger at present,—the Russian advance.

If, however, the Russian advance be arrested for twenty years, the Panama Canal will be completed, the American commercial advance on Asia solidly begun, and the American navy sufficient for its protection. It will be a China developed and unified by the telegraph, by the railroad, by Japanese educational methods, by newspapers, and by a new monetary system. It will be China awakened, ready to defend herself against foreign interference, and offering her four hundred millions of people as the finest of markets of the world. This is the dream of the Americans.

RUSSIA'S CIVILIZING WORK IN CENTRAL ASIA.

THE recent opening to traffic of the Russian Orenburg-Tashkent Railway has called the world's attention anew to the civilizing work of the Muscovite Empire in central and western Asia. Mr. J. M. Maclean, in a paper on English policy in Asia, which he contributes to *East and West*, takes up M. Lessar's favorite project of the solution of the central Asian question by the construction of a trunk line uniting Turkestan with India *via* Herat. Mr. Maclean says:

People who regard Russia merely as a conquering power must be aware of the immense services she has rendered to civilization. Of these, one of the greatest, is her construction of Asiatic railways which reach the frontiers of Persia, Afghanistan, and China, and which should be ranked among the principal highways of the world. On a visit I made to India in 1898, I was so strongly impressed with the advantages India would derive from connecting her own railways with the Russian system, and so completing in a few short years a real overland line without a break by sea from Calais to Calcutta, that on my return to England I sought an interview with Lord Salisbury for the purpose of trying to induce him to use his great influence in favor of such an enterprise. Lord Salisbury expressed much sympathy with my views, but evidently his distrust of Russian sincerity made him doubt if it was possible to carry into effect the international arrangement I suggested. Soon after my conversation with Lord Salisbury, I had a long interview with Baron de Staal, the late Russian ambassador to London, and he made no secret of his opinion that the coöperation of England and Russia in a great international work would give the best guarantee we could desire for the advancement of civiliza-

tion and the peace of the world. "I am sure," he added, "that all the leading statesmen in London and St. Petersburg advocate the view which I have expressed to you, but we have Jingoism in our country, as you have in yours, and it is they who do all the mischief."

Russia in Turkestan.

In considering Russia's Asiatic possessions, particularly her conquests of the past two decades, the *Revue Universelle* (Paris) presents a descriptive historical sketch of Turkestan. The ancient historical importance of this region is recalled, and the civilizing work of Russian administration is emphasized. To-day, says the writer of the article (M. Treffel), there is the promise of a great industrial and commercial future. There are many mineral products, notably gold, lead, and iron. There are also naphtha wells. Manufactures of cotton, leather, and oil products are increasing. The writer reminds us that Tashkent, the capital of the government, has a population of 157,000, of which 18,000 are Russian; that it is a very ancient city, having been occupied by nearly all the Asiatic conquerors, notably Ghengis Khan and Tamerlane. It fell under Russian domination in 1865. The next largest city is Samarkand, with a population of 55,000. Then come Kokand (37,000) and Merv (11,000). Merv is an important center for caravan routes from Persia, Afghanistan, and Bokhara, and great quantities of carpets, silks, and metal work pass through it from Asia to Europe.

THE SCIENCES IN JAPANESE UNIVERSITIES.

PROF. K. MIWA, of the University of Kioto, complains, in *La Revue*, because, in articles in the European periodical press about education and educators in Japan, the fact which is most frequently emphasized is the pride and boasting of the Japanese professors and students. It is not fair, this writer claims, to pick out a fault which is found also among Western peoples and to emphasize it as though it were a dominant trait of Japanese life. Japanese teachers, he declares, have the truly scientific spirit in as large a measure as have teachers in any other country of the world. Formerly, it was

not supposed that the Oriental mind was so constituted as to be able to apply itself successfully to higher mathematics. Professor Miwa contradicts this statement. Of course, the mathematical proficiency of the Hindus in the very highest branches is now a matter of common knowledge. This Japanese writer informs us that generations ago the science of mathematics was cultivated in China and Japan. For generations, both the Chinese and the Japanese, he declares, have known the ellipse and the parabola, and to day the Japanese are well versed even in Occidental mathematical symbols. Among



THE FACULTY OF THE WASEDA UNIVERSITY, TOKIO, JAPAN, FOUNDED BY COUNT HIGENOBU OKUMA.

(Some of the noteworthy individuals are indicated in the picture by the following numbers: 1, K. Hatoyama, president of the university; 5, K. Fuji-i, professor of moral science; 7, T. Inoue, professor of economy; 9, Baron Maejima, founder of the postal system of Japan; 15, Y. Motora, eminent psychologist; 16, W. Kaneko, professor of the science of education; 19, J. Soeda, president of the Industrial Bank; 20, the late Lafcadio Hearn; 25, T. Yokoi, professor of agriculture; 26, I. Iwaya, famous author of juvenile novels; 27, Rev. D. Yebina, famous Christian preacher; 28, S. Uchigasaki, professor of English literature.)

those who have done high-grade original work in this line, he mentions Professor Fujisawa, who studied in Germany under the famous Kronecker. Professor Fujisawa has published a learned work on "The Theorem of the Multiplication of the Functions of the Ellipse," and he was the official delegate of Japan to the Congress of Mathematicians at Paris in 1900. Professor Nogaoka, also, of the physical department of the University of Tokio, has made some contributions to our knowledge of the relations between magnetism and torsion.

It is in the science of seismology, however, that Japan is preëminent, and this preëminence, Professor Miwa points out, is not to be wondered at when one remembers the fact that Japan is a country of many earthquake shocks. When the English students Milne and Ewing were forced to discontinue their studies of earthquakes in Japan, they left their work to be continued by Professor Sëkiya, of the University of Tokio. This gentleman invented instruments for the registration of earthquake shocks. He has also contributed to many scientific periodicals. In chemical research, mention should be made of Professor Yoshida, of the University of Kioto, who has made a deep study of lacquer work, and also of Mr. Shimoyana, professor of pharmacy at the University of Tokio, who greatly improved the process of manufacturing camphor for the market. Of course, this writer does not forget to pay a tribute to Dr. Shimose, the engineer of the

ministry of marine, who invented the powder which is being used so effectively in the present war. He mentions, also, Dr. Kitasato, famous for his bacteriological investigations, and Drs. Miura and Shiga, professors of the University of Tokio, who have investigated the diseases of dysentery and beriberi. In applied mathematics, and especially in architecture, Professor Ito, of the University of Tokio, is referred to as having published one of the authoritative works on ancient architecture in Japan, China, and Korea. Among purely philosophical writers, Professor Miwa mentions Dr. Tetsujiro and Mr. Ariga, the latter an authority on international law.

A description of the Japanese primary and secondary school system is then given, with a brief history of the creation of the two principal universities of the empire, those of Tokio and Kioto. The University of Tokio comprises the university proper and six other faculties,—those of law, letters, sciences, engineering, medicine, and agriculture. In the faculty of letters, there are institutes of Japanese, Chinese, English, French, and German literatures. The number of students which up to the present have finished the courses of the university is about five thousand, and at the present session there are some three thousand five hundred students. The university has a library containing more than five hundred thousand volumes, a hospital, an astronomical observatory which prints a yearly almanac, a botanical garden, a maritime biological station, and a school of forestry.

AMERICA IN THE PHILIPPINES—A FRENCH VIEW.

IT has become a fashion for European writers to declare that the United States is bent on a policy of imperialism, and make this policy date from the battle of Manila. And so, of course, M. René Pinon, the French writer on politics and economics, begins in just this way his study, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, of what has been accomplished by American administration in the Philippine Islands, basing his article on the Taft report.

In the Philippines, says M. Pinon, the Americans encountered a slightly new problem in colonization. Instead of having to do with a Pagan, savage people, they found they had conquered a Christian people, with a certain degree of civilization. How, he asks, have the American political ideals been applied to the Philippine Islands? On the whole, this French writer believes the Americans have done well, but their ideals have suffered. M. Pinon reminds us

of the fact that in the Philippines, Americans are confronted by a debilitating climate; that, having denounced Spanish tyranny in Cuba and the Philippines, they are confronted with temptations to exercise the same tyranny; ardent advocates of the emancipation of peoples, they have a chance to apply this doctrine in the islands, and decide whether they should admit the yellow peoples and keep out the blacks. How can they, he asks, clamor for the "open door" in the extreme Orient and shut it in the Philippines? He compliments the United States on having published so many excellent reports on its work in its far-Eastern possessions.

The United States authorities, this writer declares, have displayed a naïveté which is remarkable in the matter of the Philippines. They do not seem to have understood that a people with all the traditions of civilization, with an art and professing one branch of the

Christian religion, could not appreciate the good intentions of the Americans, but must rebel and desire a government of their own. He condemns the introduction of Chinese into the islands as being a violation of the American idea,—the Philippines for the Filipinos. It is inevitable, he declares, that the archipelago should now become a colony of the United States, exploited by the Chinese for the Americans. Referring to the negotiations between the government at Washington and the Vatican for the disposition to be made of the church lands and the friars in the Philippines, M. Pinon re-

marks that the first step of the United States on its road to imperialism conducted it to Rome. Americans should beware lest they get deeper into ecclesiastical politics than is good for them. While they have done well, the Americans have not, this writer insists, really accomplished any lasting result. In overturning completely an ancient social edifice, built upon an Oriental foundation by Spanish hands, they have not succeeded, and will never succeed, in erecting in its place a modern state or a nation organized on the republican model of the United States of America.

LORD CURZON ON BRITAIN'S WORK IN INDIA.

GREAT BRITAIN'S work in India is "righteous and it shall endure." This is the declaration of Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, in an article in the *World's Work* on the future of British India. During the past five years, says Lord Curzon, Britain's work in her vast Asiatic possession has been one of reform and reconstruction. Progress has been made and taxes reduced. Every department of the government was thoroughly overhauled.

We endeavored to frame a plague policy which should not do violence to the instincts and sentiments of the native population; a famine policy which should profit by the experience of the past and put us in a position to cope with the next visitation when unhappily it bursts upon us; an educational policy which should free the intellectual activities of the Indian people, so keen and restless, from the paralyzing clutch of examinations; a railway policy that will provide administratively and financially for the great extension that we believe to lie before us; an irrigation policy that will utilize to the maximum, whether remuneratively or unremuneratively, all the available water resources of India, not merely in canals,—I almost think we have reached the end there,—but in tanks and reservoirs and wells; a police policy that will raise the standard of the only emblem of authority that the majority of the people see, and will free them from petty diurnal tyranny and oppression. I am glad that our finances in India have placed us in the position to give the people the first reduction of taxation that they have enjoyed in twenty years. We have endeavored to render the land revenue more equable in its incidence, to lift the load of usury from the shoulders of the peasant, and to check that reckless alienation of the soil which in many parts of the country was fast converting him from a free proprietor to a bond-slave. We have done our best to encourage industries which, little by little, will relieve the congested field of agriculture, develop the indigenous resources of India, and make that country more and more self-providing in the future.

After a review of India's strategic importance to the British Empire, and of the vast difficulties

and responsibilities of her administration, Lord Curzon sums up the destiny of Britain in India in these prophetic words:

It is seventeen years since I first visited India; it is fourteen years since I first had the honor of being con-



LORD CURZON.
(Viceroy of India.)

nected with its administration. India was the first love, and throughout all that time it has been the main love, of my political life. I have given it some of my best years. Perhaps I may be privileged to give it yet

more. But no man could do this unless he saw before India a larger vision or were himself inspired with a fuller hope. If our empire were to end to-morrow, I do not think we need be ashamed of its epitaph. It would have done its duty by India and justified its mission to mankind. But it is not going to end. It is not a moribund organism. It is still in its youth, and has in it the unexhausted purpose. I am not with the pessimists in this matter. I am not one of those who think that we have built a mere fragile plank between the East and West which the roaring tides of Asia will presently sweep away. I do not think our work is over or that it is drawing to an end. On the contrary, as the years roll by the call seems to me more clear, the duty more imperative, the work more majestic, the goal more sublime. I believe that we have in our power to weld the people of India to a unity greater than any they have ever heretofore dreamed of, and to give them blessings greater than any they now enjoy. Let no man admit the craven fear that those who have won India cannot hold it or that we have only made India to our own or to its unmaking. That is not the true reading of history. That is not my forecast of the future. To me the message is carved in granite; it is hewn out of the rock of doom,—our work is righteous and it shall endure.

The Men Who Govern India.

Speaking at a recent luncheon of the lord mayor of London, Lord Curzon paid a high tribute to the men by whom India is governed. They are all "inspired by the Englishman's

passion for responsibility." He is reported as saying :

They are drawn from every part of the country and every rank of society. They are typical of the best of the British race and of British life. Some of them are the pick of your universities. Others take to India names that have already been borne in that country by generations before them. Accident, no doubt, takes some into the civil service, hereditary associations take others, but I believe that it is the Englishman's passion for responsibility, his zest for action in a large field, that is the ruling motive with most. And I think that they are right, for in India initiative is hourly born. There great deeds are constantly being done, there is room for fruition, there is a horizon for resolution. It is true that the names of these men are not on the lips of their countrymen—their faces are unknown—but allow me to say for them, on this rare occasion when I have the opportunity of speaking, that they are the real empire-builders, for in the sweat of their brow have they laid the foundations of which you in England only see the fair and glittering superstructure as it rears its head into the sky. I sometimes think that in the catalogue of our national virtues we hardly lay sufficient stress upon the enormous administrative ability of the English race,—I speak of ability as distinguished from the moral ingredients of character and courage, which are the more obvious elements of success; and yet, in all parts of the empire, we have an amount of administrative ability which is the envy of every other empire-possessing nation in the world.

THE FUTURE OF THE WAR CORRESPONDENT.

IF war correspondents have been anything more than picturesque and costly luxuries to the papers and magazines that have employed them, they are certainly nothing more, since their dismal failure in the last two or three wars. Since the Boer War, says one of them, writing in *Gunton's Magazine*, "they have ceased to be even picturesque." They have always, continues this writer, been a source of care, and an impediment and nuisance to armies in the field. But they have generally been tolerated because of the great influence of the press and the desire of the people at home to read something, truth or fiction, about the soldiers in the field.

This writer believes that the Russo-Japanese War has already seen the end of the war correspondent. He never could do the thing that was expected of him. "At best, he is one man in one place, sees but one arc of a great uncomprehended circle of events; a battle may be won and lost thirty miles from where the correspondent stands." If one should take the trouble to compare the newspaper accounts of any recent war by the most accurate correspondents in the

field with the story of the campaign as afterward compiled from official documents of the commanders engaged, this writer declares it would seem to him that he was reading the accounts of entirely different operations. The British people were made to believe, in the first months of the war with the Boers, that the South African farmers were insignificant, cowardly, poor shots, and wholly ignorant of warfare. The whole world now knows how much suffering and misery this false impression cost the British army before the truth was learned. Something even worse occurred in our war with Spain, says this writer. A small army of correspondents was sent, with photographers, to "picture to an over-excited public the glories of the American invasion of Cuba." It is not too much to say, continues this writer, that "every battle of the war, from the first landing to the surrender of Santiago, was distorted and even, it must be confessed, deliberately misrepresented, in the interest of picturesqueness or of popular prejudice." He refers particularly to the battle of Santiago, and says :

The first day's fighting was utterly indecisive, ex-

cept at El Caney, where the Americans, almost ten to one, succeeded, after ten or twelve hours, in overcoming a handful of Spaniards who did not have a single gun. The only credit possible in this action was due the Spaniards, who fought with the utmost valor and stubbornness; and yet El Caney was heralded by the American correspondents as a magnificent victory of American arms, and the American forces engaged were greatly minimized, while the Spaniards were greatly multiplied.

He refers, also, to the glorification of the volunteers, whereas all the really meritorious work was done by the regular army. This, he says, has been a shame to the American press and an insult to the American army.

Taking up the case of the Russo-Japanese War, he praises the imperial authorities at Tokio for their policy with the war correspondents. Both Russians and Japanese, from the very beginning, he declares, showed themselves averse to allow any correspondent with the fighting line. The Russians have permitted some censored dispatches to be sent. The Japanese adopted a more rigorous, a more effective, and a more honest attitude, which has been generally approved by the more thoughtful of the American journals. "Japan is fighting grimly for her life, and cares more to protect her strategy from the enemy than to placate a morbid or imaginary public opinion on the other side of the globe." It was not a question of mere courtesy, says this writer; there was too much at stake.

While the passing of the war correspondent would mean a loss to the world, this writer believes it would have its compensating advantages.

We should not have to correct our point of view with every day's news from the front. We should not be harrowed by tidings of disaster in the evening to find the next morning that it was a false rumor. We should not have to read accounts of battle in which the pronoun "I" figures fifty times in a few paragraphs. We should also be permitted to give due credit to the commander in the field, with a little less glory to the war correspondent, who, after all, does not really win the battle. We should also get closer to the real facts of the war, even if the news were a little late and cold. In this country, and in England also, we should have what is very greatly needed, a proper treatment of the soldiers who fight the battles and win victories, and not the senseless glorification, for political or advertising purposes, of the volunteer troops and officers.

A Suggestion as to Future War Reporting.

Just before he died, the late Julian Ralph, after completing a brilliant campaign of newspaper service in the Boer War, remarked, "This is the last war in which there will be war correspondents with the armies in the field." Mr. Frederick W. Unger, himself a correspondent, echoes and indorses these words, and adds (in an article in the *Booklovers Magazine*), "To-

day, the war reporter alone survives." Denied employment by the military authorities of both Japan and Russia, the war correspondent, Mr. Unger believes, is in danger of being laughed out of existence. The correspondent of earlier wars, this writer points out, was a man of official standing:

He had a status—largely determined by his personality—comparable with the army rank of colonel. He enjoyed exceptional advantages and was often in the confidence of the commanding officers. Neither confidence nor advantage was ever abused. He was discreet, gentlemanly, and able—a master of his craft. Archibald Forbes, Julian Ralph, Bennett Burleigh, Frederic Villiers, Melton Prior, and G. W. Steevens occur to the reader immediately as examples of this type. With pencil, with brush, he pictured the truth for the millions to ponder. He was the public's official representative. His mission was to furnish news, but never "information" in the military sense.

During the Boer War, Mr. Unger goes on to say, Lord Roberts gave the world the best principles for the accurate regulation of war correspondents. He gave a free hand to a limited number of correspondents worthy of being put on their honor, and permitted the uncensored publication of their material within a month or more after it was written. Mr. Unger's suggested plan would be somewhat as follows:

The first step is to provide for the registration of correspondents. In times of peace, the war department should receive applications for correspondents' licenses, and after fully satisfying themselves regarding the applicants' qualifications, the examining officials should place the names of those found worthy upon an approved list. When occasion arises, correspondents can then be selected from a body of men of proved ability and assured character. The men thus chosen should be given the full privileges of the front and allowed to write as they choose. Their material should be sealed and committed to the military authorities, to be dispatched when these officials see fit. The matter could thus be held until the official in charge was satisfied that no harm could come to campaign operations from publication, but when published the letters should be given to the world precisely as the correspondents wrote them. After all, it is not important that the public should know immediately of every movement in the field, but it is of the highest importance that the military authorities should always act with the knowledge that all the essential facts of their operations will reach the public sooner or later. Civilization needs a witness—an unprejudiced witness—at the very front in warfare, to guard against the grave dangers of a militarism which feels itself exempt from criticism. . . .

In operation, the plan I have proposed would insure the employment of men of a higher type than many who have been in the field in recent wars, and whose abuse of privileges has brought the profession into disrepute. In fact, the "covering" of a war by special representatives might even pass from the great dailies to the weekly or monthly magazines, with advantage to all concerned.

SOBER RUSSIAN OPINION ON THE WAR.

THE saner minds in Russian journalism are beginning to find it necessary to issue an emphatic warning against the boastfulness and self-deception which are rampant in the columns of the Russian press. In a retrospective view of the first eight months of the war, *Mir Bozhi*, the high-class review of St. Petersburg, notes with regret that there is a great scarcity of good literature on the present conflict, but a great excess of meaningless phraseology. There have appeared only a few books on Japan and Korea in Russia, most of them translations, and but two or three articles worthy of note. But the newspapers (referring only to those of the two capital cities), says this review, are "remarkable for their nonsense notwithstanding the seriousness of the present moment."

It began with the very first day of the war, when one of the "yellow" papers published the first canard about the destruction of the Japanese fleet at Port Arthur. This canard was so naïve and so foolishly coarse that it could scarcely be placed on the same level with the succeeding abundance of "authentic news from Chefu." . . . These empty vaporings were at first limited to the caricaturing of the enemy, in which the yellow papers vied with one another. Their example was followed even by journals that lay claim to solidity. For instance, Mr. Suvorin in his "Parliament of Opinions," has represented Japan as the devil. "Why should we not show this devil," he writes in the *Novoye Vremya* of February 12, "that it is premature for him to sound the cry of triumph, and that he has prematurely begun to wag his tail."

The terrible ten-day battle at Liao-Yang stopped for a time this newspaper nonsense. At least, its chief promulgator, the elder Suvorin, unexpectedly stated: "I am not a military critic, and retreat is retreat to me. . . . We are the vanquished and they are the conquerors." The ink on his pen had scarcely dried before one of his contributors started the customary tune:

No, we have gained a great victory at Liao-Yang, and we should not have failed in this day of real national triumph, of our great but not boastful might, to ring our bells, to celebrate throughout the nation, to fire salutes in honor of the battle.

RUSSIAN OFFICERS PROTEST.

This reckless frivolity went so far that the real soldiers found that they were compelled to defend themselves, not merely against the Japanese, but against the newspaper correspondents. In the *Novoye Vremya* of September 1, there appeared a letter from an officer of the second Cossack regiment of Nerchinsk, Count Benken-dorf, who wrote:

Having read the article "Smyelaya Razvyedka," in the *Novoye Vremya*, I find it necessary to state that,

although I really participated in the reconnoissance referred to, I did not witness any of the terrible incidents described, and finding in general that the article in question does not at all correspond with the truth, I request that this statement of mine be printed in full, for I do not wish to see my name appear in such stories, altogether at variance with the truth.

Not a little was contributed to this state of affairs by the newspaper correspondents themselves. "With a single stroke of the pen they destroyed entire divisions, or even whole armies, as was done, for instance, by Garin, who had won renown by destroying the 'third' Japanese army at Port Arthur." Having confessed, in the utterances of Nemirovich-Danchenko, that they could not report the truth, partly because they do not know it, and partly because for one reason or another they are obliged to withhold it, "our jingoes, without the least compunction, composed what they pleased."

In general, in their account of the Japanese forces, these papers displayed a "double-entry" bookkeeping. In all engagements these forces were always double in numbers the Russian forces. On the other hand, according to the self-same papers, the Japanese had exhausted all their forces, so that for lack of proper material the ranks were filled with old men and children. At one time there were even Japanese amazons in the enemy's ranks. After Liao-Yang, the newspaper strategists announced suddenly that according to Chinese reports there were five hundred thousand Japanese in that battle.

Is it not time, asks *Mir Bozhi*, to discard this bombast? "Whom can we expect to attract by it, much less to convince by it?"

In the end, the inventors themselves will be the only victims. Above all things, this is not profitable. Had we known the truth about Japan as we know it now, a year ago, it is possible that the war would have been avoided. The truth is even more necessary now, when the possibility of peace without injury to the interests of Russia is becoming clearer to those who are not befuddled by imperialism; to those who, notwithstanding the thick mist of empty phraseology, see clearly the terrible reality; to those who *really* love their country, unlike those whose patriotism consists of mere words. . . . Enough. Let truth at last shine on us in all its brightness. The Russian heart is yearning for it.

Prince Meshcherski's Comment.

Prince Meshcherski wrote a very striking article in his paper, the *Grazhdanin* (Citizen), in which he denounces the jingoistic tone of the *Novoye Vremya*. He then sums up the arguments advanced by the peace party. Russia, he says, has not suffered any essential defeat; she has only felt the effects of the numerical superiority of her antagonist's army and navy, and conformed her military operations accordingly. Russia, then, is not forced to court peace at any

price, and can continue the war. She can, therefore, without impairing her honor and dignity, now offer her antagonist, who is as brave as she, peace terms with the sole aim to put an end to such horrible bloodshed on both sides. This idea is growing in favor all over the empire among the thinking classes. An offer of this kind, says Prince Meshcherski, cannot be made too soon for the sake of both Russia and her present antagonist. He continues:

Besides, it is of more advantage for both sides to end the horrors of the war earlier than later, because peace directly concluded between the combatants can render the situation in the far East and the mutual relations of the two countries more stable than when the Japanese will be forced, at some indefinite time, to accept a temporary peace, which may lead to endless series of wars with Japan, not to mention the danger of a Japanized China. Moreover, it is easy to "down" Japan by comfortably roaring at the editorial desk, but we would need ten years of war, twenty army corps, and a navy of treble its present strength to disable her, without gaining anything in the end. For America, England, China, and Italy are behind Japan. Finally, with our defective training, our loose ideas of duty, and the lack of harmony with which our whole country is honeycombed, can we pledge ourselves to prepare for war honestly and energetically and to be regenerated for this task?

A Russian Bishop on Immorality in the Far East.

Innokenty, Russian bishop in China, condemning the savage orgies of the Russians in Manchuria, and especially in Dalny, on the very eve of the war, in the same number of *Mir Bozhi*, declares that the recent events in the far East are the result of the disorganized state of affairs in Russia's distant border regions. "It is no secret, he says, that these events have "taken us by surprise and forced us to make great sacrifices, owing to our general lack of harmony," and continues:

It is indisputable that the loss of the best part of our navy and the fact of our coming very near having a second Sebastopol are solely due to our habitual indolence and self-conceit. Whole hordes of disreputable Japanese women that were recently expelled from the new Russian settlements is an eloquent testimony against the state of morals prevalent here. Such gross immorality could not fail to arouse in the natives disgust with the Russian, whose professed aim is to civilize the non-Slavic tribes. The conviction grows upon one, in crossing over from the new Russian towns into the Chinese, that these latter are morally far superior to the former. Several times recently, at the stations of the Chinese Eastern Railway, I came across sick soldiers, and I can positively affirm that nine-tenths of all the patients were suffering as a result of immoral excess.

CAN CHINA BE MADE A GREAT POWER?

SUCCESSING an almost innumerable procession of magazine articles on the "yellow peril," one notices in the Continental European reviews a few thoughtful papers analyzing the Chinese character and demonstrating how "incurably peaceful" the Chinaman is. In fact, as the political and economic writer, Alexander Ular, points out in *La Revue*, the whole psychology of the Chinese people would have to be revolutionized before it could become an essentially military one. Since the days of Lao tse and Confucius, the national,—or, one might say, the racial,—ideal of the Chinese has been (the words are those of Lao-tse), "that China might grow old and die, without increasing her size or responsibility."

This political ideal lives to-day in China after twenty-five centuries. The existence of a Chinese Empire is a delusion; for this existence is without what to our Occidental eyes is indispensable to constitute a nation.

The national unity of China is nothing more than an appearance. As for linguistic unity, there is none. Administrative unity is simply the wish of a dynasty. Monetary unity does not exist. Judicial unity is broken up every day. Military unity has never been sought

after. . . . The Chinaman has no fatherland; he has a native district. He knows nothing of the political problem; he interests himself only in economic problems. He has no nation; he has a family. He has no state; he has a society. He has no sovereign; he has only government officials.

The social question, the question of family and personal welfare, has always been dominant in China to such a degree that the formation of a complete state has never been possible. As for the organization of China by Japan for military purposes, those who base such a conclusion on the fact that both are yellow races usually forget that "the racial difference between a Chinaman and a Japanese is greater than that between a Frenchman and a Hindu." M. Ular declares, further, that, so far as language is concerned, the Japanese tongue resembles the English as nearly as it does the Chinese. He also points out the fact that Koreans fear Japanese supremacy as much as they fear Occidental domination, and that many times the Chinese have asked for European aid against the invasion of Japanese intellectual methods. The union of yellow races, says M. Ular, is a dream, not one bit more possible of realization than the unity of white races.



S. S. TONG, NEWLY APPOINTED TAOTAI OF TIEN-TSIN.

(One of China's richest merchants, who advocates progress and a standing army worthy of the name.)

The masses of the Chinese people understand only vaguely what is going on within their own borders. In 1901, this writer talked with a great number of Chinese people about the occupation of Manchuria by the Russians. Every opinion was invariably the same.

This is a matter of complete indifference to us. Whether we are governed by a yellow emperor or by a white emperor, that is a matter which concerns the officials. We have no interest in these matters. All we ask is that they let us attend to our own affairs in peace, and that they do not rob us. Then we will be content and prosper,—that's all we ask.

HOW SOLDIERS ARE REGARDED IN CHINA.

It is well known that most of the Chinese have always resented the presence of soldiers. They look upon them as a peculiarly undesirable kind of police. With regard to the military problem in general, M. Ular fears that the Chinese will never dream of using the means of defense which the West uses to attack them,—namely, union on the basis of nationality, the organization of an army of defense, not to speak of the foundation of a Chinese state one and indivisible, such as, with its inexhaustible resources, could very soon become a very formidable power in shaping the destinies of the world. The thing

is impossible, for the Chinese have as great an antipathy to it as the English have to compulsory military service. It is therefore certain that if the so-called Chinese Empire continues its natural development, the invader, whether he be Japanese or a Western, will never meet with national resistance.

After the wars of 1894 and 1900, the directors of imperial policy (not public opinion) began to realize the necessity of having a strong army and navy, but the result, so far, has not been very satisfactory, notwithstanding the herculean labors of the militarists of the court. Some particulars are given of the three modern armies formed in China after the lessons of recent disasters, all useless to resist the foreigner, for the three armies could never make one national army, and China remains, as before, a vague federation of autonomous provinces. Possibly, a Chinaman imbued with the ideas of a European state, or a European become Chinese, might bring about the revolution of organizing the Chinese people as a state, with one government, one army, one fleet, one national life. Such a man has been found in the person of Sir Robert Hart, and the remarkable report which he addressed to the Chinese Government early this year is dealt with by M. Ular. He is very enthusiastic over the whole scheme, although he thinks Sir Robert Hart's arithmetic a little optimistic.

The Powerful Chinese Societies.

In another number of *La Revue*, M. d'Enjoy writes on the congregations and secret societies in China, and maintains that the Chinaman has a real vocation for social solidarity. From the day of his birth, he is affiliated by his parents to one or more associations, secret and official, and when he is able to dispense with parental care he makes a choice of others which seem adapted to his needs. If he wishes to leave his native country to try his fortunes elsewhere, he will not dream of going even to the most far-off land without first ascertaining whether he will find there branches of one or other of the Chinese societies of which he is a member, and if his arrival be known to any of his fellow-members, he will be sure of a reception such as would be accorded to a family relative. The Chinaman's preference for the idea of association arises from the family principle, which is the basis of Chinese civilization. The Chinaman cannot understand social life combined with individualism. He has a horror of isolation, and consequently his mind cannot act with ease unless he feels a sense of protection. Even in death, he fears solitude. The Chinese association, or con-

gregation, comes to his aid at every turn,—when he is seeking work, when he is ill, and when he dies. The secret societies appear to exist as permanent conspiracies against the reigning sovereign, and the writer gives many details

concerning them. He remarks that the Chinese consider their master (the reigning power) their enemy,—they not only rejoice in his difficulties, but like to add to them whenever it is possible to do so without too much personal risk.

RAILROAD BUILDING IN CHINA.

CONTRARY to the general impression regarding the efficiency of Chinese labor, the opinion is advanced, in an article contributed to the *Engineering Magazine* for December, by Mr. Justin Burns, an engineer who has had much experience in Chinese railroad construction, that the Chinese are quite capable of handling labor-saving machinery, and that it is a mistake to believe that the employing of an inexhaustible supply of cheap hand labor is more economical than the training of the natives to operate machinery. The Chinese, he says, readily become skillful mechanics, and it needs merely capable superintendence to instruct and direct them in their work. In regard to the unskilled laborer,—necessary in railroad building, however,—the account given by Mr. Burns is less optimistic. The methods necessarily employed in China in railroad construction are so different from those with which we are familiar in America that we summarize several paragraphs from Mr. Burns' article which deal with this phase of the subject.

The first contracts of five-mile sections on the Canton-Hankow Line, now in the course of construction, were sublet by the Chinese contractors to various lesser contractors, who were generally the heads of families or communities. These sub-contracts for three or four hundred feet of embankment each were taken at a certain unit rate, which was low enough for the general contractor to realize some profit from the work. The sub-contractor utilized all members of his community or family to fulfill his contract, and often not only men, but women and children. It was a common sight to see gangs of laborers

composed entirely of women, many of whom worked with their children strapped to their backs. Mr. Burns adds that the women coolies formed more efficient and less troublesome earth laborers than the men.

In the delta country, through which the road was cut, there is a dark blue clay soil, varying in depth from twenty to fifty feet. Where the ground was moist and the clay tenacious, the material was cut by spades into blocks each containing about a quarter of a cubic foot. These blocks were transferred to the embankments in various ways, which depended upon the ingenuity or desire of the sub-contractors. On the low embankments it was usual to place coolies in rows extending from the borrow pits to the embankments, and to toss the blocks of clay from hand to hand until placed in the construction. Another method which proved economical was to lay planks from the borrow pits, and by posting workmen along these boards at short intervals, the blocks of clay were slid on the wetted planks until finally placed in position. If the clay did not contain a large enough percentage of sand,



THE CHINESE OFFICIALS AND POPULACE AWAITING THE OPENING TRAIN AT FAT SHAN.

the blocks did not retain their form well enough to permit tossing or sliding, and in these cases baskets suspended at the ends of bamboo shoulder-poles were in general use. In all the high embankments and hill cuttings, Mr. Burns says that the transportation of material in baskets was the only method employed. The attempt was made to use wheelbarrows, but this was economically a failure, either through the inability or unwillingness of the Chinese to utilize this innovation. In this roadless country, there are no horses or carts. Occasionally, a little plowing was done by the water buffalo, or carabao; but with this rare exception, all of the earth work on the railroad was done by hand labor. Mr. Burns states that in excavating, where the coolies are familiar with the work, the earth was handled at an extremely low figure; but when the embankment was high or the hill cutting deep, the methods known to the coolies were more expensive than if modern means and appliances were used. In the higher depart-



CHINESE METHODS OF MULTIPLE LEVERS IN CARRYING HEAVY LOADS.

(Suggesting a native attempt at mechanical aid to manual labor.)

ments of railroad construction, as in bridge building, the natives prove efficient workers; and it is said that in stone cutting, masonry, carpentry, and metal working, they are decidedly proficient.

LABOR CONDITIONS IN THE MEAT-PACKING INDUSTRY.

PRIOR to the great strike of the packing-house employees, in 1904, the general public had little knowledge of labor conditions in the packing trades and almost no conception of the relations sustained by the packing industry to the meat-consumers of the whole country. One of the first attempts to make a scientific presentation of the labor situation in the packing trades is the article contributed by Prof. John R. Commons to the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard University).

RESULTS OF DIVISION OF LABOR.

Beginning with the leading group of workmen in this industry,—namely, the cattle butchers,—Professor Commons shows how the division of labor has grown with the industry itself, following the introduction of the refrigerator car and the marketing of dressed beef, in the decade of the seventies. When only local demands were supplied, the gangs of butchers were small, but as the number of cattle to be killed each day in-

creased, more men were employed, but the best men of the number were kept at the most exacting work. At the present time, a crew of 230 butchers, helpers, and laborers is supposed to handle 1,050 cattle a day under union regulations of output. The time required for each bullock is equivalent to 131 minutes per one man, from the pen to the cooler, the hide cellar, and other departments to which the animal is distributed. But this is made up of 6.4 minutes for the 50-cent man and 1¼ minutes for the 45-cent man, and so on, and the average wage, per hour, for the gang would not exceed 21 cents, making the entire labor cost about 40 cents per bullock. This division of labor has made it possible to utilize cheaper men,—unskilled and immigrant labor,—in large numbers. Furthermore, skilled men become more highly expert in the quality of their work. While the proportion of low-waged men was greatly increased, this division of labor also pushed up the wages of the very few skilled men on the delicate and

particular parts of the work. While an all-round butcher might expect to earn 35 cents an hour, the highly specialized men, or "splitters," earn 50 cents an hour. It is therefore to the companies' interest to make a few of these particular jobs desirable to the men, so as to attach them to its service. Thus, the companies put a few of the strongest men, and those with a particular knack for their work, on "steady time," paying them a salary of from \$24 to \$27 a week, regardless of the time worked, while the other nine-tenths of the gang were hired by the hour and paid only for the time worked. Still a third object of the division of labor was secured by having these steady-time men act as pace-setters.

What has been accomplished in this direction is shown by the following statistics: Take the occupation of splitting, for example. In the year 1884, five splitters in a certain gang would get out 800 cattle in 10 hours, or 16 per hour for each man, the wages being 45 cents. Ten years later, the speed had been increased, so that four splitters got out 1,200 cattle in ten hours, or 30 per hour for each man,—an increase of nearly 100 per cent. The wages, except for the steady-time men, were reduced to 40 cents per hour. Other occupations had been speeded up, and other rates of pay had been reduced in similar proportions. Then came the organization of the union, in 1901, and the first act of this union was not directed toward wages and hours,

but toward the reduction of the output. After the limit was set by the union, the companies discontinued the steady-time men, and placed them on the hour list, since their positions as pace-makers were no longer useful. Thus, there was a reduction in expense which partly offset the reduction in work.

WOMEN AND CHILDREN AS EMPLOYEES.

The number of women employed in the industry, in Chicago, is now set at 2,000, or about 9 per cent of all the employees. This increase has come about partly through the introduction of foreign-born women in the sausage department and meat-trimming rooms at times when the men went on strike. Prior to that time, women were not employed in the large establishments where the knife is used, their work being principally painting and labeling cans, soldering and stuffing cans, sewing up the ends of bags, packing chipped beef, and packing and wrapping butterine. The women form the only class of labor generally employed at piecework; and although this method of payment has led them to serious overexertion, they have as yet made no efforts to limit the amount of work, some of which, especially in the can-making departments, depends on the speed of the machine. The girls are willing to work to their utmost, for a period, in order to save up a sum of money for a home of their



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STREET SCENE IN CHICAGO DURING THE PACKERS' STRIKE OF 1901.

own. The men, on the other hand, look upon the strain of excessive speed as the greatest of their grievances. The number of children under sixteen years of age employed in the industry in 1900 was 1,651, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of all employees.

AN AMERICAN STRIKE IN BEHALF OF ALIENS.

The most significant fact brought out by Professor Commons is that the strike of 1904 was not merely a strike of skilled labor, but was a strike of Americanized Irish, Germans, and Bohemians in behalf of Slovaks, Poles, Lithuanians, and negroes. The strike was defeated by bring-

ing in men from the companies' own branch-houses for the skilled occupations and negroes and Greeks for the unskilled occupations. Bohemians began work in the packing houses as early as 1882, but did not enter in large numbers until after the strike of 1886. They have steadily worked their way forward until, of the twenty-four men getting fifty cents an hour in two of the cattle-killing gangs, twelve are Bohemians, while the others are German, Irish, and American. The Americans, as wage-earners, have practically been driven out of the stock yards, and are being followed by the Irish and the Germans.

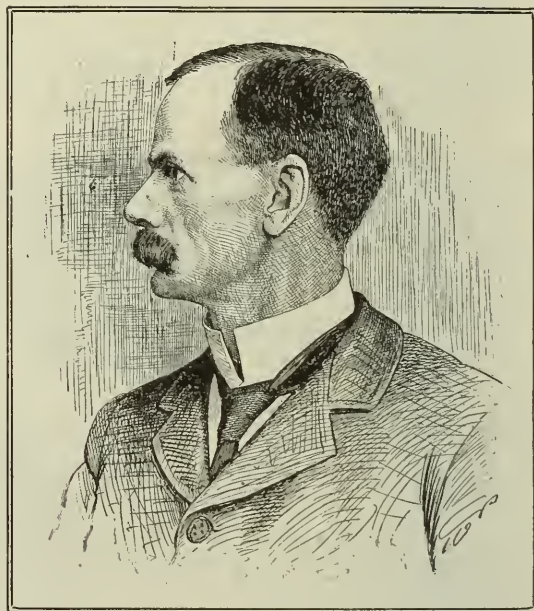
THE "WHITE PERIL" AND THE SOUTHERN NEGRO.

WE should expect to find in the observations of a trained observer like Mr. William Garrott Brown a useful contribution to the literature of the economic problem in the Southern States, and the article contributed by Mr. Brown to the *North American Review* for December, entitled "The White Peril: The Immediate Danger to the Negro," is certainly not lacking in suggestive material. Mr. Brown is a native of Alabama, and at present a citizen of Massachusetts. He is the author of "The Lower South in American History," and of other books and magazine articles, which have made his name quite as well known in the North as in the South. He has recently made a tour of the Southern States from Virginia to Texas, noting especially two movements of population,—a steady exodus of negroes from country to town, or from South to North, and a moderate but apparently increasing inflow of whites into the South. What really constitutes the "white peril" to the negro, in Mr. Brown's view, is the fact that the white man is steadily driving out the black man from occupations which the latter formerly controlled exclusively, while in the new industries, notably cotton manufacturing, the negro is not to be found at all. Even on the farms and plantations, white labor is gradually encroaching on black.

WHITES SUPPLANTING BLACKS IN ALL OCCUPATIONS.

Mr. Brown began his travels in the Old Dominion. There he was surprised to find that farmers from the far Northwest are coming in considerable numbers, sometimes in little colonies, to make their homes on the banks of the James, the Potomac, and the Roanoke. The blacks are moving toward and northward so rapidly that complaints are everywhere made of

the scarcity of farm labor. Equally common is the complaint that the negro as a farm-hand is deteriorating. Even in the cities, Mr. Brown found that white men were turning more and more to kinds of work which used to be done by negroes only. This was noticeable in the mill-



MR. WILLIAM GARROTT BROWN.

towns of Virginia, and the tendency was even more strikingly exhibited in the Carolinas, particularly in what is called the Piedmont section. There the poorer classes of native whites are monopolizing the factory labor. Negroes are still employed in tobacco factories, frequently work-

ing side by side with whites ; but the signs all point in the direction of white rather than negro predominance in this field. At the present time, the only cotton mill in the South which employs negroes is said to be one at Dallas, Texas, while to meet the demands for mill-hands in the Carolinas alone, from fifty to one hundred thousand white people have given up other employments. It is evident that in many parts of the South the white people are changing their attitude toward the manual occupations. One sign of the change is that white barbers are now common in even the smaller country towns, whereas twenty years ago they were exceedingly rare outside of the real cities. Another innovation is the occasional employment of white women as chambermaids in hotels, even, in one instance, in a hotel where the other servants were colored.

Mr. Brown finds in New Orleans, which is the largest of all distinctively Southern cities, the most convincing evidence of the economic transformation that is now going on. Among the several races that make up the population of New Orleans, it is evident that the African has lost ground relatively to all the rest. It is now possible to live in New Orleans as free from any dependence on the services of negroes as one could be in New York or Boston. White cooks and waiters are not very hard to find ; and white barbers and hairdressers, white carpenters and joiners and masons and blacksmiths and shoemakers are at hand in sufficient numbers. The only trade that the negro still controls is said to be bricklaying. In 1870, the city directory showed a total of 3,460 negroes at work as carpenters, cigar-makers, painters, clerks, shoemakers, coopers, tailors, bakers, blacksmiths, and foundry hands. There are not to-day 10 per cent. of that number employed in the same trades, several of which are monopolized entirely by the whites. Yet, in the meantime, the negro population of New Orleans has increased by more than 50 per cent.—a greater gain than is shown by the white population. The mass of the negroes are now engaged in occupations which require the least intelligence.

TRADE-UNIONISM AS A FACTOR.

Mr. Brown began his investigation with the expectation that sooner or later the negro, being excluded from the labor unions, the race prejudice would reënforce the union man's hatred of the scab, and the labor question would thus take on in the South a character more savage and dangerous than it has ever had in the North. He finds, however, that the negroes have never ventured into any serious rivalry with the white

unions. They do, it is true, form unions among themselves, which are, it is said, affiliated with those of the whites. But what this means in practice is that both unions are controlled by white men. Even when the whites in a particular trade or a particular establishment are only a minority, they have their way. Negroes rarely or never offer to take the places of white men who strike or are locked out. "The explanation doubtless is that, with good reason, they fear white men of the working class worse than they fear employers or capitalists, who frequently belong to the class so often described as the natural protectors of the blacks. It seems to be a fact that white workingmen from the North are more bitterly opposed to sharing any occupation with the negroes than the native white race are. However, the situation in the Southwest may indicate that when the whites have sufficient numbers to monopolize the city trades they will incline to exclude negroes altogether."

EUROPEAN COMPETITION.

In agricultural labor, the tendency to displace the negro farm-hand and the negro tenant is observable in regions where the negroes are increasing in population more rapidly than the whites. Mr. Brown observed it, for instance, in such strongholds of the African laborer as the Black Belt of Georgia and Alabama, the Yazoo-Mississippi delta, the valley of the Brazos in Texas. In these regions, it is not the native poor white who gets the negro's job, but the European immigrant, especially the Italian and the Bohemian, and in Texas the Mexican. It is the opinion of railroad and steamship officials, and of immigration agents, that European immigration into the South is increasing. At least one great railroad system has begun to use Italians instead of negroes for track work. The newcomers are also finding their way into mills and factories ; but nothing will so impress any one familiar with the life of the lower South as their appearance in the sugar fields, the rice fields, and the cotton fields. Mr. Brown declares that the Italian as laborer and tenant on the plantations of the lower South is no longer an experiment. It is clear that, as a rule, he does work at least as well as the negro, and that he is more likely to save money and become a land-owner. The testimony concerning Bohemians is quite as favorable. The success of the large German colonies in Texas, Alabama, and other parts of the South has long been established. Yet it is true that many planters, probably the majority, still prefer the negro both as laborer and as tenant.

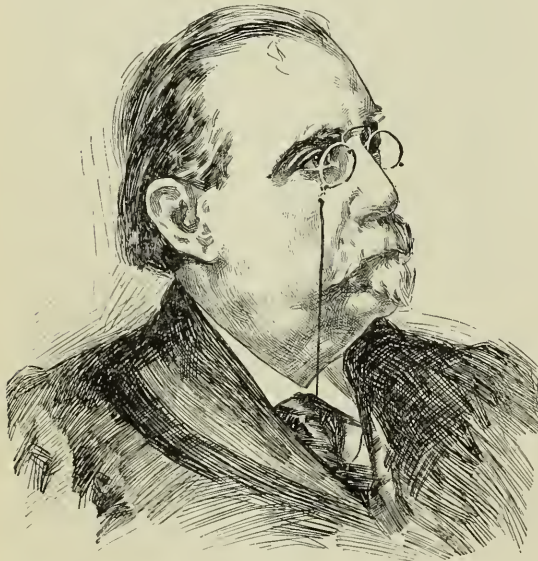
CAN THE NEGRO HOLD HIS OWN?

Mr. Brown is convinced that the negro's place in the South's industrial system can no longer be regarded as secure. He refers to Principal Booker T. Washington's declaration, made five years ago, that the next twenty years were going to be the most serious in the history of his race. Within this period, says Mr. Washington, it will be largely decided whether the negro will be able to retain the hold which he now has upon the industries of the South, or whether his place will be filled by white people from a distance.

Still, Mr. Brown admits that to say that an invasion of the negro's ground has occurred is not to say that he cannot resist it. Principal Washington holds that the apparent loss is rather relative than absolute. It is largely explained by the South's rapid development and the gain of the whites in mere numbers. He is also cheered by the entrance of negroes into higher employments, such as clerkships, stenography, and various branches of business. Mr. Brown's opinion, however, is that it is nearly always mulattoes who rise in the industrial scale. Then, too, negroes accept lower wages than white men.

ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL PROGRESS IN SPAIN.

WHILE Spain is, from a political point of view, an eminently constitutional country, the Spanish monarchists have understood and actually carry out the constitutional idea in a radically different fashion from that in which it operates in other constitutional monarchies,



CÁNOVAS DEL CASTILLO.

(Spanish statesman, prime minister, author; born, 1828).

such as England, or in republics like France and the United States. The well-known French political writer, M. Edouard de Bray, contributes to *La Revue* a study of the Spanish Parliament, in which he points out the fact that "from 1808 to 1875 the history of Spain was nothing more than an uninterrupted series of revolutions and reactions, aggravated by military pronunciamientos."

Since 1875, while there have not been any real revolutions, the effect has been practically the same,—a virtual annulling of the constitutional character of the government. In Spain, M. Bray reminds us, every two years, or less, there is a new parliament. Because of this, there is never sufficient time for the legislators to accomplish any serious work. From 1810 to 1901, there was only one session (1886 to 1890), which lasted longer than two years. As soon as any Spanish government, whatever its political character, comes into power, its first political act is to decree the dissolution of the Chambers. An election is then held in which the forms are ostensibly open and republican. When the count has been announced, however, it is found that the government has declared elected such members as it regards safely in its own interest. A fatal indifference is thus engendered among the people, because "the Spanish citizen knows full well that his voice counts for nothing in the actual results of the elections." M. Bray then passes to a brief characterization of the principal figures in the present and the recent Cortes, referring to Castelar, Canovas, Salmeron, Rios Rosas, Pi y Margall, and Figueras. It is a race of fine orators, but not of great statesmen, he concludes.

Spain's Economic Awakening.

In the *Independent Review*, a Spanish writer, Tarrida del Marmol, gives a very cheerful account of the revival of the Spanish nation. There is a real craving for education among the lower classes. Secondary education is also in progress. The economic condition of the country improves daily, signs of rapid industrial improvement are visible everywhere. The Spanish workingman is quite the equal of the work-

ingman of France, Belgium, or England in intelligence and activity, while he is considerably more sober and temperate than they. In a few years, Spanish commerce and industry have been able to compensate for the loss of Cuba and the Philippine Islands by creating openings elsewhere, chiefly in South America. The writer, however, warns the rulers of Spain that unless they wake up to the meaning of the ferment around them, the new life of the Spanish people will begin in a revolution like that which convulsed France in 1789.

Spanish Clericalism To-Day.

If by Clericalism is meant a political system which gives the clergy preponderance in a state, then Spain, says M. Desdèvises du Dezert, in the *Revue Bleue*, notwithstanding every appearance of constitutionality and the modern aspect of her institutions, is eminently a Clerical nation, and it is her history, even more than her temperament, that has brought this about. During the Middle Ages, this writer points out, Spain was occupied by many different races,—Vandals, Byzantines, Goths, Arabs, Jews, Berbers, Franks, Aquitanians, Iberians, and adventurers of every country, called in by the Christian kings to repeople the country which had been conquered from the Moors. During the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, these peoples made Spain the freest country in Europe. There were three religions and twenty denominations to choose from, and this gave the Spaniard a happy-go-lucky sort of life, always at war, always in revolution, experiencing every extreme of fortune, and entirely happy. "It was the clergy who, out of all these diverse elements, welded a compact nation, solid and brilliant as a block of steel." It was the voice of the monks, continues this writer, which exalted the spirit of Christian

patriotism in Spain, which inspired pride in the faith and hatred for and misunderstanding of the Jew and the Moor. It was this agency which brought about supreme national control of the marriage relation, imposing upon the most passionate of nations the indissolubility of marriage and the interdiction of mixed unions. It brought about the expulsion of the Jews and the Moors and the establishment of the Holy Inquisition against heretics. French liberal ideas could not avail against such a power. It was the Spanish Church which forged, from so many diverse elements, the Spanish nationality, and preserved it for its national destiny. It was the Spanish Church which inspired the heroism of the Spanish peasant against Napoleon. The Spanish Church considers the Spanish nation as bone of its bone, flesh of its flesh, and proper subject for the exercise of its ecclesiastical and civil power.

In the nineteenth century, the theocratic spirit of Spain fought the revolution constantly. The Church received grievous wounds, but it never lost hope or courage, and to-day it is stronger than ever. The constitution of 1876 recognized Catholicism as the state religion, and the present King, Alfonso XIII., is a Clerical of Clericals. Thanks to royal favor, the Jesuits have returned to Spain and reërected their schools. The crown has given back to them their splendid college of Loyola. The Jesuits now have their review, *Fey Razon* (Faith and Reason). The Augustines have a royal monastery in the Escorial, and publish a review, *La Ciudad de Dios* (The City of God). The Dominicans have their *Boletín de Santo Domingo de Silos* (Bulletin of Holy Sunday at Silos). The political parties are absolutely in the power of the clergy. And the recent law enforcing Sunday rest, closing the newspaper offices, cafés, and bull-rings, was at the behest of the Church.

THE CENTENARY OF GLINKA, RUSSIAN COMPOSER.

RUBINSTEIN tells, in his "Conversations About Music," of showing a lady visitor his music-room, on the walls of which were the busts of Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Glinka. Michele Delines, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), says that many readers will smile to see this last name in such distinguished company, when they have never heard a note of his music, just as certain young Wagnerians smiled when M. Colonne gave some fragments of "Life for the Czar" in Paris. However, he does not wonder at Rubinstein's enthusiasm for the Russian

composer (born just a century ago), who practically founded a national school of music, and whose centenary makes a revival of interest in him opportune. He seeks, in a readable article, to justify the pianist's and his own taste.

Russia has never been a country of philosophy, but art there has ever been human, dominated by an humanitarian idea, and has never been merely art for art's sake. Michael Glinka, creator of the Russian musical drama, whose work is almost contemporary with the first half of Wagner's, was inspired by entirely different

ideas. Like Pushkin, his intimate friend, like the revolutionists of 1826, like the flower of the Russian nation of his time, Glinka, perhaps unknown to himself, felt the weight of the serfdom that then shackled the Russian people. This and the muzhik inspired his muse. His art was, not to show forth vague ideas on the vacuity of things, but the humble and painful life of that poor pariah who nevertheless, by himself, has made Russian history. From this point of view, Glinka produced a great opera, truly unique in the history of music.



MICHAEL IVANOVICH GLINKA.

Glinka, born in 1804, in the province of Smolensk, where his father lived on his estate on retiring from the army, actually first learned music from the muzhiks, who not only fed and clothed their master, but also ministered to his æsthetic amusements by playing orchestral music for him. From his uncle's orchestra he came to know Cherubini, Méhul, Boïëldieu, Mozart, and Beethoven. He knew only the names of Glück, Handel, and Bach until some time later. While directing this serfs' orchestra, he studied harmony and counterpoint, ignorance of which had ever checked his fever to compose.

As the intellectual atmosphere of Russia was at that time stifling to artists, it was fortunate for Glinka that a trip to Italy for his health was ordered. In Italy, his compositions were in Italian style, although he took occasion to speak for simplicity and clearness. Returning to Russia in 1833, he revived acquaintance with Jukovski, then tutor to the future Alexander II.,

who entertained a little circle of geniuses bent on producing purely Russian works. Jukovski suggested to Glinka the subject for an opera,—the story of Ivan Sussanin, the serf who allowed himself to be quartered by the Poles to save the life of the newly elected Czar when only the muzhiks seemed to have a sense of Russian patriotism. Baron Rosen, as collaborator, wrote the libretto, although Glinka furnished the skeleton of scenes, situations, and action, and may really be called the author of the drama, which Nicholas I. renamed "Life for the Czar," not liking the importance given a serf in naming it after the hero.

The orchestration of this opera Berlioz called one of the most interesting of the time. Without speaking of *leitmotif* in his plan, Glinka constantly insists on characterizing the personages by special themes, thus foreshadowing Wagner's innovation. Also, without ever having known Schumann's works, he treated harmony much in Schumann's manner. The opera, finished in 1836, met with opposition from the director of the imperial theater, who, in hope of killing it, submitted it to his orchestra chief, Cavos, who had himself written an opera on the same subject. Cavos, however, loyally declared Glinka's the better, and withdrew his own from the repertory. Thus, late in 1837, it was presented, and was immensely successful.

Glinka's second opera, "Russlan and Lyudmila," is founded on a puerile poem by Pushkin, only to be treated symphonically. This Glinka understood, but he took his themes and rhythms from Russian popular songs and Oriental airs. Its music was beyond Russian taste of the time, and offended the aristocracy by its glorification of things peasant, so the opera was not well received. The composer's unhappy marriage drove him into exile, and he passed years in France and Spain, and died, in 1857, in Berlin, shortly after a triumphant concert of his works, organized by Meyerbeer.

Glinka used to say to his sister, "Thy Michael will not be understood in Russia for twenty-five years, and 'Russlan' only after a hundred years;" but Russian taste progressed faster than he thought, and "Life for the Czar" has been rendered six hundred times in Russia, and the second work three hundred times. The rest of Europe has almost forgotten him. However, a few years ago, Prof. Bourgault Ducoudray, of the Paris Conservatory, said, in a lecture heard by M. Delines :

Our young composers would do well to go, for inspiration, instead of to the fount of Wagner, who has pushed scientific music to its utmost limits, to the rich Russian school, which taps the inexhaustible fount of

popular songs. "Life for the Czar,"—that is the model we should have before our own eyes, since, in spite of our being a democratic nation, we have no national lyric drama, as we have no national literary drama.

M. Delines himself concludes his article in the *Nuova Antologia* with these words :

The great foreign public may, perhaps, nevermore know the works of Glinka, as it no longer knows those of Pergolese, Spontini, Gluck, and so many other initiatory geniuses ; but every sincere artist will drink with delight at the live spring of the creator of Russian dramatic music, and it is for me a duty and a joy to glorify his name on the centenary of his birth.

SOME DANISH FICTION WRITERS OF TO-DAY.

DENMARK had scarcely issued from her terrible war with Germany when she was shaken by a literary earthquake.

From being a country partly isolated in culture, submerged in glory merely historic, surrounded, as it were, by ancient romance, Denmark began to find herself a natural constitutional part of continental Europe. She broke down the walls and admitted the influence of resolute realism, then in its flourishing youth.

The battle was on for the widening of the nation's intellectual horizon, and literature was pressed into service. Paul Harboe, writing in the *Bookman*, says of this period :

Almost every work of fiction tried to answer some question, tried to solve some problem. The whole country verily seemed to be utterly in the power of the pen didactic. Schoolmasters and old maids, professors and clergymen, overtaught students and underfed artists,—all were engaged in battle. There was Holger Drachmann, lately returned from London, where he had shared for many nights a bed of shavings with a good-natured carpenter ; there was Sophus Schandorph, who was fond of human frailty and good cognac ; there was Jens Peter Jacobsen, poor consumptive brooder, who sent out the first message of the realistic school in Denmark,—his novel, "Maria Grubbe," in 1876.

Coming to Georg Brandes, this writer pays a high tribute to the magnetism and scope of the great critic's appeal to his countrymen, but, he asserts, Brandes' power and influence have waned.

The world of artists and authors became as illumined by this literary statesman, a wonderland crowded with real heroes. Brandes knew even then the secrets of the creative passion, the strange play of the imaginative spirit, and the way he deftly, patiently, reverently touched such matters was a revelation to the people who heard him. His voice echoed through the land,—not, it must be added, like a sound sweet to the ear, joyful to the heart. His voice was mighty, but, to the Danish sense, to that of the rural population especially, it was hopelessly harsh. Advancing a few years, we hear thousands calling Brandes a traitor, a cosmopolite, an enemy of the nation.

Time has, however, somewhat softened this opposition. He is known to his enemies in Denmark as "Our domestic missionary of paganism." Brandes is no reformer, belongs

to no party, and is allied with no "school." Brandesianism, so called, means in Denmark "red radicalism, a violation of laws dignified by the protection of centuries."

There are no giants in intellectual Denmark to-day, continues Mr. Harboe. Other nations have at least one great light in art. Denmark is crowded with men who rise—

just an invisible point above the watermark of mediocrity, but whose powers in the scales of world-judgment are found too light. It is indeed doubtful if any great literary masterpiece has been produced in Denmark since the epoch of Holberg, the middle of the seventeenth century. Yet, we hasten to add, many remarkable, many valuable, books have been written during the past two or three decades. Drachmann, Jacobsen, Gjellerup, Pontoppidan, Bang,—these are names to which no student of Norse literature can refer without regard.



GEORG BRANDES.

(Denmark's world-famous author and critic.)

Drachmann visited the United States in 1900. A number of his shorter poems have been rendered into English. The poet is too limited in his vision, however, Mr. Harboe contends, to ever be popular in English. While a large group of young lyrists are fast pushing him into the background of contemporary life, Drachmann's place as the chief poet of the Danish renaissance remains secure. The government, it may be of interest to state, gives him an annuity of about one thousand dollars. Jacobsen and Bang are the names of other well-known Danish novelists, and Karl Gjellerup is the "most scholarly of living Danish poets." Henrik Pontoppidan owes much to certain clever Frenchmen whose sense of humor revolves around a single subject.

The general literary situation in Denmark, concludes this magazine writer, is generally regarded as anomalous.

Almost every young woman in Denmark who has been disappointed in love promptly sits down to give the world a meagerly veiled account of her actual experience with some dark, broad-shouldered man whose

love was the greatest thing on earth—while it lasted. Almost every schoolmaster manufactures fiction. There are many clergymen with immense literary aspirations too, as, for instance, Edward Blaumüller, who reflects somewhere in a poem that, though a father of seven or eight children, it is a great open question whether he had any right to beget these offspring. Edward Egeberg, a schoolmaster, is armed to the teeth with moral lessons. Fortified thus is also Mrs. Jenny Bliker-Clausen, so adored by all young ladies, who, to the number of ten thousand, dispense with sleep's blessing to sacrifice to her luxurious altar. Mrs. Bliker-Clausen has nerves, a shrill voice, a shriek that penetrates the universe. She is the most widely read, most talked about, penwoman in Denmark to-day.

Carl Ewald and Gustav Wied are a pair of humorists, who once in a while frown and sigh. A somewhat dignified author is Sophus Michaëlis, translator of Flaubert's "Salammbô." He has a competent rival in the person of Viggo Stuckenborg, who writes delicate poetry on snow and faint shadows and sweet bird-song. Neils Möller first made our Walt Whitman known to Danish readers; the same man has translated some poems of Swinburne. Karl Larsen knows the soul of the young girl whose life is yet all possibility; in the matter of form his productions leave little to be wished for.

THE RUSSIAN ZEMSTVO AS AN INSTITUTION.

A NUMBER of the Russian periodicals have begun to publish articles on the zemstvo, its history, and its future. Dr. E. J. Dillon's article, which appears on another page of this issue of the REVIEW, gives a keen analysis of the conditions which led up to the resuscitation of the zemstvo and its present noteworthy development. The leading liberal review of the empire, the *Vyestnik Yevropy*, St. Petersburg, in an editorial article, strongly approves the development toward greater freedom which has marked the past few months in Russia, and declares that all Russians have given a deep sigh of relief,—“a sigh as deep as the policy of oppression, just closed, was heard.” It is expected, says this review, that the people will be invited to a permanent, close, and organic coöperation in the difficult and pressing work of building up the state, and that “the confidence alluded to by the minister of the interior will find adequate expression in the only form important for Russia,—in the abolition of the irresponsible rule of the administration and in establishing legal order by the active participation of social bodies and the people.”

The opposition to the development of the zemstvo, this magazine points out, has been made up of pronounced reactionaries, and their objections have been of a purely formal character. Whatever the objectionable qualities of the bills framed by the preliminary codifying committee, the peasant question will now be seen in the

proper light, and will be looked into from all sides only when the representatives of the people are permitted to express their views fully.

The History of the Zemstvo.

In tracing the historical development of the zemstvo as an institution, in an article in the weekly number of the New York *Staats-Zeitung*, Mr. Herman Rosenthal, himself a Russian, points out that the Russian people has been trodden down for ages by “a triple arbitrary and unscrupulous party power, consisting of a corrupt bureaucracy and fanatical hierarchy, under Poyedonostzev's leadership, and of selfish, intriguing court camarilla, with some degenerate grand dukes at the head.” Under this power, the Czar, ruler of all the Russias, is helpless,—a plaything, now for one, now for another, party. Mr. Rosenthal points out that the greater freedom permitted in Russia and the development of the zemstvos indicates an attempt on the part of Nicholas II. to free himself from the clutches of these corrupt reactionary influences. The entire country, he declares, now expects salvation from the zemstvos. What is the meaning of this institution whose name has, during the past few months, made a permanent standing in the press and literature of the world? The word, Mr. Rosenthal tells us, is derived from “*zemlya*,” meaning land. It originally designated the country people, but is now used, also,

for the province and its representative body. The Emperor, Nicholas II., we are told further, in order to atone for the sins of his reactionary ministers, need not introduce a new era, but has only to reëstablish the liberal institutions of his grandfather, among which the zemstvo was very prominent.

When the Czar, Alexander II., came to the throne, he found the empire suffering deeply from the results of the Crimean War. Besides, the reorganization of the army, the emancipation of the serfs, and the separation of the judiciary from the administrative branch of the government, the need of special institutions for local economic administration made itself keenly felt. His efforts resulted in the perfection of the zemstvo, — or, rather, *zemskiya uchrezhdeniya* (district institutions), — which were intended to allow some sort of home rule to the people. The zemstvo was first mentioned in the imperial edict of 1839. Five years afterward, in January, 1864, the zemstvo institution was legally recognized. Its principal aim, in accordance with the idea of educated Russian society of the time, was the greatest possible development of local home rule. The Emperor Alexander saw that the local representatives of the people would be familiar with their needs and better equipped to legislate about them than the corrupt bureaucracy in its centralized administration. The members of the district assemblies, or zemstvos, were

at first elected by three different electoral classes,—that of the landowners, that of the city people, and that of the country inhabitants. In this way, the government has already introduced for trial a sort of constitutional representation. It was not long, however, before the central government accused the zemstvos of claiming too much authority. The school question, especially, was a bone of contention, and the minister of education never recognized the authority of the zemstvos to establish schools and other educational institutions. In the higher administration circles, there began to be a suspicion that the zemstvos were too liberal, and, by the end of the eighties of the last century, they were looked upon as the stronghold of the opposition. The suspicion of the government resulted in several edicts, by which the orderly development of these district assemblies was checked. Finally, by the edict of June, 1890, the zemstvo representation was limited to two classes of citizens,—the hereditary and personal nobility and the burghers of the cities. The peasants were entirely deprived of their elective franchise. Their representatives were selected by the governors and by the members of the volost assemblies.

Thus has the bureaucracy, by degrees, undermined the authority of the zemstvos,—an authority which it is now Prince Mirski's intention to rehabilitate. Whether or not the new movement means real reform is an open question. We must hope and wait to see, says Mr. Rosenthal.

THE NEW ZEALAND LABOR PARTY.

AS New Zealand is the most advanced Socialist state in the British Empire, and the Political Labor party its most advanced political party, the following programme, published in the *Australian Review of Reviews*, will be read with interest throughout the world :

1. State bank—establishment of a state bank with sole right of note issue, which shall be legal tender.
2. Land reform—(a) abolition of the sale of crown lands; (b) periodical revaluation of crown lands held on lease; (c) resumption of land for closer settlement to be at owner's valuation for taxation purposes, plus 10 per cent.; (d) tenants' absolute right to their improvements.
3. Local government reform — (a) parliamentary franchise to apply to the elections of all local bodies; (b) every elector to have the right to vote on all questions submitted to a poll.
4. Economic government—(a) referendum with the initiative in the hands of the people; (b) abolition of the upper house; (c) elective executive.
5. Statutory preference of employment for unionists.
6. Cessation of borrowing except for (a) redemption; (b) completing work authorized by Parliament.
7. Nationalization—(a) establishment of state iron-works; (b) nationalization of all mineral wealth; (c) establishment of state woolen and flour mills and clothing and boot factories. Upon the liquor and fiscal questions, the Labor candidates are to have a free hand.

The League has a special programme for municipal reform, which runs as follows :

1. One vote only for each adult resident.
2. Polls to be open till 8 P.M.
3. Mayors and councilors to be paid if approved by a plebiscite vote of the electors.
4. The unification of municipalities around large centers of population.
5. Municipalities, jointly or severally, to be empowered to own and directly conduct for use any industry or service deemed desirable by the plebiscite vote of electors. All works undertaken by the municipalities to be executed by the councils without the intervention of the contractor, and trade-union wages to be paid.
6. All rates to be struck on the unimproved values of lands within each district.
7. Powers to acquire the title to and power to lease, but not to sell, any lands upon which rates are overdue and unpaid for a period of five years, provided the owner may recover possession on payment of all rates and accrued interest thereon.
8. Quinquennial valuation by owner, and in case of the municipality being dissatisfied with such valuation, to be empowered to resume at such valuation, plus 10 per cent.
9. Compulsory power to acquire gas or electric lighting works.
10. Power by initiative to demand vote on any policy proposal of a local governing body.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

American Magazines as "Readable Propositions."—Editor Bliss Perry, of the *Atlantic Monthly*, in offering his New Year's greetings to his readers, quotes from a sentence in a Wyoming sheep-herder's letter of commendation: "I would like you to know that you have one subscriber who has no kick coming, and who thinks the *Atlantic* is a readable proposition all right." Modestly accepting this well-considered valuation, which must have warmed the cockles of the editorial heart, the *Atlantic's* editor proceeds to analyze the phrase, "readable proposition." He concludes that it means "the discussion from month to month by many men of many minds of that American life which intimately affects the destiny of us all." This brings us back to the old editorial dictum that the magazine, to be readable, must be full of "human interest." As Mr. Perry sums it up: "A true mirror of life is what a literary magazine aspires to be. But it ought to reflect something deeper than the patented, nickel-plated conveniences and triumphs of a material civilization. It should also serve as a mirror for the ardors and loyalties, the patriotism and the growing world-consciousness, of the American people." How far this has become the ideal of American magazine editors is revealed, in part, by a study of the contents of our representative monthlies at the opening of another year. Taking the January numbers of fifteen popular American magazines, and leaving fiction and poetry out of the account, we find that more than one hundred "serious" subjects are treated in the published contributions. Of these articles, about twenty may be described as social studies, abounding in the "human interest" element, while twelve are travel sketches, four deal with prominent personalities, three with phases of American business life, and two with American industries. Science claims only four of the articles, art three, the drama three, and music one. There are also two or three literary studies. For the rest, biography and reminiscences predominate, followed closely by historical sketches. These latter types of articles, however, are accorded much less space than formerly in most of the American monthlies, and less than is now given them in the European reviews. Three articles this month are devoted to the Russo-Japanese war.

Social Studies.—Among the clever descriptions of city life which appear in the New Year's numbers are "The Poor Children of Paris," by Mrs. John Van Vorst, in *Harper's*; "The Social Side of Chicago," in *Ainslee's*; "The Sale of the Unredeemed" (a visit to the pawnbroker auctions of New York City), by Albert Bigelow Paine, in the *Century*, and "The Superstitions of a Cosmopolitan City" (New York), by Robert Shackleton, in *Harper's*. Other phases of metropolitan existence are treated in "Tuberculosis: The Real Race Suicide," by Samuel Hopkins Adams (*McClure's*); "Ethics of the Street," by Marguerite Merington (*Atlantic*); "Every-Day Church Work," by Bertha H. Smith (*Mun-*

sey's); and "The Delusion of the Race-Track," by David Graham Phillips (*Cosmopolitan*).—Problems pertaining more especially to life outside the great cities are discussed by Charles M. Harger, in "The Country Store" (*Atlantic*); by Prof. T. N. Carver, in "What Awaits Rural New England?" (*World's Work*), and by Ray Stannard Baker, in "What is Lynching?" (*McClure's*).—In her series of essays in *Leslie's Magazine* on "The Freedom of Life," Annie Payson Call writes this month on "Personal Independence."

American Views of Foreign Politics.—Just as Dr. Andrew D. White's series of chapters from his diplomatic life is drawing to a close in the *Century*, Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip is beginning in *Scribner's* a discussion of "Political Problems of Europe as They Interest Americans." Mr. Vanderlip, like Dr. White, has been able to study European political conditions at first hand through his personal acquaintance with the men who have in their keeping the destinies of peoples and governments. He gives in the January number an account of the fight between Church and State in France, which has led to the breaking up of monastic orders.—Dr. White's recollections, as given in the January *Century*, include interesting references to the state of German-American feeling during the period of his last embassy to Berlin (1897-1902), and especially to the growth of American prestige in regard to China and to the respect manifested in Germany for President McKinley.

Travel Sketches.—Illustrated articles of travel and description are still relatively prominent in most of the monthlies. The *Booklovers* for January has three such,— "A City Built on Rubies" (describing the mines of Mogok, in Burma), "The New Westminster Cathedral," by Marion Elliston, and accounts of ascents of Vesuvius and the great crater of Taal, by W. N. Jennings and Willard French, respectively, with photographs of each volcano in action.—In the *Century*, there is a capital paper on "London in Transformation," by Randall Blackshaw; Edward Penfield gives his "Amsterdam Impressions" in *Scribner's*, and Bradley Gilman describes "Parisian Pedlars and Their Musical Cries" in the *Cosmopolitan*.—Clifton Johnson writes on "Mark Twain's Country" in *Outing*, and in the same magazine, Caspar Whitney gives some of his experiences "In the Swamps of Malay." "A Christmas Fiesta in the Philippines" is the subject of an article in the *Century* by David Gray.—An artist's impressions of Bermuda are recounted in the *Metropolitan Magazine* by Charles Livingston Bull.

The War in the Far East.—In the January *Scribner's* Thomas F. Millard discusses "New Features of War," as revealed by his observations during five months with the Russian army in the field, while John Fox gives an interesting account of his journey to the front with the Third Japanese Army.—Lieut. Okamoto

Iwaji writes in the *Cosmopolitan* under the suggestive title, "Planting the Sun Flag on the Wall of Liao-Yang." "A Glimpse of Japan's Ambition" is the subject of an anonymous article in the *World's Work*. The *Booklovers* has an article by N. T. Bacon, entitled "After the War, What?"

Literary Topics.—The first installment of Thoreau's *Journal* appears in the January *Atlantic*, with an introductory essay by Bradford Torrey. The same magazine has a study of "Hans Breitmann" (the late Charles G. Leland) by Elizabeth Robins Pennell.—In the *Booklovers*, Kate Leslie Smith defines "Stevenson's View of Woman."—The "Holiday Book Number" of the *Outlook* (December 3) has appreciations of four representative literary critics.—Edward Dowden, by H. W. Boynton; Georg Brandes, by Paul Harboe; William C. Brownell, by Hamilton W. Mabie; and Ferdinand Brunetiére, by Th. Bentzon. The same number of the *Outlook* contains a brief paper entitled "Mark Twain: A Glance at His Spoken and Written Art," by Richard Watson Gilder.—The autobiographical papers of the late Lawrence Hutton are appearing in the *Critic* under the title, "The Literary Life."—Prof. Harry Thurston Peck writes in *Munsey's* for January on "Three Hundred Years of 'Hamlet.'"

Finance, Commerce, and Industry.—Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's articles in *Everybody's Magazine* on "Frenzied Finance" have received an extraordinary amount of newspaper advertising as a result of re-

cent occurrences on the New York Stock Exchange. One does not look for such discussions in the popular magazines, as a rule, but the success of Mr. Lawson's articles may stimulate the editors of other periodicals to attempt enterprises like that of *Everybody's*.—Several articles on "business" topics appear in the *World's Work* for January. Mr. Henry W. Lanier contributes an instructive paper on "How to Buy Life Insurance." Mr. John L. Cowan tells the story of the fight made by the Wabash Railroad system to gain an entrance into Pittsburg. Mr. Atherton Brownell outlines some of the commercial effects of the cutting of the Panama Canal. "Our Problem at Panama" is discussed in *Munsey's* by William R. Rodgers.

The Teacher's Profession.—"Does it Pay to Be a School-Teacher?" is the question discussed by Arthur Goodrich in *Leslie's* for January. Poor as the pay is in the teaching profession,—if it may be called a profession,—it appears from the facts brought out by Mr. Goodrich, in his article, that it compares favorably with the average income of the doctor and the lawyer, in this country, at least. But it is the testimony of all successful teachers, as it is of men successful in other callings, that what really pays, as Mr. Goodrich puts it, "pays in the heart rather than in the pocketbook." No one can read the article, by Miss Adèle Marie Shaw, in the *World's Work*, on the work of the Chicago evening schools for foreigners without being convinced that the teachers in those schools have a reward more enduring than money.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

A Plan for Policing the World.—In order to "establish order on the face of the earth," an alliance of the "seven civilized powers" has been suggested by the Russian economic writer, Novicow, in an article in the *Nordisk Revy* (Stockholm). According to this writer, the seven civilized powers of the world are the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia. (It is interesting to note that he does not include Japan.) These powers should enter upon a common defensive and offensive alliance by which they could guarantee the integrity of all the territory belonging to all. Then, says Mr. Novicow, these powers should "keep order on the face of the earth, taking in hand at once every peace-breaker." For instance, he says, if, when difficulties arose between Japan and Russia, the aggressor had known that, immediately upon the declaration of war, the fleets of Europe would blockade his ports, no hostilities would have occurred. The history of Europe has a turning-point, this writer believes. Since 1871, all the leading powers have been neutralized, and every hope of destroying or changing any of the existing states must be abandoned. As to the obstacles placed in the way of a seven-power alliance, these are not at all insurmountable, because, says this writer, they exist "only in the brains of the diplomats of the old régime. The day when the seven-power alliance is concluded, nothing becomes easier than securing order on the face of the whole earth." Instead of being a formless mass of states and nationalities, which fight against and injure one another, without aim, and cause anarchy, humanity will become an organized community, having a *raison d'être* following definite purposes. Then all the ter-

rrible sufferings caused by modern warfare will be removed. To the declaration that this proposition is Utopian, the writer replies: "If the conservatives find my solution unsatisfactory, the burden is on them to present a better one; and as to the belief that civilized nations will forever consent to injury and sufferings which they see an easy way to remove,—this is worse than Utopian, it is madness."

Decadence of Russian Agriculture.—The destructive war fought in a far country, which the Russian Government has stolen from China, has, according to *Social Tidskrift* (Stockholm), fortunately laid bare the dreadful social conditions prevailing within the Russian Empire. The Danish economic writer, Gustav Berg, in the above-mentioned magazine, asserts that the situation of the Russian peasant is really desperate. The decadence of Russian agriculture, he says, is not only due to the slothfulness of the peasant, but, above all, to a multitude of outward circumstances, such as heavy taxes, slave-service to the landlords, in spite of "abolishment of slavery," and high tariffs on iron, which continually compels the peasant to work the soil with wooden tools. Manure is seldom used in South Russia. For example, in the district of Stavropol, upon the Volga, where out of two hundred villages not less than one hundred and twenty-eight never manure the ground. The land is overburdened, weeds flourish, and the seed is spoiled. The wheat-producing peasants never eat white bread, and even rye bread is regarded as a luxury. Oftentimes the crop fails, and famine is chronic. All this hastens the immigration of the peasants to the cities or to foreign countries. In the year

1897, 47 per cent. of the inhabitants of the city of Rasan were transplanted peasants, who held positions as cabmen, dock and factory workers, etc. The "crushing of Japan," as the censored term in Russian newspapers reads, with this famished people, the writer thinks Utopian.

The French Origin of the Kaiser.—Not a few people will be surprised to learn that the German Emperor is of French descent,—(1) on his father's side; (2) on his paternal grandmother's side; and (3) on his mother's side. In erecting a statue to Admiral de Coligny, says Baron de Heckerdorn in *La Revue*, William II. was but rendering tardy homage to the memory of an ancestor; and the function was not, as many people imagine, a politico-religious manifestation or a sort of protest against the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. The baron then sets out two genealogical tables in proof of his assertion that the Emperor is doubly descended from Coligny, both by the Hohenzollerns and the dukes of Saxe-Weimer. Admiral Gaspard de Coligny left one daughter, Louise, who, in 1583, became the wife of William of Nassau-Dillenburg. Of this marriage was born Frederick Henry of Nassau, who eventually married Emilie de Solms. The second child of this last marriage, Louise Henriette, became the wife, in 1646, of Frederick William I., of Brandenburg, and from this marriage was descended in direct line William I., the Kaiser's grandfather. From the second table we learn that the Kaiser is descended from Coligny by his grandmother, the Empress Augusta. The third child of Frederick Henry of Nassau and Emilie de Solms, called Henriette Catherine, became the wife of John George II. of Anhalt-Dessau, and the Empress Augusta is descended from the second child of this union. In the third table, it is shown that the Kaiser, by his mother, the Empress Frederick, is of further French descent. In fact, he is a descendant, on the maternal side, of Claude, Duke of Guise, and of Alexandre Dexamier, of Olbreuse.

The Orient of To-morrow.—A study of commercial conditions and possibilities appears, under this title, in the *Deutsche Export Revue*, Berlin. The writer declares that Japan's marvelously rapid commercial and industrial progress has actually been—or will soon actually be—paralleled in Manchuria and Korea. That there is room for European products there, he says, is proved by Japan's marvelous progress and development. Manchuria, properly administered, is as susceptible of progress and development as was Japan. The same is true of northern China, with its rich resources in minerals, particularly coal. "I was often surprised on my trips through Manchuria and Siberia to find the facility with which the Chinese take to trade and manufacturing, particularly when the policy pursued by those in charge was such as to encourage effort." Splendid results await any one who will give the material furnished and to be furnished by China good leadership. The Chinaman is the very best kind of a colonist. All he asks is to be let alone. He overcomes every lingual difficulty; he is a splendid worker, retail merchant, handworker, or servant, and he is naturally honest. The large commercial cities, Colombo, Singapore, Siam, Penang, Saigon, Haifong, Hongkong, Shanghai, Kiauchau, are striking examples of what the peace-loving Chinese can accomplish. Here, in the East, trade would be impossible but for the Chinese. Even in Japan, the

Chinese have made themselves indispensable. What is true of the English, French, and German spheres of influence in the East is just as true of the regions presided over by Russia. The life of Port Arthur, Dalny, Vladivostok, Harbin, and Blagovestchensk depends upon the activity of the Chinese inhabitants. The final result will, however, depend upon the type of men who assume the lead when peace is again restored. More merchants will want to come here from the West. The efforts of the great powers to secure a place for their agents in the East is easy to understand. Progress and prosperity will go along faster under the ægis of the West than they ever would were the initiative efforts left to the East. China's opposition to strangers, to new trade forms, to railroads, is confined to China proper. Where the Chinaman is a stranger, an immigrant, a colonist, he is far more pliable and adaptable than any other. Thus, the fundamentals upon which a foreign trade may be built up are in the East. Everybody is getting ready to be on hand. "The opening up of Manchuria and Korea is a foregone conclusion, let the war end as it will. Japan, victorious, is bound to be the leading nation in the East."

A Japanese Criticism of Tolstoi's View of War.—The famous essay on the Russo-Japanese War, contributed by Count Tolstoi to the London *Times*, has elicited many unfavorable criticisms in Japan. A strong contention against the opinion of the Russian thinker is found in an essay by Dr. T. Inouye, a distinguished professor in the Imperial University of Tokio, appearing in the *Taiyo*. According to Professor Inouye, Tolstoi's first mistake is in his assumption that both Russia and Japan are fighting an unnecessary, useless war. It is true that the present war is useless for Russia. For Japan, however, it is waged in defense of the very existence of her land and people. It was not merely a question of interest that prompted Japan to declare the war. Except for the decisive measure she had taken, Japan's fate would have been doomed. If Russia had approached us with a more amiable attitude, instead of turning a deaf ear to our just complaint, we would have been glad to maintain an *entente* with the Muscovite Government. Count Tolstoi views war in the same light as he does murder. But as there is in criminal law a case in which a mere act of killing does not constitute a murder, so in the course of international intercourse there are times when a nation is thoroughly justified in appealing to the world in the language of shot and shell. In the present struggle, Japan is placed in the same position as that of an individual who takes his arms to protect himself against a highwayman threatening his life. Japan was fully conscious that Russia is a formidable adversary,—too formidable for a small country like Japan. No sane Japanese would have urged his government to declare war against such a mighty enemy, unless he had been aware that the gentle attitude of Japan would simply prove an incentive to the insatiable greed of the Russians. The present struggle is, therefore, one of self-defense on the part of Japan. Professor Inouye denounces Count Tolstoi as a mere *doctrinaire* or, what is still worse, as a religious fanatic. In conclusion, Dr. Inouye declares that Tolstoi's idea is simply a product of environment in which this humanitarian was born and reared. The Russian autocracy and absolutism could not avoid creating many radically abnormal *doctrinaires*, of whom Tolstoi is the most prominent.

Saving the Ruins of Tycho Brahe's Famous Observatory.—Through the efforts and interest of the scientific world, aroused by the influence of King Oscar II. of Sweden and Norway, an organized movement is on foot to preserve what is left of the famous observatory of the Danish astronomer, Tycho Brahe, at Uranienburg. In a recent number of the *Woche* (Berlin), Mr. F. S. Archenhold, director of the Treptow Observatory, traces the history of astronomical development up to the time Tycho Brahe made his remarkable discoveries. October 24, 1901, was the three-hundredth anniversary of the astronomer's death, and this fact,



TYCHO BRAHE.

(From a famous painting in the observatory at Prague.)

noted by astronomers all over the world, called the attention of the Scandinavian monarchs to the fact that the observatory and estate of the famous Danish astronomer had fallen into grievous ruin, and was gradually disappearing. King Oscar interested himself at once, and through his interest the observatory will be rebuilt, the restoration to be finished in 1928. This observatory, it will be remembered, was on the island of Hven, and its work was made possible in the beginning through the patronage of King Frederick II. of Denmark. The last observation was made in March, 1597.

The Result of the Belgian Elections.—An analysis of the elections of the present year in Belgium appears in the *Revue Générale* (Brussels), from the pen of Charles Woeste. This writer shows that, while the Conservative (or Catholic) party lost several seats, owing to the union of the opposition, yet this party is not badly defeated, or even discouraged. It was this union of the

opposition to the Catholic Conservative party which M. Dumont-Wilden (whose article in the *Revue Bleue* was quoted from in this REVIEW for October) erroneously designated as Protestants. Of course, as pointed out in a letter from one of our correspondents, the Protestants in Belgium are in a very small minority. The interest in the Belgian elections centered about the fact that the voting population of Belgium was about evenly divided between the adherents of the Conservative (or Catholic) party and the various opposition parties which had become united. M. Woeste, in the article in the *Revue Générale* already referred to, calls attention to the fact that, despite the opposition gain, the Conservatives still have a majority of twenty in the Chamber. This writer does not believe that there has been, or will be, a permanent union of the Socialistic or Liberal elements in Belgium; in fact, in his opinion, the elections indicated a Socialistic setback. Certainly, he says, the Socialists have lost much of their prestige in certain labor centers. Since the Conservative (or Catholic) party, this writer declares, is "intrusted with the defense of religion and society in the country," it cannot be destroyed utterly. The Catholic party, he believes, will remain, and will adhere to the greater part of its present programme.

Wagneriana in the German Magazines.—Every month brings articles on Wagner. In the October number of *Veitungen*, Dr. Wilhelm Kleefeld writes on famous conductors of Wagner's works,—Liszt, Hans von Bülow, Hermann Levi, Hermann Zumpfe, Karl Muck, Hans Richter, Felix Mottl, Felix Weingartner, Richard Strauss, Gustav Mahler, Ernest von Schuch, Arthur Nikisch, Fritz Steinbach, and others.—In the *Deutsche Monatsschrift* of October, there is an article on Wagner and Christianity by H. Weinel; and in the October *Nord und Süd*, Albert Ritter writes on the Nibelung question. The *Deutsche Monatsschrift* for October and November has added an article on "Wagner and Christianity." Prof. H. Weinel, the writer, says that Wagner in his earlier creative work was nearer Christ than in his later period,—the creator of "Jesus of Nazareth" understood his hero better than did the singer of "Parsifal." It is certain that Christianity can only live, not as dogma, but as religion and ethics. Whether it will continue beyond that depends on whether it can return to the religion of Christ; for the religion of Christ only has eternal ends, while the religion of the Church has temporal ends. Yet Wagner belongs to those who believe that behind the development of the Church it is necessary to get back to Christ.—Then there are the Wagner letters in the *Revue de Paris*,—but that is not German.

The Work of France's Great Public Library.—A descriptive article on the Bibliothèque Nationale appears in the *Mercure de France*. The writer, Eugène Morel, considers the student the terror of libraries, for he does not go there to work but for diversion. The most ignorant is the journalist, and he thinks the state keeps up libraries for his special benefit. In their offices, editors have not the most necessary reference books at their disposal, and, indeed, some do not file their own newspaper. Every day, thirty to fifty journalists visit the Bibliothèque Nationale, but only three or four go to do serious work. The writer, who appears to be a worker in the library, gives the following analysis of readers on an afternoon in September, in the holiday time, when students are absent, but when professors

and provincial visitors are to be expected. Out of two hundred readers, there were about fifty journalists for information for immediate use, thirty to forty students who find the Bibliothèque Nationale more comfortable than their own special library, and sixty to seventy readers of novels, etc., in search of current literature, but of the books asked for not more than fifteen related to books costing more than ten francs.

Fifteen Years of Home Rule in Ireland.—An article under the above title, intended for French readers, appears in *La Revue*. The author, Mr. William Redmond, asserts that under home rule Ireland would be peaceful and prosperous. The present system of government, however, he declares, is very disastrous to Ireland and absolutely without profit to England.

How Many Ancient Greeks Were There?—Writing in the *Revue de Paris*, Paul Guiraud attempts an estimate of the population of ancient Greece. He recalls the wailings of the helots over the fact that the birth-rate among them was decreasing, but points out that this was made up by the prisoners of war or the captives of piracy. From the eighth to the fourth centuries B.C., he declares there were in Attica 400,000 slaves; in Corinth, 460,000, and in Ægina, 70,000. The Greeks themselves continually diminished in number. Plutarch says, the Greeks could arm but 3,000 men.

Spurring Italy to Awaken Her.—In a lengthy review of a book by Lodovico Nacentini, whose translated title is "Europe in the Extreme Orient, and the Italian Interests in China," Dr. Gaetano Sangiorgio urges, in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), Italy to awake to the necessity of taking part in the approaching events in the Orient. He says that the best students of colonial affairs are convinced that the nations without colonies are destined to disappear, because they are preparing for themselves an industrial slavery which is the first step toward political slavery. He thinks the sending of war vessels, and the participation in international intervention, with nothing done to strengthen and develop national interests, shows little political wisdom. It lessens prestige in the eyes of the Eastern nations. The writer condemns the weakness of the Italian Government in not accomplishing the leasing of the Bay of San-Men. So bungled and inopportune was the request, and so little did the Chinese Government know of Italy, that the request was refused with rather more vigor than politeness. Nevertheless, such occupation would have gone far to hold Italy's title to the first silk market of the world, and the region is rich in other resources important to cultivate. The book recounts the action and present situation of the other nations in the Orient and shows how they are deriving profit and building for the future in their handling of the situation, and calls on Italy to rouse herself to do her part. The reviewer concludes, after mentioning our own exploits in the West Indies, in Panama, and in the Philippines. "Therefore, we would mortally offend the most delicate and vital interests of the nation in abandoning to adversaries, in the guise of allies, and to rivals the ocean and the land where future generations, by the certain laws of history and of life, are to fight, in every way, the grand and terrible battles of competition and of civilization."

An Impression of Kuropatkin.—A French admirer of the Russian commander-in-chief in the far East contributes to the *Revue Bleue* a series of impressions received during a long acquaintance with General Kuropatkin, beginning with 1890. This writer, M. Lucien Maury, declares that his memory recalls "a little brown man wearing a flat cap, a long dolman, and top-boots, with his hand extended in greeting." Reviewing General Kuropatkin's Central Asian campaign, this French writer gives him much credit for Russia's triumph in that region. He recalls the great battle of Géok Tépé, when Russia's Asiatic commander-in-chief of to-day was a colonel under the famous Skobelev. The Russians were being forced back; "Skobelev endeavored to enthuse his men, but it was the presence of Kuropatkin alone, utterly calm and confident, that brought back the spirit of victory to the demoralized troops." It is this calmness and modesty which has always characterized General Kuropatkin, and, concludes M. Maury, "war correspondents of two worlds find again at Liao-Yang the simple, sympathetic, almost modest, little man, who, in 1896, took great interest in demonstrating, in the language of a botanist or a scientific agriculturist, the good points of cotton which could be grown beyond the Caspian."

Poland's Greatest Living Authoress.—Eliza Orzesko, "the greatest of Poland's living women writers," is the subject of an article by Gerda Meyerson in the Scandinavian magazine, *Social Tidskrift* (Stockholm). Energetic, deeply sympathetic, warmly enthusiastic, this gifted authoress has spent forty years of her life in the endeavor to spur her oppressed compatriots on to work and struggle for their country and for themselves. In twenty-nine years she has written no fewer than seventy volumes, and of these many have been translated into German, French, Swedish, Czech,—even into Russian, much to her own surprise. Her masterpieces are those books in which she deals with the lives and characters of the poor and oppressed Polish Jews. Eliza Orzesko's own life story is a thrilling but sad one. As is the case with most of the champions of liberty in Poland, she belonged to a noble family, and one distinguished also for literary and artistic gifts. Her childhood and early youth were filled with happiness. She was rich, highly educated, a happy wife at sixteen, and had many dear relatives and friends. But in that terrible year for Poland—1863—all these joys were ended. Her husband was banished to Siberia, their wealth was confiscated, her relatives and friends were exiled, killed, or forced to flee. "Forsaken, ruined, sunk in sorrow," she says, "I began to write." Her work best known to readers in English is "Modern Argonauts."

The Preservation of Polish Antiquities.—A writer, S. Tomkowicz, in the *Przeglad Polski*, the Polish review, published in Galicia, reproaches Poles all over the world for their indifference to many of the monuments of their glorious past, and suggests to the Galician Poles (since the Austrian Government is not likely to make any serious objections) that they establish societies of Friends of Historic Monuments. These societies, he thinks, should be particularly active in ecclesiastical cities, where there could easily be collected many marvels of religious art which are now being scattered or neglected.

THE SEASON'S NOTABLE FICTION.

A PRAISEWORTHY endeavor to see life as it really is, and to chronicle the result of such observation with sincerity, together with an unmistakable lack of style, of distinction, of real imaginative vision,—in some such way may the reviewer set down his general impression of the season's fiction. Exceptions there are. Mr. Jack London, in America; Mr. Le Gallienne, in England, have both written books that deserve to last beyond the six months' space allotted to the life of the modern novel. But in the great majority of books there is no hint of a consciousness on the author's part of the invincible fact that a book, to be genuinely worth while, must be written with distinction, that style is the only anti-septic in literature, and that a lack of it can hardly be compensated for even by monumental thought. Of course, if the novelist is content to fulfill a merely

of that "hell-ship" to become cook's scullion. Van Weyden is a creature of overdeveloped brain-power, physically a plaything in the hands of Wolf Larsen, the ship's captain, and thus arises a struggle between the primitive brutalities of the natural man and this last product of the twentieth century. This struggle is the central theme of Mr. Jack London's "The Sea-Wolf" (Macmillan). The plot has further and rather more conventional ramifications, but it is primarily the fight between the beast in man and the man who has worked out the beast that holds our attention, and, secondarily, the overshadowing personality of Wolf Larsen. The latter is not a mere brute, like his sailors and seal-hunters. He is more terrible, for in him an extraordinary development of the pure intellect has not chastened the lusts of the primitive man. In depicting that fatal struggle between him and Van Weyden, Mr. London remains entirely impartial. The book is neither a glorification of the "overman" nor of his opposite. We are told of the two, and of their fight for life, with swift directness, with sincerity and strength. Each reader may draw for himself the conclusions resulting from this conflict between two thoroughly representative types of severed worlds.

Mr. F. Marion Crawford has always had the art of being sensational without the appearance of it. In "Whosoever Shall Offend" (Macmillan), his theme, as in not a few of his earlier books, is a particularly greswome and mysterious crime. He appears to tell the story not for the sake of its sensational elements, however, but for the sake of character and social analysis. If Folco Corbario had not made away with his wife, and tried to make away with his stepson, it is doubtful enough whether one would care very much for Mr. Crawford's delineation of Italian types. Readers probably knew some time ago all that he has to tell them of the Roman noble and of the peasant of the Campagna. As it is, however, "Whosoever Shall Offend" contains a fascinating story, a puzzling mystery and its solution, elements in a book which, if well handled, as here, have never yet been known to fail of their effect.

With "Evelyn Byrd," Mr. George Cary Eggleston completed that powerful trilogy of novels in which he presented the Virginian, whom he knows so well, before and during the war. In the last volume of that trilogy, he showed us certain disaster and the cause lost. He turns now, in "A Captain in the Ranks" (Barnes), to the young Virginian who, seeing the futility of further struggle or of vain regret, is determined to help in the upbuilding of the nation, and to become a private if necessary, a captain if he can, in the ranks of industry. Thus Guilford Duncan goes westward. He puts away from him all thoughts of aristocratic birth or tradition, all pride of an officer in the army which is no more, and by that very fact fits himself, at the start, to rise in that new and greater army, whose mission is not war but peace. "A Captain in the Ranks" and its forerunners are genuine contributions to American history and culture-history, a fact that robs them of none of their value as literature. If "A Captain in the Ranks" is not quite so attractive as "The Master of the Warlock" or "Evelyn Byrd," it is simply because trade and the problems of trade are



JACK LONDON.

journalistic function, then much of the season's output of fiction is work excellent of its kind. But with disheartening infrequency does it even approach the confines of literature. In one word, many of these books are worth reading; few are worth rereading; fewer worth possessing.

BY WELL-KNOWN AMERICAN AUTHORS.

A ferryboat sinks in San Francisco harbor, the passengers perish, but Humphrey Van Weyden, critic, æsthete, typical specimen of modern hyper-civilization, is picked up by the *Ghost*, and compelled by the captain

in themselves less susceptible of the finest literary treatment than a great war, with its glory of victory and its tragedy of defeat.

The public should be grateful to Mr. Anthony Hope, not merely for the books which he himself wrote, but also for certain other books that would in all probability not have been written but for him. Foremost among these are "Graustark," by Mr. George Barr McCutcheon, and its continuation, "Beverly of Graustark" (Dodd, Mead). How Beverly Calhoun, the winsome little-South Carolinian, impersonated the princess of the Balkan principality, managed things for a while to suit her own willful personality, picked up a brigand, who, though she falls in love with him, does not finally turn out to be a prince,—all this



GEORGE BARR M'UTCHEON.

makes thoroughly good reading. There is throughout no hint of disillusion. It is all bravely carried off in a land of pure romance, where the men are invincible in strength and the women in beauty, and where love and war are still the chief concerns of life. Graustark is much more real than many little states that can be found on the map of Europe, and Beverly is at least as real as any young woman from the far South that may be met with.

"Love Finds the Way" is a brief but charming story by the late Paul Leicester Ford. It has in miniature all the qualities that made "Janice Meredith" so deservedly popular, and like that book, it treats of an episode, necessarily a slighter one, of the Revolution. The improbability of the central incident is admitted and disregarded with delightful humor. The little volume is beautifully printed and decorated (Dodd, Mead).

In "The Island of Tranquil Delights," Mr. Charles Warren Stoddard renews the charm and success of his "South Sea Idyls." Those abodes of eternal summer that captured Stevenson's heart are here described once more with real power and charm and with an added note of regret. Mr. Stoddard says: "To sail over placid seas in sight of my summer islands; to lie off and on before the mouths of valleys that I have loved; where, in my youth, I have been in ecstasy; but never again to set foot on shore, or to know whether it be reality or a dream,—this is the dance my imagination leads me, this is the prelude to many an unrecorded souvenir."

The one objection which the average reader has been known to make against the work of Mr. William Dean Howells,—namely, that that distinguished novelist is too fond of the insignificant,—cannot be brought against "The Son of the Royal Langbrith" (Harpers). The subject is one of essential tragedy, the tragedy of the weakness of a good woman who conceals from her son the iniquities of his dead father. That the working out of this theme is masterly it is superfluous to add.

It is equally impossible to give any idea in a few lines

of a book so pregnant with fundamental brain-work, so rich in suggestiveness, and so accomplished in execution as Mr. Henry James' "The Golden Bowl" (Scribners). As usual, Mr. James is very largely concerned with Americans in Europe, but the book is clearer, and, for that very reason, more vital, than the works of what one may call his middle period.

BY WELL-KNOWN ENGLISH AUTHORS.

Mr. Richard Le Gallienne's style when at its best is one of the finest things in contemporary literature. It is distinctly at its best in "Painted Shadows" (Little, Brown), a volume of short stories. The stories do not deal directly with the realities of life, but shadow forth the inner significance of these realities through allegory and symbol. Reading the book, one enters a land of beautiful dreams, and it is only by taking some thought that one comes to see how these dreams do, in a vital manner, interpret some of the phenomena of life. Two



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RICHARD LE GALLIENNE.

of the stories are especially notable. "Painted Shadows" should add materially to Mr. Le Gallienne's reputation.

"The Prodigal Son," Mr. Hall Caine's new novel, will appear simultaneously, according to the announcement of the publishers (Appletons), in nine different languages, and in editions amounting to a quarter of a million of copies. It is hard to see why the sale of this particular book should be so enormous, strong as the story contained in it undoubtedly is. The plot of this romance of Iceland is not strikingly original. Of the two sons of the Governor of Iceland, Magnus is slow of mind, but intense and righteous; Oscar is an irresponsible man of genius. Oscar returns to Iceland, and captures

the heart of his brother's betrothed. Magnus, for the sake of the girl's happiness, makes the greatest sacrifice that man can make, and Oscar and Thora are married. Upon the scene comes Helga, the young wife's sister. She shares Oscar's artistic life, inspires him to create, and makes him her own. Hence springs the lingering tragedy of the story. Here, as in all his books, Mr. Caine has the power of wringing his readers' vitals, yet not the power of convincing them that he is working out a tragedy rather than a melodrama. Subtle as this distinction may sometimes be, it is a very real one, and Mr. Caine has never yet been able to escape the suspicion that he produces books which, powerful and poignant though they be, are essentially melodramatic.

Miss Marie Correlli has deserted, temporarily, at least, the regions of things unseen for those of things seen. "God's Good Man" (Dodd, Mead) is, as the sub-title proclaims, a simple love story and contains scarcely an allusion to esoteric Christianity or the utter vileness of the literary class. The story of how the Rev. John Walden found love is not without beauty or interest, and the interest would be even greater if the book were not quite so interminable. Miss Correlli's touching appeal to the gentle reviewer should prevent one from giving any more specific information concerning her book, in order that she may cease to live with the fear of misrepresentation ever before her eyes.

To reduce a gallant hero and a lovely maiden to the last extremity of distress, and then to extricate them from the toils of fate by apparently probable means,—this plot is as old as literature itself, and its attractions for the public seem not to have faded. Any one then, who cares to know how Monsieur Des Ageaux and Bonne de Villeneuve were ensnared by the abbess of Vlaye, and how, notwithstanding that lady's incredible cleverness, it came all right in the end, may pass an hour of brisk entertainment with Mr. Stanley J. Weyman's latest book, "The Abbess of Vlaye" (Longmans, Green).

STORIES OF AMERICA, PAST AND PRESENT.

The American historical novelist seems to have shifted his center of interest from Colonial and Revolutionary days to the Civil War and the years preceding it. Among the books of the month, "The Hills of Freedom," by Joseph Sharts (Doubleday, Page), carries us back to the years of the Mexican war. The interest centers on the character of General Harris, and on a well-told intrigue carried on between his son and his ward. But the book touches on larger issues and introduces John Brown and his men.

Much more delightful from a literary point of view is "Diane," by Katherine Holland Brown (Doubleday, Page). It is a story of the Icarian community on the Mississippi.



T. J. L. McMANUS.

Diane is thoroughly lovable; other characters are vividly drawn and full of genuine pathos. The book is well written.

Mr. Thomas J. L. McManus, author of "The Boy and the Outlaw" (Grafton Press), lived in his boyhood at Harper's Ferry, and there witnessed the famous raid of John Brown. He was himself in the mountain



UPTON SINCLAIR.

schoolhouse when it was captured by Brown's men. These interesting memories Mr. McManus has turned to excellent account in a story that moves swiftly and directly and contains a good deal of pleasant humor and excellent character-drawing.

In "Manassas" (Macmillan), Mr. Upton Sinclair has added another to the long list of ambitious novels dealing with the war. The canvas upon which Mr. Sinclair paints is large,

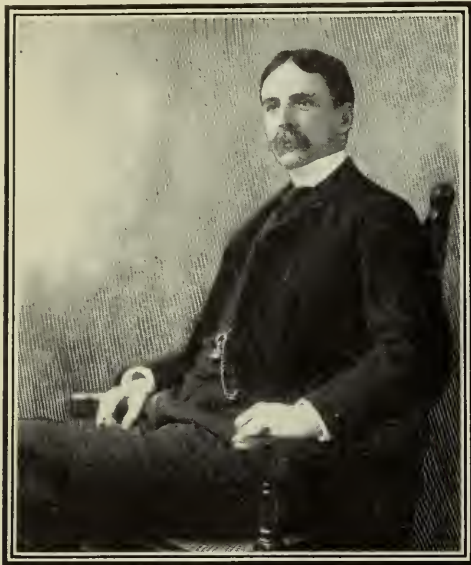
but his power is well sustained through the long narrative, which presents an impressive picture of certain phases of the great struggle.

But, after all, the novels dealing with contemporary, or nearly contemporary, life in America are more vital, and altogether better worth while. Foremost among these is "The Law of the Land" (Bobbs-Merrill), by Emerson Hough, a strong and fair study of the negro problem as it confronts the South to-day. The scene is laid in the far South, "in the heart of the only American part of America," on and around the plantation of Colonel Blount. The story's main incident is the trial for murder of Colonel Blount, who has shot several negroes in an uprising that promised to be dangerous. In the plea for the defense, Mr. Hough has stated as sanely and as well as it has ever been stated the point of view of the fair-minded and intelligent Southerner. The amended Constitution was cruel and unjust, not to the white but to the black man, because "it sought to do that which cannot be done,—to establish growth instead of the chance to grow." "The Law of the Land" will fully sustain the reputation that Mr. Hough won by "The Mississippi Bubble" and "The Way to the West."

Another admirable story of Southern life is "Guthrie of the Times" (Doubleday, Page), by Joseph A. Alsheler. The book deals with the political conditions of a Southern State, presumably Kentucky, and attempts to demonstrate their essential dignity and healthiness. A young American girl who has brought home with her European education certain contemptuous notions of American politics is introduced. She comes in close contact with the politics of her State, and is finally convinced of the noble and valuable elements in them. The plot of the story turns about an impeachment brought against the Speaker of the House, who is charged with partiality in seeking to hold back certain legislative measures. His innocence of the charge is proved by Guthrie, correspondent of the *Times*, who

represents well all that is best in American journalism. The fresh, sane optimism of the book is very appealing after all that is heard of corruption and plunder in politics. Guthrie is a thoroughly attractive type of the young American of to-day,—keen, resourceful, practical, yet not without a sense of the romance of life.

Contemporary social conditions have no more serious student than Judge Robert Grant, nor one who knows



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ROBERT GRANT.

how to embody the results of his study more attractively in the form of fiction. "The Undercurrent" (Scribners) deals with two insistent problems of American society,—the problem of enormous wealth and the problem of divorce. Judge Grant treats both with calmness and sanity. He does not belittle or satirize the multi-millionaire, but gives him his just due for frequent nobility of aim and method, and his consciousness of the heavy responsibility that rests upon him. The danger does not lie in his personality, but in the pace of living he necessarily sets. His continual display of luxury outweighs by far the salutary effects of his public beneficence. In treating of the problem of divorce, Judge Grant strongly upholds the position of the majority of modern States, that divorce is necessary and in many cases the only salvation of despairing lives. The characters and the story by means of which Judge Grant illustrates his views are thoroughly attractive from the point of view of literature. "The Undercurrent" is first of all a novel, and an excellent one, and only secondarily a book of purpose.

Of well-nigh equal interest and value is Prof. Robert Herrick's "The Common Lot" (Macmillan). It is a vivid story of business and professional life in Chicago. The reader is made to feel the great struggle for wealth and success, its terrible fascination, its great danger. Professor Herrick likewise sets clearly before us those new social classes which wealth has created. There is a good deal of character-drawing in the book that is at once delicate and strong, and the story of how Francis Hart did not inherit the millions he had hoped for, took

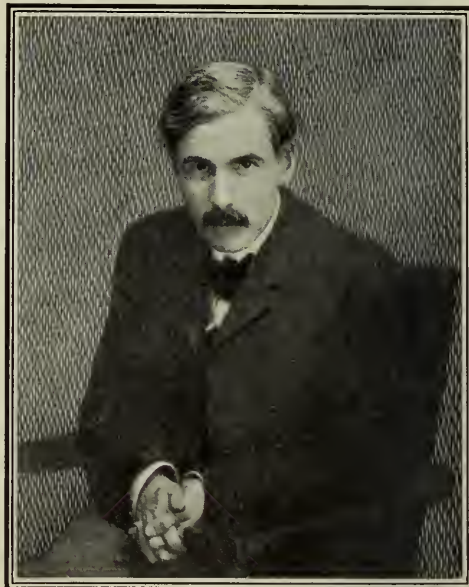
up the common lot of toil, and what came of it, is among the best in recent fiction.

"New Samaria" (Lippincott) is a brief but pregnant story by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell. By a series of perfectly probable occurrences, a millionaire is stranded in a small town in the West without any means of identifying himself. Thus he gets the chance of his life, which he is wise enough to see, to learn something of human nature at a short distance, especially as it occurs in the tramp and the almsgiver. The volume includes a second story of less interest.

A novel of unusually high merit, a story of Canadian life, may be noted here. It is "Dr. Luke of the Labrador" (Revell) by Mr. Norman Duncan, a Canadian by birth and education, though now holding the chair of English in an American college. Mr. Duncan's short stories, good as they were, hardly perhaps gave promise of the strength and beauty and pathos of this, his first longer effort. He has added a new province to the realm of literature. The gray ice-bound fields of Labrador, those stern, grim seas, that virile, simple folk and its life of tragic monotony,—these things are new possessions to the imagination, possessions of enduring value. But Mr. Duncan has not only a new field to exploit, he



ROBERT HERRICK.



NORMAN DUNCAN.

has style. The swift yet long and undulating sentences move with a distinctive rhythm that is as fresh as it is new. They tell a strong, beautiful love story. Altogether, "Dr. Luke of the Labrador" is one of the season's two or three best books.

Three other less weighty books, all dealing with life in the South, are "The Eagle's Shadow" (Doubleday, Page), by James Branch Cabell, which is a pleasant comedy and beautifully written; "The River's Children" (Lippincott), by Ruth McEnery Stuart, an idyl of the Mississippi River; and "An Angel by Brevet" (Lippincott), by Helen Pitkin, a well-wrought story of Creole life in New Orleans.

OLD EUROPEAN DAYS.

"Theophano" (Harpers), by the well-known English historian and positivist, Frederic Harrison, is a brilliant piece of historical writing, whatever qualities of a good novel it may lack. The history of Byzantium is a subject on which the ideas of the majority of people are hazy, to say the least, and one cannot do better than trust to Mr. Harrison for clearer light on this obscure period, since he has undoubtedly brought to his task a knowledge of his subject rarely, if ever, possessed by the writer of historical novels. If the plot of "Theophano" drags, there is rich compensation in a vivid picture of the manners and the statecraft of the Eastern empire under the rule of Constantine Porphyrogenetus. The hero of the novel is that brave general, Nicephorus Phocas, who delivered Crete from Saracen sovereignty; its heroine, the dissolute but fascinating Empress Theophano, in the delineation of whose character Mr. Harrison does not fail of success. If "Theophano" is not a very good novel, it is a highly instructive piece of literature.

There seems to be no limit to the historical erudition of Mr. William Stearns Davis. He has written a novel dealing with the fall of the Roman republic; another the scene of which is laid during the first crusade. His latest book, "Falaise of the Blessed Voice" (Macmillan), is a romance of France under the reign of Saint Louis. Mr. Davis is frankly a follower of Scott. His characters all speak the rather impossible jargon of "Quentin Durward" and "Ivanhoe." But Mr. Davis undoubtedly tells a fascinating story of people who are genuinely interesting, and throws over the whole the glamour of romance. Falaise, the blind singer, is an

exquisite figure, whose power of song exerts its unconscious influence as Pippa's did in Browning's "Pippa Passes." The character of Louis is convincingly drawn, and the various scenes of medieval life clearly seen and depicted.

"The Lady of Loyalty House" (Harpers), by Mr. Justin Huntly McCarthy, is a brisk and breezy romance of Cavalier and Puritan, and, of course, of the love of a loyal lady for a Puritan captain. Evan-

der, the captain, is held a prisoner of war in the loyal mansion of Brilliana, and becomes naturally a prisoner of love. There are plenty of hairbreadth 'scapes, and the story runs on with breathless rapidity to a happy ending. There is little or no attempt at historical accuracy or minute coloring, a fact that is quite refreshing. Mr. McCarthy is content to tell a swift and fascinating story, in which effort he succeeds thoroughly.

A more thoughtful romance of the same period of English history is "Elinor Arden, Royalist" (Century), by Mary Constance Du Bois. Little Elinor Arden, true to the cause of her dead father's king, is left an orphan and must



JUSTIN HUNTLY MCCARTHY.

live with the family of a Roundhead uncle. Her life in the Puritan household is well described. But she remembers the good cause, and by her quick wit and daring is enabled to save the infant daughter of her king from his enemies. Later comes a love story, with the happy ending of which the book ends also.

NOVELS OF ENGLISH LIFE.

In "Kate of Kate Hall" (Appleton), Miss Ellen Thornycroft Fowler has cleverly adapted the story of "The Taming of the Shrew" to the necessities of a tale of modern English society. Kate is the daughter of a

poor earl; she must marry for money. The suitable match is found, but Kate leads the gentleman a by no means merry life.

Here the conflict between the modern Petruchio and his Kate is briskly and cleverly set forth. But as in the play, so here the shrew is tamed by the great tamer—love. "Stay!" so Kate yields, "not because they ask it, but because I do." The obsession of the epigram is somewhat less apparent here than in Miss Fowler's earlier books.

The central theme of "The Masquerader" (Harpers), by Katherine Cecil Thurston, is



Frontispiece (reduced) from "Kate of Kate Hall."



WILLIAM STEARNS DAVIS.

by no means as original, as has been asserted. Two men looking absolutely alike, secretly changed places long ago in Mr. Zangwill's "The Premier and the Painter," and the same thing happened—with a difference—in Mr. Hope's "Prisoner of Zenda." But "The Masquerader" is a strong story of English political life, and furthermore, the ethical problem involved in the secret change of place is solved in a new and eminently sane manner. The gradual disintegration of Chilcote's character is a strong piece of work, as is likewise the description of Loder's inner growth.

"The Ragged Messenger" (Putnams), by W. B. Maxwell, is a powerful story of a clergyman, a free-lance of faith, who suddenly inherited great wealth, and of how he used it. The Rev. John Morton is a strong and attractive figure, intensely typical of certain constant aspects of the Anglo-Saxon temperament.

"The Truants" (Harpers), by A. E. W. Mason, is a novel of London life that is sure to awaken the reader's interest. The fate of the young Stretton couple, whose love of each other and of life itself is in danger of being crushed out by the tyranny of Sir John Stretton, is strange and new, and yet strikes one as quite true to the probability of things as they are. Tony Stretton escapes to prepare a new home for his wife, who unfortunately falls under the influence of an adventurer. But finally all comes right. More attractive figures, however, than either of them are those of Pamela Mar-dale, the real heroine of the book, and of Giraud, the dreamy schoolmaster of a village in the Riviera.

TALES OF THE MARVELOUS.

"The Food of the Gods" (Scribners), is Mr. H. G. Wells' latest experiment in fantastic prophecy. Unfortunately, he disregards all scientific probability this time, a fact that makes the book less convincing and less interesting than its predecessors. The "Food" increases the growth of all organisms. Giant wasps whirl through the air; giant nettles break into houses; giant human brats grow to the height of forty feet. Mr. Wells evidently thinks, despite his whimsical humor, that such a state of affairs would be seriously desirable. It is Mr. Wells'



H. G. WELLS.

peculiar humorous gift that forms perhaps, after all, the most valuable element in his books, and of this there is a good deal in "The Food of the Gods."

In "The Unpardonable War" (Macmillan), Mr. James Barnes takes to prophecy in something like Mr. Wells' earlier vein. The war is a tremendous cataclysmic struggle between England and America which will take place within the present century. So great will the destructive power of modern weapons have become that the opposing armies will simply annihilate each other. Hence peace is to spring from the loins of war itself, and not be brought about by congresses or con-

ventions. There is much strong and vivid writing in the book.

"The Gray World" (Century), by Evelyn Underhill, is a weird and fantastic story of a child-ghost and its reincarnation. The child cannot forget the sad world of the fleeting dead from which it has come and be-



EVELYN UNDERHILL.

comes, hence, as a human child, "queer." The best thing in the book is the pathos of the description of the unrestful ghosts.

"Princess Thora" (Little, Brown) is a fascinating romance by Mr. Harris Burland. Some time in the tenth century a band of Norman knights, carried by a strange convulsion of nature to the North Pole, establish there on a volcanic and hence fertile island a medieval state which survives to this day. The Silax polar expedition, after a manner that the reader must discover for himself, succeeds in reaching this feudal kingdom of Asturnia. The book is highly imaginative, and compels that momentary suspension of disbelief which is poetic faith.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

The doings of the six Madigan girls, as chronicled by Miss Miriam Michelson in "The Madigans" (Century), are quite delicious. The six girls are so thoroughly and frankly human, and yield themselves with such unconscious joy to all their instincts, that the reader is disarmed as far as approval or disapproval goes. They were undoubtedly by no means even moderately good, —Kate and Split and Sissy and the rest,—but it must have been good to know them and to be admitted to their quarrels and counsels. Miss Michelson's humor has rare freshness and charm.

"May Iverson—Her Book" (Harpers), by Elizabeth Jordan, is another delightful story about girls. May Iverson, aged fourteen, sets down her adventures in the great convent school, and incidentally lets us get glimpses of her view of things in general. The episodes of little Kitty James, who was fed with knowledge, of the poetess, and not a few of others, possess humor that is at once rich and delicate. The book is by



ELIZABETH JORDAN.

tragedy enters the story in the course of its development, but the humor predominates,—good humor, although mainly that of situation.

SHORT STORIES.

Miss Eleanor Hoyt has gathered ten of her pleasant and interesting stories in a volume that takes its title from the first story, "Nancy's Country Christmas" (Doubleday, Page). "The Little God and the Mashine" and "The Visiting Peer" are brief episodes of American life treated with insight and humor.

Far more weighty and vital are the stories which Miss Viola Roseboro has collected under the title, "Players and Vagabonds" (Macmillan). It is Miss Roseboro's special gift to find the hidden beauty under things of sordid aspect, the spirit of good and of human kindness under all that appears harsh and evil. Hence the pathos of her stories rings true and sound, and her all-embracing charity engages the fullest sympathy. These tattered waifs and strays of life, these "players and vagabonds," have found one to plead for them whose pleading it would hardly be possible to resist.

Mr. John Fox, Jr.'s, "Christmas Eve on Lonesome" (Scribners) is a volume of virile tales of those aspects of Southern life a knowledge of which Mr. Fox has displayed in his previous books. Comedy and tragedy are never far apart in this life, where the passions of men are strong and swift, though their speech and aspect are quaint and rustic. The volume ends with a capital dog-story, "Christmas Night With Satan."

Very much lighter and more vivacious, though not

no means calculated to give pleasure to girls alone.

How Lient. Robert Warburton tries to play a practical joke on his sister, becomes entangled in the mesh of his own weaving, and finally takes the position of groom and coachman in the house of the girl he loves,—these are the original adventures that form the theme of Mr. Harold MacGrath's "The Man on the Box" (Bobbs-Merrill). An element of

lacking in insight, and of excellent artistic finish, are Mr. Robert W. Chambers' "A Young Man in a Hurry, and Other Stories" (Harpers). The title story is by no

means the best in the volume. The best are witty, piquant, and swiftly told.

"Traffics and Discoveries" is the title of Mr. Kipling's latest book, the first volume of collected tales since "A Day's Work." "Traffics and Discoveries" (Doubleday, Page) consists of eleven stories, all of which, except the longest—"The Army of a Dream"—have already been published in the maga-



ROBERT W. CHAMBERS.

zines. The one entitled "They" appeared within a few months past. A good deal of Mr. Kipling's later work has been saturated with a sort of psychological subtlety, which was foreshadowed in his famous tale, "The Brushwood Boy." In this latest collection, the stories "They" and "Wireless" are especially redolent of this subtlety, which in conception reminds us of the elder Hawthorne, but in style are Kipling's inimitable own.

Rev. William Boyd Carpenter, Bishop of Ripon, has written a little Christmas story under the title, "The Christ-Child of the Three Ages of Man" (Dutton).

A NOTEWORTHY EDITION OF THACKERAY.

By far the most satisfactory edition of Thackeray we have seen in recent years is the one published by Crowell in thirty volumes, by William P. Trent and John Bell Henneman. These are quietly and tastefully bound, and the paper and letterpress are satisfactory. Most of the illustrations are historic ones, and each volume has as a frontispiece a reproduction of a steel engraving, generally of the author at some stage of his career. Not only are the well-known masterpieces, "Vanity Fair," "Henry Esmond," and the other great world novels included, but also the essays, burlesques, Christmas stories, sketches, criticisms of letters and art, quips in *Punch*, drawings, poems, and a new collection of typical personal letters. Practically everything Thackeray ever wrote is included in this excellent edition, under the general title, "The Complete Works of William Makepeace Thackeray."

A COUPLE OF JAPANESE NOVELS.

One form of Japanese patriotism not sufficiently well known, perhaps, is that of the cultured class, who, while the armies of Japan have been fighting her battles in Manchuria, have been campaigning by voice and pen for the understanding and approval of the civilized world. Pamphlets on politics and economics, magazine articles, and even novels, are being written to further this end. One of the most striking specimens of the last form of literature is Gensai Murai's novel, "Hana, a Daughter of Japan." In this novel the author endeavors to "display, in a slight measure, some of the characteristics of his countrymen." It is the story of a beautiful, virtuous Japanese girl and a false, bold, bad Russian, with a big, brave, chivalrous American thrown



Illustration (reduced) from "Nancy's Country Christmas."

in for good measure. The daughter of Japan and her family exhibit all the high-mindedness and other fine qualities which the writer claims for and the rest of the world has been content to admit are characteristic of, the Japanese people. The Russian officer embodies all the undesirable qualities which are held to characterize the Russian Government. Japan, the author contends, is fighting for civilization and humanity. Russia "ever shows her gluttonous ambition, while her own people are suffering from tyranny." With praiseworthy enterprise, the author has had his story translated into elegant English, and it is such a beautiful piece of book-making that we are ready to pardon the naïveté with which the author makes the villain kill himself just at the opportune moment. The book is printed on fine paper, illustrated with more than usually attractive Japanese pictures, and is bound in silk, with an exquisite flower design on the cover. It is inclosed in a cover of special design, held together by odd but beautiful little ivory catches. The book is published by the Hochi Shimbun Press, in Tokio. The author, by the way, is one of the best-known living Japanese novelists.

Onoto Watanna may not infuse into her novels the correct Japanese spirit. A number of citizens of Japau have claimed that she does not. In her novels of Japa-

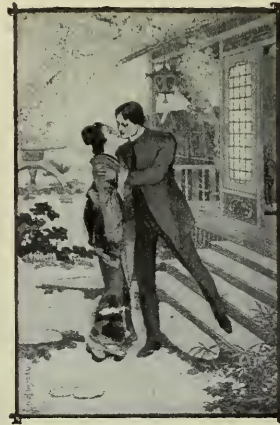


Illustration (reduced) from
"The Love of Azalea."

This volume is daintily illustrated by an artist with the Japanese name of Gaso Foudji, illustrator and decorator, who has done his work well.

nese life, however, she certainly succeeds in presenting to us a delightful, charming, idyllic spirit of some kind which we would like to believe accurately Japanese. Moreover, she always selects such delicious titles. Her latest novel, "The Love of Azalea," is a charming, dainty love-story, and its publishers (Dodd, Mead) have presented it in a beautiful setting. Azalea was a sweet little Japanese girl, beloved by an American clergyman, who remained faithful to her through many vicissitudes of fortune.

NOVELS OF THE MONTH.

- Atoms of Empire. By C. J. Cutcliffe Hyne. Macmillan.
 Baccarat. By Frank Danby. Lippincott.
 Bindweed, The. By Nellie K. Blisset. Mann Vynne Publishing Company.
 Black Friday. By F. S. Isham. Bobbs-Merrill.
 Box of Matches, A. By Hamblen Sears. Dodd, Mead.
 Cape Cod Folks. By Sarah P. McL. Greene. DeWolfe, Fiske.
 Captains of the World. By Gwendolen Overton. Macmillan.
 Chronicles of Don Q. By K. and Hesketh Prichard. Lippincott.
 Common Way, The. By Margaret Deland. Harpers.
 Comrade-in-Arms. By General King. The Hobart Company.
 Custodian, The. By Archibald Eyre. Holt.
 Deacon Lysander. By Sarah P. McL. Greene. Baker & Taylor.
 Dialstone Lane. By W. W. Jacobs. Scribners.
 Divine Fire, The. By May Sinclair. Holt.
 Dr. Tom. By J. W. Streeter. Macmillan.
 Eighteen Miles From Home. By William T. Hodge. Small, Maynard.
 Emmanuel Burden. By Hilaire Belloc. Scribners.
 Entering Wedge, The. By W. K. Marshall. Jennings & Graham Company.
 Fantasmland. By Charles Raymond Macauley. Bobbs-Merrill.
 Fergy the Guide. By H. S. Canfield. Holt.
 First Stone, The. By W. T. Washburn. Fenno.
 Five Little Peppers and their Friends. By Margaret Sidney. Lothrop.
 Flower of Youth, The. By R. R. Gilson. Harpers.
 Freckles. By G. Stratton-Porter. Doubleday, Page.
 Gabriel Pread's Castle. By Alice Jones. Turner.
 Hope Hathaway. By Frances Parkér. C. M. Clark Pub. Co.
 Japanese Romance, A. By Clive Holland. Stokes.
 Jimmie Moore, of Bucktown. By W. E. Trotter. Winona Publishing Company, Chicago.
 Knitting of Souls. By Maud C. Gay. Lee & Shepard.
 Little Miss Dec. By Roswell Field. Revell.
 Love in Chief. By Rose K. Weeks. Harpers.
 Mammy Rosie. By A. M. Bagby. Published by the author.
 Misfit Crown, The. By Frances Davidge. Appletons.
 Mr. Waldy's Return. By Theo. Winthrop. Holt.
 More Cheerful Americans. By Charles B. Loomis. Holt.
 My Lady Daughter. By Dwight Tilton. C. M. Clark Publishing Company.
 Nathalie's Sister. By Annie C. Ray. Little, Brown.
 Nelson's Yankee Boy. By F. H. Costello. Holt.
 Never-never Land. By W. Barrett. Lippincott.
 New Paolo and Francesca, A. By Annie E. Holdsworth. John Lane.
 Nostromo: A Tale of the Seaboard. By Joseph Conrad. Harpers.
 On Etna. By Norma Lorimer. Holt.
 On the Trail of Pontiac. By Edward Strattemeyer. Lee & Shepard.
 Overlord, The. By Allan McIvor. Ritchie.
 Paths of Judgment. By Anne D. Sedgewick. Century.
 Piney Home. By G. S. Kimball. Turner.
 Poketown People. By Ella Middleton Tybout. Lippincott.
 Prince Chap, The. By Edward Peple. Putnam's.
 Professor Lovedahl. By Alexander Kieland. Stone.
 Prospector, The. By Ralph Connor. Revell.
 Pursuit of Phyllis. By J. H. Bacon. Holt.
 Quest of John Chapman, The. Newell Dwight Hillis. Macmillan.
 Quincunx Case, The. By W. D. Pitman. Turner.
 Rachel Marr. By Moreley Roberts. L. C. Page.
 Reaper, The. By Edith Rickert. Houghton, Mifflin.
 Roland of Altenburg. By E. M. Woolley. Stone.
 Search, The. By E. P. Weaver. Barnes.
 Seeker, The. By H. L. Wilson. Doubleday, Page.
 Soldier of the Valley. By Nelson Lloyd. Scribner.
 Sweet Peggy. By L. S. Harris. Little, Brown.
 Talitha Cumi. By Annie J. Holland. Lee & Shepard.
 Three Prisoners, The. By W. H. Shelton. Barnes.
 Tonda: A Story of the Sioux. By Warren K. Morehead. Clarke.
 Trixy. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Houghton, Mifflin.
 Winning His "W." By E. T. Tomlinson. American Baptist Publishing Society.
 Wolverine, The. By A. L. Lawrence. Little, Brown.
 Zelda Dameron. By Meredith Nicholson. Bobbs-Merrill.

SERIOUS BOOKS OF THE SEASON.

NEW BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

“THE traveler's joy” in France and Italy lies chiefly in historic association; and the richness of this historic background has seldom been presented more wittingly than in the volume “Sketches on the Old Road Through France to Florence” (Dutton), by A. H. Hallam Murray, with the assistance of Henry W. Nevison and Montgomery Carmichael. These artist travelers entered Florence in what has been called the only right way; that is, to slide into it through a river's mouth. Beginning at Harfleur, and journeying in a stately way through Normandy, central France, and transalpine Gaul, the artists of pen and brush give us a very entertainingly written description of the bits of old France dear to the hearts of art lovers, and embellish all with a series of delicious pictures in color.

Mr. Maurice Hewlett's “Road in Tuscany,” in two volumes (Macmillan), is one of those genial, leisurely, charming books, with a touch of intimate knowledge, that we find in the combination of the artist and traveler. It reveals the real Italy, with its color and fragrance, which is known only to those who get away from the towns and cities. Typographically, the work is elegant, and the pictures really illustrate. Mr. Hewlett strikes the keynote of the work in his preambulatory remarks when he says: “I have always preferred a road to a church, always a man to a masterpiece, a singer to his song; and I have never opened a book when I could read what I wanted on the hillside or by the river bank.”

It was to tell people “what Jerusalem is like” that Mr. A. Goodrich-Freer has written his “Inner Jerusalem” (Dutton). The author writes from the Holy City itself, and, it is interestingly significant to note, right under the shadow of the Russian tower. Among other

noteworthy facts brought out as to life in modern Jerusalem is one which the author presents in these words: “While we sing ‘They call us to deliver their land from error's chain,’ let us realize that here we may send out our youngest maid, with no further caution than not to get her pocket picked; we may take a cab, certain that our driver, unless he be a Christian, will not get drunk.” There are many full-page illustrations, chiefly from photographs.

A terrific indictment of Turkish misrule and anarchy in the Balkans is Mr. Reginald Wyon's bulky volume, “The Balkans From Within” (Scribners). The author



REGINALD WYON UNDER AIGEST IN SERBIA.

Illustration (reduced) from “The Balkans From Within.”



THE MOUNT OF OLIVES AND THE RUSSIAN TOWER.

Illustration (reduced) from “Inner Jerusalem.”

believes that a terrible war between Bulgaria and Turkey is a matter of the very near future. Mr. Wyon was originally hostile to the Macedonians, but, after a visit to that country, his opinion changed entirely. He describes an intolerable condition, even worse than most of the reports we have already had as to the misrule and massacre in unfortunate Macedonia and Albania. The dispatch of Austrian troops to Macedonia, this writer declares, indicates the existence of secret treaties, and also that, at the first sign of actual fighting, Austria will receive a European mandate to move. Mr. Wyon's volume is copiously illustrated with photographs. It is also supplemented with some maps and diagrams.

Mr. Heinrich Schafer's “Songs of an Egyptian Peasant,” originally published in German two years ago, has been rendered in English by Frances Hart Breasted, and published by Hinrichs, of Leipzig. It is not intended as a book for scholars, we are told in the preface, but has been prepared for the pleasure of travelers on the Nile. Although the life of the Egyptian peasant is very monotonous, the translator declares that he has a strong musical appreciation, and that there are all kinds of songs, sentimental and even martial. The book is paper-bound and illustrated.

Fascinating is the term to apply to Mr. Frank T. Bullen's descriptions of sea life. His "Cruise of the Cachalot" was perhaps the most famous work, but a later one. "Denizens of the Deep" (Revell), is certainly as charming in style and graphic in description. Mr. Bullen has the faculty of imparting to the life of the deep sea an almost human quality. All sorts of representatives of the reptilian and finny tribes are introduced and made as familiar as men we know. Each of the dwellers of the deep seems to have a personality. The illustrations in this volume are excellent. They are as lifelike as reality.



FRANK T. BULLEN.

JAPAN, CHINA, AND KOREA.

Books of travel and description, with Japan for their subject, are being replaced by solid serious studies of the Japanese people and their relations to the rest of the world. One of the best volumes, in brief compass, on Japanese historical development, and answering the question, What has enabled the Japanese people to escape the fate of other Asiatic nations when in contact with the West? is "The Awakening of Japan," by Okakura-Kakuzo, author of "The Ideals of the East." The accomplishments of the New Japan, Dr. Okakura points out, are the natural outcome of her history,—her religion, her art, and her traditions. He writes in Eng-

lish, with a broad culture. There is no "yellow peril," he declares. He also indicates some of the tendencies which may affect the future of the Orient, and speaks with much appreciation of the Christian attitude toward woman as an influence upon the society and civilization of Japan. Dr. Okakura was one of the illustrious exponents of the old ideals, which, nevertheless, led to the Japanese renaissance.

Another thoughtful philosophical work, by a Japanese, written in English, is Dr. K. Akasawa's work, "The Russo-Japanese Conflict" (Houghton, Mifflin). Dr. Akasawa has been lecturer on the civilization and history of East Asia at Dartmouth College. He has made a most illuminating and complete statement of the needs and aspirations of the Japanese people, which led them to take up arms against Russia. A good map and several portraits illustrate the volume. Dr. Akasawa, in his preface, declares his earnest intention to present a fair statement. He announces that no greater favor can be done him than a more complete and just statement of Russia's cause than he has been able to make.

The first book on the war, by one who has been in it, is Frederick Palmer's "With Kuroki in Manchuria"

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JAMES H. HARE.

(Scribners). All the chapters of this volume have already appeared as special correspondence in *Collier's Weekly*, and they are illustrated from photographs by James H. Hare. Mr. Palmer was with General Kuroki from before the battle of the Yalu until after Liao-Yang. His description, written in the fine swinging style for



OKAKURA-KAKUZO.



Copyright by Collier's Weekly.

(Frederick Palmer.)

FREDERICK PALMER, AND THE AMERICAN ATTACHÉS, COL. E. H. CROWDER AND CAPT. C. C. MARCH, AT FENG WANG CHENO.

which his work is noteworthy, begins with the chapter "The Strategy and Politics of the War." He presents the campaigning very realistically. Of course, he is full of admiration for Japanese patience, system, and pluck, but between his lines we cannot fail to catch glimpses of the splendid heroism and soldierly qualities of the Russian common soldier.

Dr. Louis L. Seaman's tribute to the Japanese surgical and medical department has already been referred



DR. LOUIS L. SEAMAN.

to in this REVIEW. His experiences on the march "From Tokio Through Manchuria With the Japanese" have been published in book form (Appletons), with many illustrations. Dr. Seaman shows, by pen and picture, how thorough and up-to-date the Japanese medical staff is; how small is the percentage of mortality in the armies of Japan, because the medical department relies more on prevention than cure. He points out rather ironically that, when the Occidental governments, including the United States, were invited to send military attachés with the forces of Japan, not one of

them sent an official representative to follow the medical work,—“two men apiece for each country to study how Japanese can kill, but not one to observe how they can cure disease or prevent it.”

Three supplementary issues of the *Eastern World*, published in English in Yokohama, Japan, are pamphlets entitled "Japanese Characteristics," "What are the Natural Resources of Japan," and a review of the correspondence in the negotiations between Japan and Russia, 1903-1904. These are written by Mr. F. Shroeder, editor and proprietor of the *Eastern World*. Mr. Shroeder believes that Japan could have gained her ends without war. His comments on the Japanese people and the resources of the country are very frank. He condemns a number of the governmental regulations which put difficulties in the way of business by foreigners.

An analysis of the new Japanese Civil Code as material for the study of comparative jurisprudence was presented to the International Congress of Arts and Science, at St. Louis, by Mr. Nobushige Hozumi, professor of law in the Imperial University of Tokio. This paper has been published in pamphlet form, in English, by the Tokio Printing Company. It is a very thorough analysis.

Lady Susan Townley's experiences in Peking have been supplemented by historical and political chapters and published under the title, "My Chinese Note-Book" (Dutton). The book is of the kind to be characterized



A PEKING CART.

Illustration (reduced) from "My Chinese Note-Book."

as informing. It is written in an entertaining style, and contains quite a wealth of reminiscences. The volume is illustrated with sixteen portraits and views, which are supplemented by several maps and diagrams.

Dr. William Elliot Griffis has revised and edited his well-known and standard work, "Korea, the Hermit Nation," which is issued in its seventh edition (Scribners). This work originally appeared in 1882, and has since been a standard in the way of description and history of Korea and the Korean people. Dr. Griffis has been many years in Korea and writes from a background of rich experience. This latest volume contains chapters on the "Chino-Japanese War," and the present conflict between Japan and Russia. Besides, it is equipped with a number of maps and plans and an excellent bibliography.

The latest issue of the Cambridge Historical Series is

tality in the armies of Japan, because the medical department relies more on prevention than cure. He points out rather ironically that, when the Occidental governments, including the United States, were invited to send military attachés with the forces of Japan, not one of

on "Europe and the Far East" (Macmillan), by Sir Robert K. Douglas, professor of Chinese at King's College, London. The aim of this series is to sketch the history of modern Europe with that of its chief colonies and acquisitions, from about the end of the fifteenth century down to the present. And in this special volume, Sir Robert attempts to give a connected history of the relations which have obtained between the nations of the West and the empires of China, Japan, Anam, and Siam. The volume begins with a consideration of the earliest known intercourse between East and West, and brings the reader down to the origin of the Russo-Japanese War. There is a bibliography and a good index, besides several excellent maps.

RUSSIAN LIFE AND SOCIETY.

An entertaining description of Russia and life among the Russians, illustrated, and written especially for young people, is "Russia, the Land of the Great White Czar" (Cassell), by E. C. Phillips (Mrs. Horace B. Looker), author of "Peeps Into China."

An old friend of a book on "Russian Life and Society" has been revived in a new edition by Wood & Company, Boston. This little volume consists of an account of a Russian tour in 1866-67 by Appleton and Longfellow, "two young travelers from the United States, who had been officers in the Union army, and a journey to Russia with General Banks in 1869." The work was prepared for the press by Capt. Nathan Appleton. It is illustrated.

TWO VOLUMES OF AFRICANA.

An informing but gresome work on Africana is the Rev. Dr. Robert H. Nassau's "Fetichism in West Africa" (Scribners). Dr. Nassau was a missionary in the Gabun district of the French Congo for forty years. He has already written several volumes on African native customs and superstitions, but this one is the most ambitious. It is a sad and gloomy story of barbarism and mental darkness. The volume is illustrated from photographs.

Mr. E. D. Morel's book, "King Leopold's Rule in Africa" (Funk & Wagnalls), a bulky volume of five hundred pages, is a chronicle of ghastly outrages and terrible oppressions on the part of Belgian officials in the Congo. The pictures are particularly revolting. The author of the volume has been carrying on a campaign in the magazines and newspapers of Great Britain for years on the subject of Congo misrule. As a member of the Aborigines Protection Society, and a well-known writer on West African questions, he undertook the compilation of this book. The trouble with Congo, he declares, is the white rulers on substitu-



E. D. MOREL.

cial relations for human happiness. The upon the great powers of the world to e name of humanity.

ENTERTAINING BIOGRAPHY.

"The True Henry Clay," by Joseph M. Rogers (Lippincott), is an attempt to delineate for the present generation one of the most popular of American statesmen of the era which closed with the Civil War. It cannot be said that the American people have forgotten Clay or his achievements; but it is certainly true that as the years go by many of the things that Clay stood for and worked most strenuously for in his lifetime have been relegated to the background, while not a few political movements have been associated with his name to which he was really a stranger. Mr. Rogers makes no attempt in this volume either to uphold or to condemn any portion of Clay's public career. His sole ambition is to picture Clay just as he was. Mr. Rogers has had access to all the private papers left by the great Kentuckian; and his lifelong familiarity with Clay's career and

environment has enabled him to write, by all odds, the most entertaining and intimate sketch of Clay that has yet appeared. Many of the illustrations, especially the portraits, several of which are now reproduced for the first time, are extremely interesting.

Every one who is not sure of the greatness and sweetness of John Bunyan, who does not know him for one of the truly strong men of history, should read Mr. W. Hale White's life of the famous tinker, in Scribner's series of "Literary Lives."

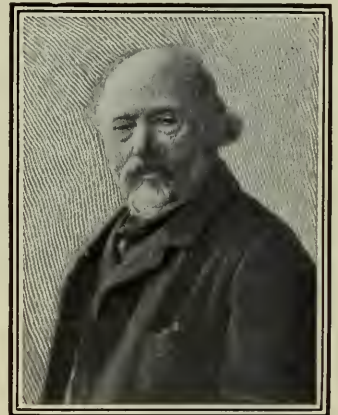
Mr. White has made us see Bunyan the man, and through him the great, sober, deadly earnest English folk, of whom he was the interpreter. This volume is helpfully illustrated. It ought to accompany every copy of "The Pilgrim's Progress."

When, some years ago, Prof. Arminius Vámbéry's "Life and Adventures," written by himself, appeared, it secured immediate popularity and influence all over the English-speaking world. Dr. Vámbéry, who is now professor of Oriental languages in the University of Budapest, has been encouraged by this reception of



JOHN BUNYAN.

(From a portrait in the British Museum. Frontispiece of book.)



PROFESSOR ARMINIUS VÁMBÉRY.

his first work to write out the story of his entire career, under the title, "The Story of My Struggles" (Dutton), in two volumes. Professor Vámbéry, it will be remembered, is an Hungarian Hebrew, who has had remarkable experiences as a traveler and scientist, particularly in the Oriental countries, and has been author, journalist, and politician. These volumes are illustrated with several portraits.

A series of very interesting and valuable little books on "The Lives of Great Writers" is being prepared for A. S. Barnes & Co. by Tudor Jenks. These aim to trace the historic and personal background against which we may to most advantage see the lives of the most eminent writers of all ages. "In the Days of Chaucer," illustrated, with an introduction by Hamilton Wright Mabie, is the first of the series to appear. Mr. Jenks, says Mr. Mabie, in his introduction, has freshened our conception of the great English poet. He has "made us see Chaucer's England, understand its habits, overheard its speech, and comprehend its spirit."

The latest issue in the "Beacon Biographies" (Small, Maynard), edited by M. A. De Wolfe Howe, is the life of Walt Whitman, by Isaac Hull Platt. Mr. Platt acknowledges that he approaches his task as an unqualified admirer of Whitman, and a believer to the fullest extent in the greatness of his work. And yet he does not spare criticism. The frontispiece of this little volume is a portrait of Whitman from a photograph taken in 1879.

It was to have been expected that Mrs. Maybrick would write a book. Her own story of her trial for the murder of her husband, and her long imprisonment, has just been published, under the title, "Mrs. Maybrick's Own Story: My Fifteen Lost Years," by Florence Elizabeth Maybrick (Funk & Wagnalls). She says she shrank from the task of writing, but she was forced to do so by her friends. The story is really an indictment of the British judicial methods, with as much of the psychology of her prison life as, she declares, she has been able to wring from her memory and heart. The sympathetic reader will wish that Mrs. Maybrick had spoken of her life with her husband up to the time of his death, but she starts sharply with her arrest on the charge of having murdered him. There is no bitterness in the book, but it is a strong indictment of British justice, and points out the crying need for a British Court of Appeals in criminal cases. The whole story of her trial and imprisonment, from the death of her husband, Edward Maybrick, in 1899, until, fifteen years later, when she had finished her "life" sentence (in December, 1903), is told simply, and there is added a legal and medical analysis of the case.

MODERN AMERICAN PROBLEMS.

In a volume bearing as its title the single impressive word "Poverty" (Macmillan), Mr. Robert Hunter undertakes to estimate the extent of poverty at the present time in the United States; to describe some of its evils, not only among the dependent and vicious classes, but also among the unskilled, underpaid, underfed, and poorly housed workers; to point out certain remedial actions which society may wisely undertake, and, finally, to show that the evils of poverty are continually reproducing themselves in society. In the first chapter, Mr. Hunter gives his reasons for believing that, even in prosperous times, no less than ten million persons in the United States are underfed, underclothed, and poorly housed. One class in the community to which Mr. Hun-



ROBERT HUNTER.

ter gives especial attention in his book, and which works of this character have frequently neglected, consists of the large group of underpaid wage-workers from which the dependent classes are mainly recruited. Mr. Hunter does not pretend to make an exhaustive study of the problem, but he tells of things that he has seen while living among the poorest of the working people; and the most telling facts that he presents are facts drawn, not from official reports, but from actual experience and observation. As a record of such data, his book is an extremely valuable contribution to sociology.

Prof. Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago, has prepared a useful compendium of "Modern Methods of Charity" (Macmillan), in which he gives an account of the systems of public and private relief in the principal countries having modern methods. This subject, it would seem, is one in which the comparative treatment is especially desirable. The labor of marshaling and combining the facts that are included in this volume must have been enormous. Any student or investigator who is seeking to follow out the experience of the different countries of the world in some particular field of philanthropy will now find this work practically done for him in Professor Henderson's excellent manual. The book should prove useful also, we think, to boards

of charities and to managers of public and private relief institutions.

In "The Negro: The Southerner's Problem," by Thomas Nelson Page (Scribners), we have a temperate discussion of the race question from the Southerner's point of view. Mr. Page believes that there are only two possible ways to solve the negro question in the South,—either the negro must be removed, or he must be elevated. Granted that the former



Photo by Davis & Sanford.

THOMAS NELSON PAGE.

method is out of the question, it only remains to improve him by education. Mr. Page shows that the old idea of educating the negro just as the white man is educated,—that is, by giving him "book education" and turning him loose,—has been found to be fallacious. The kind of education that Mr. Page advocates for the negro is, in brief, just the kind that is given by such institutions as Tuskegee and Hampton.

In "The American State Series" (Century Company), Prof. Frank J. Goodnow, of Columbia University, contributes the volume on "City Government in the United States." Professor Goodnow is the author of "Municipal Home Rule" and "Municipal Problems," two books published several years ago, which have held high rank as authorities on the topics treated. In the present work, the author confines himself almost exclusively to a study of American conditions, and at the same time broadens the scope of the inquiry so as to embrace the entire field of city government, so far as that is regarded from the viewpoint of organization and structure.

"The Women of America" (Macmillan) is the title of a book in which Miss Elizabeth McCracken gives the results of an investigation begun, several years ago, of the ideals and achievements of American women in the professions, in municipal affairs, in the arts, and in the home and in the things pertaining to home-making. In securing material, Miss McCracken has made long journeys, visiting many States and coming in contact with women of many callings and stations in life. Thus, the book is not made up of official statistics, but is the fruit of personal meetings with women and visits to the scenes of their occupations. Some of the chapter headings may suggest the variety of subjects covered: "The Pioneer Woman of the West," "The Woman in the Small Town," "The Southern Woman and Reconstruction," and "Woman Suffrage in Colorado."

"Southern Thoughts for Northern Thinkers" is a collection of lectures delivered throughout the Northern States by Mrs. Jeannette Robinson Murphy, who has been spending several years in endeavoring to "offset the influence of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' and reconstruct the North on the negro question." Mrs. Murphy believes that there is a vast deal of misplaced Northern sentiment and kindness with regard to the negro, and that it is time for the best Southern sentiment to awake to its responsibility in educating the black man and winning back his old-time regard. Mrs. Murphy criticises the South for neglecting to take proper interest in the education of the negroes, and especially deplors the lack of religious training which followed their emancipation. Bound in the same volume is a series of lectures and songs, entitled "African Music in America."



ELIZABETH M'CRACKEN.

Mrs. Murphy traces the development of American negro music from Africa, and points out its religious origin. What she has to say on this subject shows her to be a folk-lorist with keen insight and sympathetic judgment.

ESSAYS IN PHILOSOPHY AND ETHICS.

In his work, entitled "Balance: the Fundamental Verity" (Houghton, Mifflin), Orlando J. Smith, author of "Eternalism," has endeavored to offer "a key to the

fundamental scientific interpretations of the system of nature, a definition of natural religion, and a consequent agreement between science and religion." What Mr. Smith has really tried to do is to show that religion and science stand on the same rock, and that the law of compensation will explain away many philosophical difficulties. There is an appendix containing critical reviews by a number of eminent scientific and religious writers, most of which commend

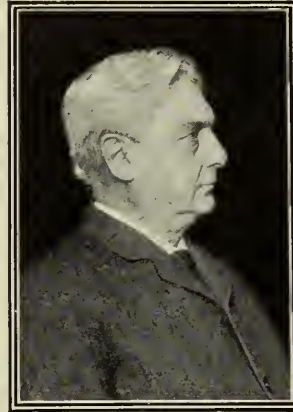


Photo by Marceau, N. Y.

MAJOR ORLANDO J. SMITH.

Mr. Smith's thesis and the way he has worked it out.

There is probably in all America not a college officer to-day who enjoys a greater popularity than does Dean Briggs, of Harvard and Radcliffe. It is only through his essays and addresses that the great outer public may come under the spell, now and then, of a personal charm that has made of every Harvard man a loyal retainer of "the Dean" and of every Radcliffe woman an enthusiastic admirer of the administrative head of her college. "Routine and Ideals" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the title given to Dr. Briggs' second volume of essays,—a book that every college student, of either sex, who has ever come in contact with the author will be eager to own, and one that all who have to do in any way with college or school administration may profitably read. Besides the title essay, we have in this volume an address to the school children of Concord, a commencement address at Wellesley College, papers on "Harvard and the Individual," "Discipline in School and College," and "The Mistakes of College Life" and, the Phi Beta Kappa poem read at Harvard in 1903,



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DEAN BRIGGS.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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From a photograph by Pirie MacDonald, photographer of men, New York.

THE LATE WILLIAM H. BALDWIN, JR.

(President of the Long Island Railroad and chairman of the General Education Board.—See page 141.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXXI.

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY, 1905.

No. 2.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Will Russia
Prolong
the War?*

The topics most widely discussed last month were (1) the probable effect of the fall of Port Arthur, and (2) Russia's domestic troubles, including the massacre of citizens by soldiers at St. Petersburg on Sunday, January 22d. The main facts regarding the conflict at the capital and the surrender of Port Arthur are set forth in other paragraphs of this department of the REVIEW. With the ending of the terrible siege of that great fortress, the major activities of the war were obliged to await the opening of spring weather in Manchuria. Obviously, the destruction of the Russian fleet, and the removal of the Russian garrison from the stronghold on the coast, will have liberated a large additional Japanese army to offset the Russian recruits at the fighting front, where the two main armies are now in winter quarters. The Baltic fleet had got as far as Madagascar on its way to the relief of Port Arthur. Its movements were involved in some mystery, but it was understood that orders for its return to the Baltic had been promptly issued. It is said that Russia will at once enter upon the construction of an immense new navy, giving the contracts to various foreign shipyards. But Japan can also acquire new ships, and the present naval prestige of the Japanese is of itself enough to counterbalance a considerable Russian superiority in the number of ships and guns. To end the war at this time would require moral courage on Russia's part.

*Japan's Ardor
and
Confidence.*

The Japanese at home are suffering a good deal from the economic privations incident to the cost of the war and the derangement of industry, but there is no sign of wavering or faltering in the unsurpassed patriotism of the Japanese. Their victories have **enhanced their national and racial pride, and added something—if that were possible—to the superb confidence they show in their government and their military and naval**

leaders. The Japanese feel themselves to be very much the smaller power, and in every sense the innocent and aggrieved party, encouraged by and entitled to the preponderant sympathy of the world at large. They remember that under somewhat similar circumstances the most minute nationality in the world,—namely, the Boers of South Africa,—held the whole British Empire at bay for nearly three years in what proved to be a war of colossal dimensions. The Japanese are fighting for what they regard as vital to their national existence, and the scenes of the war are not very remote from their sources of supply.

*Russia's
Chances of
Victory.*

The Russians, on the other hand, are fighting in a war which probably a great majority of the Russian people regard as a mistake from the outset. They are striving for dubious additions to an already overgrown empire, at a vast distance from the main centers of Russian population. There were many of us who believed, when hostilities first broke out, that the Japanese would be victorious in a short campaign, but that the Russians would almost inevitably win by sheer preponderance of material and financial resources, in a war of four or five years' duration. But as matters now stand, it would seem as if the Japanese had fully an even chance of victory in a war of several years, provided they can firmly resist the temptation to penetrate too far toward Moscow. The one clear deduction from all the facts is that this terrible war ought to be promptly ended, and that the Russians and Japanese might even now, while the bitterness of a Manchurian winter enforces a truce, agree upon terms of an honorable and permanent peace. The Japanese could afford to be very reasonable and conciliatory, and the great Russian Empire could much better afford to stop fighting and address itself to the peaceable work of building up its empire than to persist in a bloody and costly war in which the Russian people have neither heart nor hope.

*Japan and
Russia Should
Be Friends.*

It would seem that the principal reason for Russia's refusal to talk of peace lies in the belief that there would be involved a loss of repute and prestige that would practically destroy her international position. But such a belief shows folly and lack of discernment. The respect of the world for Russia would be increased in a marked degree by the spectacle of sound and prudent statesmanship rising superior to the distorted pride of the military party and stopping at once the risks and losses of a useless war. Mr. Stead points out that in one regard the war has been productive of a certain form of very real human gain. Whereas the French and Germans, after their struggle of a quarter-century ago, hated each other more than ever before and have remained in an attitude of bitterness toward each other through all these years, Mr. Stead declares that the result of the present war has been to make the Japanese and Russians think much more highly of each other than when the war began. The Russians looked upon the Japanese with contempt, and now they regard them with respect as antagonists of marvelous courage and prowess, and also of unusual magnanimity. The Japanese, on their part, know that the Russians also are of stubborn courage, and that they are a fine and worthy race of men. The Russian Empire is too great to suffer any serious humiliation in accepting philosophically the facts of defeat in the far East and in working out with Japan the terms of a mutually generous and honorable treaty of peace. If it were once decided between the two governments to substitute the principle of friendship for the principle of hostility, it would be found not too difficult to agree upon the details of a settlement under which the vital interests of both countries would be duly conserved. At this stage it ought to be possible to end the war without the payment of indemnity on either side, merely through the defining of the respective interests of the two powers in Korea and Manchuria. If the war is protracted, one side or the other will in the end have to pay an indemnity,—a humiliating after-blow that perpetuates ill-feeling and always leads the defeated power to plan for a future war.

*The
Question
of China.*

The interests of every neutral power in the world will be increasingly harmed and jeopardized by the decision on Russia's part to carry the war to the bitter end. Thus far, it has been possible to keep the area of the war limited in accordance with the views set forth in Secretary Hay's note and accepted by both belligerents; but if the war goes on, it will not be easy to maintain

Chinese neutrality. Russia last month sent a very significant note to the powers reminding them of previous notes in which she had called attention to the manner in which the Japanese had been allowed to use certain Chinese islands in violation of neutrality principles, and, further, to the hostile acts of Chinese subjects in Manchuria. The Japanese, on their part, were ready with a reply in which they undertook to show that the Russians had derived more benefit in one way or another from the use of Chinese territory or resources than had their opponents. Both parties were probably correct in their statements of fact. It all goes to show how seriously China might have been involved if no attempt had been made to keep her out of the imbroglio. The things complained of are relatively unimportant. They have been mere incidents.

*China Must
Be Kept
Neutral.*

Every effort must be made, however, to see that Chinese neutrality is more strictly maintained by the Chinese authorities themselves and more completely respected by both belligerents. The Russian attitude gives ground for suspecting that the government at St. Petersburg may be trying to lay down a foundation of excuses that could be used to justify a bold invasion of Chinese territory later on, when military exigencies might make it strongly desirable for Russia to enter upon certain operations that would require an occupation of China proper. Such conduct on Russia's part might involve several other powers in serious controversy. It will be wise and prudent for the Japanese to use the utmost endeavor to see that Russia shall have no further excuses for seeking to withdraw from the agreement to limit the theater of the war and to respect the neutral position of the Chinese Government.

*Interest of
the Powers
in Peace.*

Although France is the ally of Russia, and England is the ally of Japan, there is a firm understanding between the governments of England and France to the effect that they will not allow themselves to be drawn into the conflict. The English have many reasons for desiring to have peace established at an early day, and the French, who have loaned several thousands of millions of francs to the Russians, do not wish to see the credit of the Muscovite Government any further impaired, nor do they like to think of the chance of their being obliged to put their navy at the service of their ally under some change in the situation that might arise if the war should go on. French policy and sentiment are loyal to the arrangement with the Czar, but they are also, at present, very pacific and neighborly.



M. MAURICE ROUVIER.
(The new French premier).



M. ÉMILE COMBES.
(Who retired as French premier last month.)

*Political
Changes in
France.*

It is true that there came about a change of ministry in France last month; but, fortunately, this had no effect at all upon the foreign policy of the great republic. The prime minister, M. Combes, had not been defeated; but his majority had been much reduced through differences of opinion that had arisen upon one side and upon another. Having obtained a vote of confidence by a narrow margin after a protracted parliamentary fight, he had the excellent judgment to resign with his whole cabinet at a moment when he was thus able virtually to dictate the organization of the ministry that was to follow. This is what had happened when M. Waldeck-Rousseau, after his long and successful period as premier, had retired and brought about the administration of M. Combes as a virtual continuation of the radical republican government that had served France so creditably. M. Combes had been in office nearly three years. His retirement was with the prospect that his minister of finance, M. Rouvier, would become premier, and that his sagacious and talented minister of foreign affairs, M. Delcassé, would remain undisturbed at his post. And thus the change of ministry in France means a personal readjustment of the portfolios rather than any change of parties or of general policies. For instance, one of the things that had most discredited the Combes

administration had been the system of espionage that had grown up against army officers in the government struggle to diminish the political influence of the clerical and reactionary elements. M. Combes had frankly accepted the verdict of public opinion against him on this issue, had caused the retirement of General André from the cabinet, and had for the first time in the history of the French Republic put a civilian, M. Berteaux, at the head of the War Department. It was understood, in the retirement of the Combes ministry, that M. Berteaux would be reappointed minister of war. In a general way, the new ministry will undoubtedly continue the policy which looks to a separation of Church and State and the development of elementary education as a civil and secular rather than a clerical function. Furthermore, since the much-discussed proposals for an income tax in France had been brought forward by Rouvier himself as minister of finance in the Combes cabinet, it is quite certain that the income tax will form an important part of the policy of an administration in which M. Rouvier is slated for a chief place. There was delay in the formation of the new ministry, due to the fact that President Loubet was called away from the capital by the illness and death of his mother, who had survived to the age of ninety-two. But it was certain that the advanced republican coali-

tion would hold, and that the chief policies of Waldeck-Rousseau and Combes would govern the programme of the new ministerial group.

*Delcassé
Remains on
Guard.*

Best of all, however, for the outside world is the knowledge that M. Delcassé is to remain at the foreign office, and that his efficiency is abundantly recognized in France without regard to groups or parties. He will continue to advocate good relations with England, Italy, and Spain; will hold to the strong friendship now existing between the United States and France, and will do all that he can to promote peace in the Orient, without saying or doing anything to disrupt the Franco-Russian alliance. His influence was greater than that of any other man in removing the warlike tension between Russia and England that arose from the North Sea incident, and he may be counted upon to do what he can to persuade Russia, at what would seem the earliest feasible moment, to make peace with Japan.

*Germany and
Russia.*

The position of Germany is not so easy to understand as that of some other countries; yet it is evident that Germany has been making use of Russia's recent difficulties to bring about closer relations between the two countries. This is natural enough, for excellent reasons. The vast undeveloped Russian Empire lies near to Germany, and the opportunities that Russia affords for the extension of German trade are by far the best that the enterprising German manufacturers can find in any direction. Russia must for a long time export foodstuffs and raw materials and import manufactured goods. A recent commercial treaty between Russia and Germany favors German commercial ideas, and the Berlin financiers have been encouraged by their own imperial government to float Russian loans and thus ultimately to give Germany a stronger commercial and financial hold in Russia than the French will have. The great German bankers and financiers, however, belong for the most part to the Jewish race, and it is thought that the bad treatment of the Jews by the Russian Government may affect their willingness to aid in the floating of Russian war loans. Undoubtedly, Germany has been finding a large market in Russia for materials of various sorts required in the promotion of the war; but war trade, after all, is not so lucrative as peace trade, and the Germans will make a great deal more money out of the peaceful development of Russian agriculture and general business conditions than they can make out of the demands of a war that paralyzes Russian economic life.

*English
Harmony on
Foreign
Questions.*

In England, where there is violent difference of opinion upon domestic issues, and where the overthrow of the Balfour government is only a question of weeks or months, there is almost unprecedented agreement with respect to matters of foreign policy. Lord Lansdowne's conduct of the foreign office is approved by the Liberals as well as by the Conservatives. Both parties rely upon the maintenance of friendly relations with America; both approve of the restoration of good feeling between England and France; both are prepared to stand by the terms of the Japanese alliance; both would be disposed to aid as far as possible in the maintenance of the integrity and neutrality of China; both would be very glad to see an end of the present war. Thus, a change of ministry in England and the incoming of the Liberal party will not in any important sense affect the present foreign relationships of the London government. The Liberal government will probably support with entire cordiality the present policy of bold enlargement and concentration of the British navy, and it will also sustain the recent reorganization of the army system, which promises excellent results. It will encounter difficulty in endeavoring to hold the support of the Irish party, and further difficulty in trying to deal with questions affecting the Church and education. It may not be able to hold together long, and then the Chamberlaines count upon having their innings on a programme of imperialism and preferential tariffs.

*Canada and
the United
States.*

A Liberal government in England will be likely to be much better disposed toward reciprocity arrangements between the United States and Canada than would a Chamberlain administration. All the natural tendencies are in favor of the removal of arbitrary trade restrictions across the continent of North America. Last month a great forestry congress was held at Washington under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture. It was attended, not only by forestry experts and by official delegates from many States, but also by numerous representatives of the lumber industry, of the railroads, and of other lines of business that are concerned in one way or another with the use of forest products. The congress disclosed a remarkable advancement in the American propaganda for the protection and the wise and scientific use of our remaining forest areas. Our best possible protection, however, for the present would lie in the removal of the tariff restrictions that now prevent our getting the benefit of the immense forests that lie to the north of us in Canada.



THE GOOSE THAT LAID THE GOLDEN EGGS.

From the *Herold* (New York).

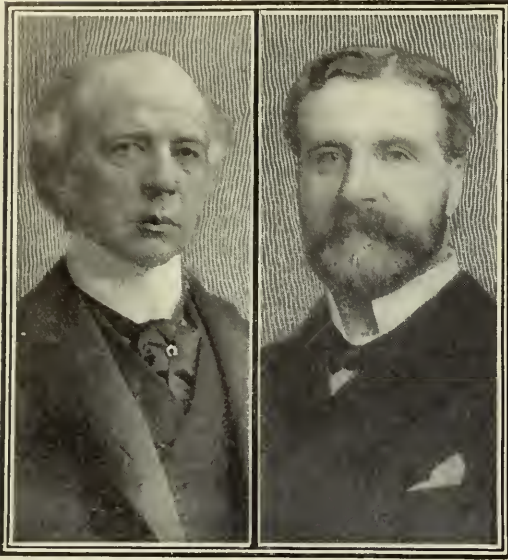
Give Us
Canadian
Lumber
and Pulp.

Various kinds of lumber for building and manufacture are becoming extremely scarce and high priced in this country, and our people are subjected to needless hardship by the present lumber schedules. Furthermore, the newspapers of the country are up in arms against the alleged combinations of wood-pulp and paper mills, in consequence of which the price of white paper has been radically advanced. The common white paper used by the printers is made entirely from wood-pulp, and for this purpose the spruce is far better than any other kind of wood. The spruce forests of this country are fast being used up, and the best of those that remain are to an already great extent monopolized by the interests that control the output and price of paper. The spruce forests of Canada, on the other hand, are so vast as to be practically inexhaustible. It would be beneficial to our people, and at the same time advantageous to Canada, if our markets were freely opened to the products of the Canadian forests, whether in the form of lumber or of pulp. If it were not found possible by this means to prevent monopoly and keep down the price of paper, it would be appropriate to open our markets freely to finished paper products, whether from Canada or from any other place in the world.

Nothing could be more ridiculous than the efforts of those who sit down with a pencil and the statistics of former reciprocal trade relations between this country and Canada and attempt to prove that reciprocity is harmful to us because the so-called "balance of trade" figures out one way or another. Since it would be eminently advantageous for our people to buy the lumber products of Canada, while it would be obviously beneficial to the Canadians to sell their lumber products in our market, it would be just as absurd to attempt to figure out which country was most benefited as it would be to try to find out whether the State of New York or the State of Pennsylvania gains most by the existing freedom of trade with each other which they enjoy under the beneficent mandate of the federal constitution. Nor would it harm the people of the United States if the wheat and other agricultural products of the Canadian Northwest could be hauled to market over our railroads and freely utilized in our mills. It is true that the great flour-millers of Minneapolis and the Northwest are now permitted to bring in the spring wheat of Manitoba under bond and reduce it to flour as an incident in their exporting it to foreign countries. But they must not grade it in such a way as to retain any portion of it for sale in the United States, unless they are willing to pay the import duty on wheat. Under this arrangement, there is not a penny of benefit to the American farmer. The Canadian wheat this last season was of better quality,—decidedly richer in gluten and nutritious elements,—than the wheat grown in our States. The tariff arrangement merely deprived our own people of the benefit of buying flour made from the best wheat, while also depriving the millers of the advantage of so blending varieties and grades as to produce the results in flour that they find best adapted to the demands of the market. It is hard to see how in any broad view of the subject we should not be benefited rather than harmed in this country by the admission of agricultural products from Canada, provided the Canadians were willing on their part to admit reciprocally the varied supplies that the farmers of Manitoba and the Northwestern country would naturally wish to buy with the money that they obtain from the sale of their wheat, cattle, and other products.

To Benefit
the Farmers.

The American farmer has more to gain through the building up of the transportation and manufacturing centers of this country, with their demand for the varied products of the farm, than he can possibly lose through the competition of Cana-



SIR WILFRID LAURIER.
(Premier of Canada.)

SIR ROBERT BOND.
(Premier of Newfoundland.)

dian staple products with his own. In short, the reasons why it would be beneficial all around for the United States and Canada to establish reciprocity in trade are much the same as those that make it mutually beneficial for Germany and Russia to exchange their surplus products. We shall, of course, be met at every step in the attempt to establish proper trade relations with Canada by the selfish clamor of men who would rather see the country at large lose a million dollars of benefit than incur the possible risk of losing a dollar themselves. It is true that there is never any great or general good to be accomplished by legislation that does not seem to be incidentally detrimental to some interest or other. When the substitution of the electric chair for the gallows is under consideration, we must not expect the hangman's union to keep silent. There has been a renewal of correspondence between this country and Canada with respect to the early reassembling of the Joint High Commission. There is some encouragement for the belief that either through the agency of that body, now long in suspense, or else in some other way, there may be resumed a serious attempt to confer regarding the possibility of negotiating a commercial treaty between our government and that at Ottawa.

*The Initiative
Belongs
to Us.*

The Canadian government is not eager to undertake negotiations, because it has at present very little faith in the prospect of getting a proper treaty

ratified by the United States Senate. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who remains in power with a fresh vote of confidence from the people and a tremendous working majority in the Canadian Parliament, would have prestige enough to negotiate and ratify a treaty on behalf of Canada; but he will not give himself much concern about things that lie in the realm of the improbable. When the men of Massachusetts, Michigan, and Minnesota who believe in reciprocity with Canada find themselves sufficiently supported by the men of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and Iowa, it is not presumptuous to say that Sir Wilfrid will manifest more interest. In short, when it appears that our people have enough discernment to see the great desirability on many accounts of entering upon a period of liberal trade relations with the Dominion of Canada, there will be no lack of the necessary intelligence and the desired cordiality on the northern side of the line,—unless, indeed, our clear-visioned Canadian neighbors should have become so disgusted with American tariff stupidity as to have thrown themselves beyond recall into the unnatural and less advantageous scheme of a British imperial tariff union.

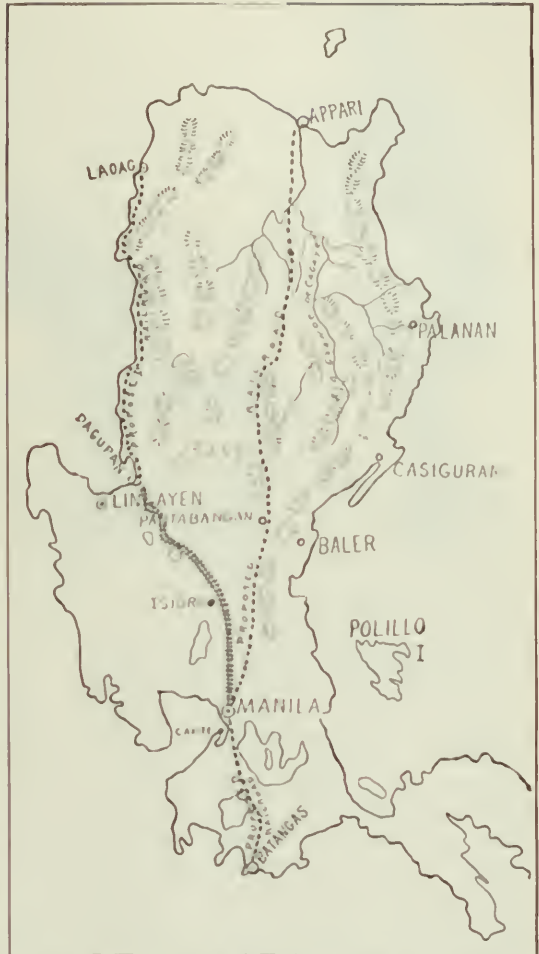
*The
Hay-Bond
Treaty.*

Fortunately, there is a prospect that the long-pending but unratified treaty of commercial reciprocity between the United States and Newfoundland may now be modified in ways that will improve it rather than injure it, and that will at the same time remove the objections of the New England fishing interest that have hitherto opposed the treaty. The forests of Newfoundland are adapted to the pulp business on a vast scale, and it is hoped that this so-called Hay-Bond treaty may let Newfoundland wood-pulp come into the United States on very easy terms. The general trade of Newfoundland under this treaty ought to be with the United States, and the New England Senators should see that the treaty is made operative at the earliest possible moment. It has been a good while since Mr. Blaine and Sir Robert Bond negotiated the treaty that the British Government refused to sanction; and now that Sir Robert Bond is again premier of Newfoundland with the British objections withdrawn and the Yankee fishermen placated, the fitting moment has come for the revival and ratification of the Newfoundland project.

*Justice to
Philippine
Trade.*

Another tariff modification that ought to be made without delay is contained in the proposal to give the Philippines the commercial treatment that they may justly claim as a dependency of this country. Noth-

ing stands in the way except the selfish and greedy opposition of our American sugar monopoly and our heavily taxed but well protected tobacco interests. It certainly ought to be our policy at the earliest possible moment to establish entire freedom of trade between the United States and the Philippine Islands. At present, however, it is thought well to retain certain duties on American products entering the Philippines for the sake of revenue, and it is asked, on the other hand, that the tariff on the Philippine staples entering the United States should be reduced to 25 per cent. of the Dingley schedules. There will be no disposition at present to abrogate the policy under which the government of the United States has been fostering the beet-sugar industry at home. This remark should be qualified, however, by the statement that the only thing that can endanger the further adequate protection of the beet-sugar interests will be their own behavior. Their clamor against a decent and honorable treatment of Cuba was disgusting, not less for its greediness than for its stupidity. The reciprocity treaty with Cuba,—so advantageous to the general commercial interests of the United States, and so desirable from every public standpoint,—never for a moment endangered the beet-sugar interests of this country to the extent of a single penny. Now, when we are on the point of doing justice in a broad way to the commercial interests of our own Philippine Islands, we are again met with the stubborn opposition of the sugar trust, which proposes to “hold up” the United States Government in the out-working of its Philippine policy.



MAP TO SHOW THE NEW RAILROAD LINES PROJECTED FOR THE ISLAND OF LUZON.

The Sugar Trust Dictating Again.

Through a bond guaranty, our government is about to promote the construction of nearly a thousand miles

of railways in the Philippines; and with the opening of our markets to the products of the islands there will come about a period of agricultural and commercial development that is needed above all things to justify our régime in the archipelago and to furnish a basis and a fixed standpoint for the future growth of our larger Oriental interests. At present prices, the sugar trust is making enormous profits on its investments in Western beet-sugar mills, and the country needs to be informed that there is no danger whatever that the favorable admission of sugar from the Philippine Islands will retard the triumphant progress in western America of the saccharine beet-root. Even if it could be figured out, as it cannot, that the admission of Philippine sugar could hurt our sugar interests, it would be easy enough to show that the growth

of Philippine prosperity would help American cotton growers far more that it could injure American sugar manufacturers. The methods used meanwhile to prevent Congress from acting upon the recommendations of President Roosevelt, Secretary Taft, and the Philippine Commission only serve to call the attention of the American people to the dictatorial spirit of the sugar trust. We had a duty to perform toward Cuba that involved national good faith, and we have even a higher duty to perform toward the Philippine Islands. The American sugar trust, meanwhile, would do well to abate its political activities. Doubtless, in due time, it will endeavor to control the Philippine sugar product, also. For it knows how to adapt itself to changed conditions, as it has shown at several memorable junctures.



UNCLE JOE IN NO HURRY.

Tariff-revision not greatly disturbing the Speaker of the House.—From the *Evening Mail* (New York).

Will the Tariff Be Revised?

In the more general discussion of the tariff question, and of national policy as respects commercial and economic questions, the country is already realizing great benefit from the essentially non-partisan vote of confidence accorded to President Roosevelt in November. Both in the press and at Washington, important questions have been dealt with in these past weeks on a higher plane of frankness, fairness, and moderation than at any time for a generation. The President has been endeavoring to get at the sentiment of Congress and the country regarding the revision of the Dingley tariff schedules. He finds all the Republican leaders of both houses ready to give him the benefit of their views with entire courtesy and frankness, even where they differ wholly from the opinions that the President is supposed to entertain. Speaker Cannon, for example, does not want to reopen the tariff question this winter, opposes the calling of an extra session of the new Congress, whether in the spring, the summer, or the fall, and would let the subject lie over until the regular session, next December. Congressmen naturally dislike very much to be put to the expense and trouble of coming to Washington for an extra session, and it has been easy enough for the so-called "stand-patters" to make a strong show against treating the tariff question as if there was any urgency about it. In so far, however, as we can gauge public

opinion regardless of parties, there is a growing belief that the Republican party ought very promptly to find a way to subject all the leading tariff schedules to a severely critical examination and analysis, in order to see just how they bear upon the present state of industry and trade. The public mind is not at all ruffled or agitated over the tariff question, but holds judgment in suspense and is desirous to know what are the unbiased facts. A great deal might be done at once by the statistical experts under the direction of the Department of Commerce in the way of collecting up-to-date facts showing relative cost of production as now bearing upon our imports and exports. It would also be possible to show to some extent the relation of monopoly to tariffs and prices,—as, for example, in the case of an industry like tin plate. If Speaker Cannon's views regarding the tariff should prevail, the country must expect to see a Democratic House of Representatives elected next year. The Senate would still be Republican, and no tariff legislation could then be enacted; but a period of tariff agitation would have been entered upon, with no benefit to the country's prosperity.

The Fight Over Railroad Control.

Meanwhile, the President is much more insistent upon legislation for the strengthening of government control over railroads and interstate commerce than upon tariff legislation. The wiseacres have bobbed up solemnly to tell us that this is a subject of vast and unknowable difficulties, and that to proceed promptly to strengthen the Interstate Commerce Act would be disastrous. All of which is rather silly, in view of the many years of experience and study and discussion that this subject has received. No one supposes that the legislation asked for by the President in his message will remain forever unalterable, like the laws of the Medes and Persians. The deliberate processes of future years may, indeed, bring to full fruition some one of the half-dozen pretentious schemes now proposed for the creation of interstate-commerce courts,—all of them, by the way, proposed for the sake of prolonging the talk and preventing the simple, obvious, and direct legislation asked for by the President. The railway presidents have gravitated to Washington and have talked out in meeting with more frankness than at any previous time; and this is to be commended. Very few of them have heretofore really accepted the doctrine that the great highways of traffic in this country are public rather than private institutions, to be managed chiefly for the public benefit. They are now making a great many admissions of a significant sort that the public will not fail to treasure up.

Confessions of the "Magnates." They are willing to let it be known, for example, that the practice of rebating was a monstrous evil; only, they assure us, they have at last, and very recently, so perfectly succeeded by their own efforts in ridding themselves of these pernicious habits that they feel quite sure they can stay reformed without any further attention from the Government or the public. Some of them, however, do not feel quite so sure, and admit that they are afraid that they may be led again into temptation and fall from grace through the cajolings of the trusts and powerful shipping corporations. The simple fact is that American railroading has long been full of the practice of favoritism and discrimination against the ordinary shipper. What with rebates, paid in all kinds of hidden and roundabout ways to favored concerns in which railroad men have themselves too frequently been side-partners, and what with the exactions of private-car lines and forty kinds of subsidiary corporations for private benefit and against public interest, American railroad administration has been permeated with rottenness and corruption. It is encouraging that the railway magnates should go to Washington and confess that they have been great sinners in the past. But it is scarcely becoming that they should offer quite so active a hand as they have been extending for the shaping of the legislation so urgently needed to protect the public against their confessed shortcomings.

"Vested Interests, and the New Era." A great part of the harm has been done beyond all remedy. Vested interests in railroad property are far greater in magnitude than they could ever have become if there had been proper public control and regulation in the past. It will probably take a hundred years of statesmanlike dealing with the railroad problem to recover for the people through processes of taxation and rate-regulation those immense values that the railroad syndicates have absorbed in the absence of laws that could prevent their capitalizing for their own benefit the growth and prosperity of the country. The fault does not lie so much with the men who have seized the opportunity to make themselves multi-millionaires through the manipulation of the nation's highways, as with the lax public opinion and the ignorant and faithless statesmanship that have made possible the careers of these glorified highwaymen. But all this lies mainly in the past, and need not be taken as intended personally either for the statesmen who are on deck to-day or for the interesting and plausible gentlemen who, in so dwindling a number, direct the affairs and assume to control

the destinies of our immense railway system. Undoubtedly, the period of rate-cutting and unbridled competition among railroads, together with the period of rebates and discriminations, does not belong to the new order of things. Statesmen and railroad men alike must adapt themselves to the new period of amalgamation, harmony, publicity, scientific methods, open and regular rates, and modern standard service for the public. This new and better era makes its advent chiefly through the natural evolution of economic forces. It can be aided and supported, however, by legislation and public oversight.

What Should Be Done Now. As matters now stand, the Interstate Commerce Commission may declare a rate to be unreasonable, subject to the final action of the United States courts. This method, in times past, has meant so much expense and delay for aggrieved shippers that it has given the railroads undue advantage. It is now proposed that the Interstate Commerce Commission, when after a due hearing accorded to both sides it finds a rate to be unreasonable, may substitute what it regards as a reasonable rate. This rate will go into immediate effect, either party having the right of appeal to the courts. The assumption that the Interstate Commerce Commission, in such cases, will always be on the side of the complaining shipper is naïve and amusing. It is entirely proper to assume that the Interstate Commerce Commission will act impartially and in good faith. If its findings do not suit the railroads, they have always at their command a vast supply of experienced and ingenious legal counsel, and will lose no time in getting their case into the courts. To enact something of this kind at the present session will be entirely feasible; and it will still be possible for the next Congress to create interstate-commerce courts or otherwise to legislate for the better regulation of the railroads.

Railroad Prosperity. It is to be noted that the warnings of the railway interests against proposed legislation are not seriously taken by the investing public. Their stocks and bonds have been buoyant in the market, and their prosperity and brilliant outlook form the chief topic of agreement in the financial centers of the world. This booming condition of American railway property is found affecting all the leading systems, whether Eastern, Southern, Western, or Transcontinental. The stock of the condemned Northern Securities Company has been steadily advancing in the period of delay pending the litigation over the method of distributing its assets; and it was selling last month

at about 145. The stocks of the Union Pacific, and, indeed, the securities of all the lines belonging to the Harriman system, were moving steadily upward. There were many signs of a closer harmony among the leaders of the railway world than at any previous time, along the wise and modern lines for which the name of Mr. A. J. Cassatt, head of the Pennsylvania system, stands prominent. The present outlook is that the railway men will come to so good an understanding among themselves that they can afford to join hands with the Government and with the public against the exactions of the trusts.

In some respects, without doubt, the tariff has aided the trust movement; but where the tariff has built up one great corporation of monopolistic tendency, railroad favors have built up twenty. The lines of needed reform are now clear and plain. The railroads, no longer subject to the risks of severe competition, can be held to fair, open, impartial, standard rates and be compelled to protect the lives of passengers and brakemen. They can be made to give up absolutely the practice of paying rebates. They can be required to relieve the shippers of the country from the tyranny of the refrigerator-car companies and the other so-called "private lines." They can be induced to protect themselves and the traveling public against the nuisance of private palace cars, which disturb the regular operation of trains and infest the public highways, to the detriment of legitimate business. And in various other respects they can be compelled to correct corrupt practices and recognized abuses. Henceforth, the science of railroading is going to be something very different from what it used to be when manipulating elections, lobbying at State capitols, rate-cutting, secret rebating, and piracy in general, together with the ability to "work" the stock market, were the recognized functions of a railroad man. Railroading has now become a legitimate business that looks to the highest kind of qualifications for its best rewards. The railway system that serves its territory best will henceforth thrive most steadily and safely.

It is now many years since Mr. James J. Hill, who built the Great Northern Railroad without any land grants or subsidies, pinned his faith to the agricultural development of the Northwest as the guaranty of success. And the reason for Northern Securities at 145 is to be found inherently, not in any mysteries of Wall Street finance, but in the fine progress of the regions that are served by the Great Northern and Northern Pacific systems.

When railroads develop the country and serve it well, everybody is willing to have legitimate railway capital earn good dividends. Mr. Hill a great many years ago introduced improved breeds of cattle among the farmers along his lines, and concerned himself about the kinds of wheat that could best be grown. Our readers have been fully informed of the great movement in Iowa last spring, under the leadership of Professor Holden, of the State Agricultural College, for the careful selection of the corn used for seed. So successful was this work that Governor Cummins remarked the other day that it had added five dollars an acre to the value of all the land in the State.

It is to be noted that it was the Rock Island Railroad Company that first sent Professor Holden over its lines with his "seed-corn special," enabling the missionaries of the new agricultural gospel to instruct the eager farmers at scores of railway stations. The Burlington road followed the same plan, and last season's corn crop, the most valuable one ever produced in Iowa, was enlarged to the extent of millions of dollars by the means of simple lessons to show the difference between good seed and bad. And in this benefit the railroads are having their very handsome share. Following this enlightened policy, the Chicago & Northwestern Railway, in the middle of last month, started a "seed-wheat gospel train" to run along that company's extensive lines in South Dakota. It will be remembered that last season's spring-wheat crop was a very disappointing one, and that it was even more inferior in quality than in quantity. It was much to be feared, therefore, that the farmers would plant inferior seed this spring, with the result of another crop far below what might be expected from seed of superior quality. The railroads are, accordingly, preparing themselves, with the aid of the elevator companies, to purchase and distribute at cost among the farmers the kind of seed that will be likely to produce the best results. It is reported that other railroads besides the Chicago & Northwestern will in like fashion help the farmers along their lines to obtain good seeds. This is not a work of philanthropy, but of sound business sense. In earlier days, the farmers of the Northwest felt that prosperity for them was impossible because the railroads and elevator companies always made rates on the principle of charging as much as the traffic would bear. Hence, there was bitter hatred against the railroad companies, and with just cause, for the farmers were deliberately robbed. But in a more enlightened age of railway management it

These Reforms Are Wanted.

Corn and Wheat "Gospel Trains."

Building up the Country.

becomes clear that the best success of the roads lies in treating the farmers with the utmost fairness and liberality. And so the object of the modern railroad man is to build up a rich, mature, populous, and contented country all along his lines.

Abundant Cotton and the World's Markets.

The conditions affecting the cotton crop are of as much importance to the railways of the South and the Southwest as is the success of the wheat and corn crops to the railroads serving the middle and northern belts of the Mississippi Valley and the West. A year ago, the South was rejoicing in the abundance of ready money that came from abnormally high prices for cotton. Last month the one absorbing theme of discussion throughout the South was the present low price of cotton and the need of limiting the size of the crop. Serious efforts were made to bring about an agreement for the burning of a large percentage of the cotton supply now on hand. Certainly, the South is justified in wishing profitable prices and steady markets; but in the long run there will be far greater profit to be derived from abundant crops at moderate prices than from small crops and scarcity values. Every effort must be made to extend the market for American cotton and to perfect methods of cultivation and means for cheap transportation. These are problems in the solution of which many agencies can unite; and progressive railroad men may well take the leading part. There are hundreds of millions of people in the world who would be better off for having the products of the American cotton-field, and it would be much better to try to get at those people than to burn the crop. Senator McLaurin, of South Carolina, and other Southern statesmen were strongly urging this view last month, with an interesting array of facts and figures. They also upheld the work of the Government in its remarkable cotton-crop reports,—a work very erroneously assailed in the South.

End of the Fall River Strike.

Incidentally it may be noted that the termination of the long strike at Fall River will add appreciably to the present demand for cotton. The strike began on the 25th of July last, and was brought to an end largely through the mediation of Governor Douglas, of Massachusetts, on January 18. About twenty-five thousand operatives had lost half a year's wages, and seventy-two textile mills had been closed. The strike had been precipitated by a $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. reduction in wages. The strikers returned to work accepting the reduction on an understanding that



SENATOR M'LAURIN, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

they will receive some slight increase later on, if an independent examination of the books of the mill companies shows certain percentages of profit. Few people throughout the country realize the pathetic suffering, among many thousands of working people, caused by this unfortunate strike.

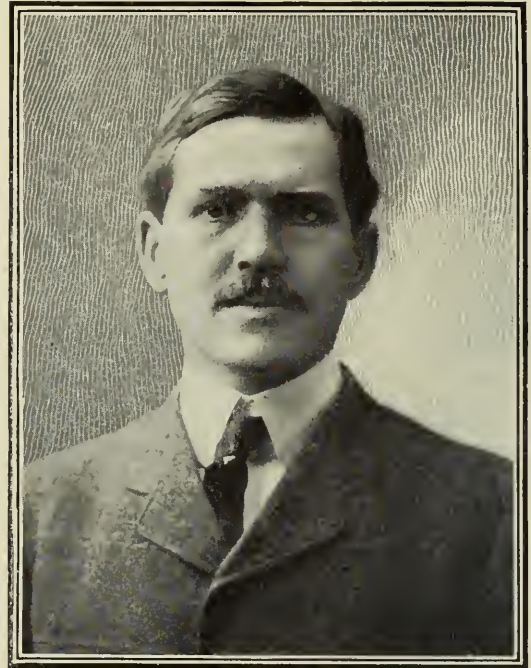
The Career of Mr. Baldwin.

What a commanding position for usefulness a high railway official may hold in our present American life is illustrated by the career of the late William H. Baldwin, Jr., president of the Long Island Railroad system and of many affiliated corporations, who died on January 3. Mr. Baldwin was not quite forty-two years old, and he had not inherited his position in the world of business and transportation, but had come into it through his own merits and efforts. Graduating from Harvard in 1885, Mr. Charles Francis Adams gave him an opportunity to show his worth in the Union Pacific system. After Mr. Adams retired from the Union Pacific, his young *protégé* successively filled high positions in different Western railway systems until called to a vice-presidency of the Southern. At thirty, or thereabouts, he stood recognized as one of the most successful practical railway men of his time. Thus, on the death of President Austin Corbin, his services were desired at New York, and in 1896 he came to the metropolis to develop the great suburban transportation system of Long

Island, to help solve the transit problems of the Greater New York, and to take his place at once as an indispensable man in multiform civic activities for the material, social, and moral advancement of America's chief city. While in the South he had studied the negro problem, and had come to believe profoundly in the value of Booker Washington's work at Tuskegee. His activities on behalf of Southern education made him prominent in the movement that created the Southern Education Board, and he took the initiative in the subsequent forming of the General Education Board, of which he was chairman. Useful as he was in almost numberless directions, his foremost place among the founders of the General Education Board will probably prove to have been the philanthropic work that will best preserve his personal memory and fame. If he had lived, all classes of his fellow-citizens would have compelled him some day to serve as mayor of New York. He was the soul of chivalry, of honor, and of moral courage. No man of his generation was more passionately devoted to the welfare of his fellow-men. He was absolutely trusted by his business associates, and at the same time had the unlimited confidence of workmen wherever he came into relations with them. He was able to hold and to act upon the most perfect conception of the public duties and responsibilities of railway corporations, without lessening the value of his services to the men who owned the stock of the road administered by him. Young men of ambition in railway administration and corporate business life should study deeply the career of William H. Baldwin, Jr., and try to find for themselves the secret of that rare success in life which has made thousands of men in all parts of this great land eager to pay some sort of tribute to the affection and esteem in which they hold his memory. An excellent picture of Mr. Baldwin is given as the frontispiece of this number of the REVIEW.

It is not alone the members of the cabinet who are to be regarded as making up in any exclusive sense the personnel of the executive administration at Washington. The ministry in England is a very much larger body than the cabinet, and the same thing is true in working practice at Washington. Mr. James R. Garfield, Commissioner of Corporations in the new Department of Commerce, holds one of the most important executive posts in the service of the Government. President Roosevelt counts upon him as a very effective member of the administration. Mr. Garfield's first annual report has fully justified the creation of the Bureau of Corporations. Mr.

Mr. Garfield's Report.



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HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD.

(Commissioner of Corporations.)

Garfield has courage, sincerity, and fair-mindedness in a high degree. After a thorough discussion of the development of corporations and the means by which they may be regulated in the public interest, Mr. Garfield suggests with apparent approval a plan requiring all corporations engaged in interstate commerce to obtain a federal license. The idea is not a crude one, and has much to commend it. It is worthy of the mature consideration of Congress and the country.

Another public servant at Washington, who has been a very responsible and effective member of the administration, is Mr. Bristow, for a number of years Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, who retired from that office last month and was immediately appointed by the President a special commissioner to examine into the management of the Panama Railroad, which the Government has acquired in connection with its canal right-of-way. Mr. Bristow has been tireless in official duty, and the country will not forget his protracted labor for the detection and punishment of graft and fraud in the Post-office Department. He will deserve well in future at the hands of his fellow-citizens in Kansas.

Mr. Bristow's Retirement.



Chief Engineer Wallace. United States Minister Barrett. Engineer Dauchey. Mr. Arango.

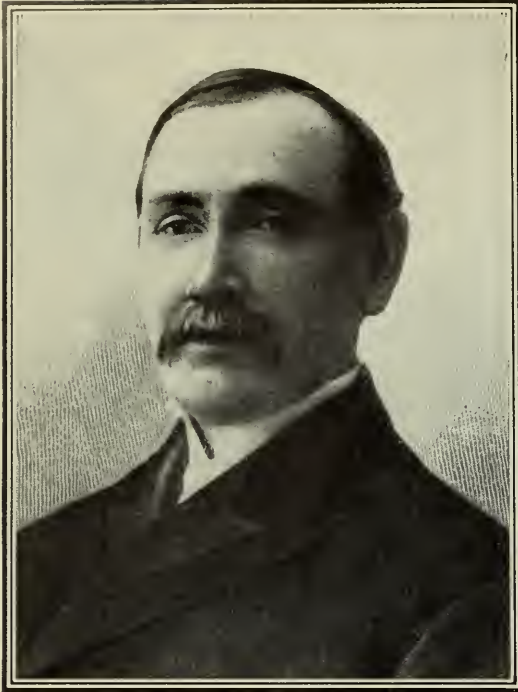
ENGINEER WALLACE AND MINISTER BARRETT IN CULEBRA CUT.
(As photographed a month ago.)

*Mr. Barrett
on Conditions
at Panama.*

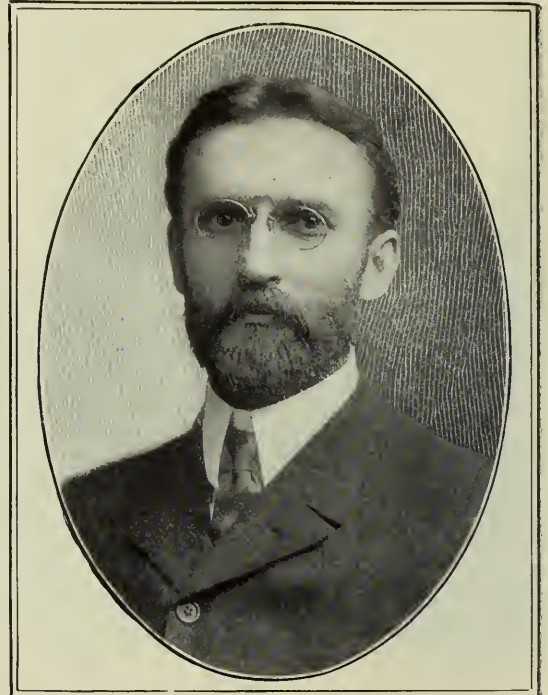
Our readers will find Minister Barrett's article in this number of the REVIEW on the actual conditions at Panama the most instructive that has been presented in any quarter. It is probable that there will be legislation to make more effective the President's direction of the work of digging the canal. Mr. Wallace, as the constructing engineer and executive head, should be as little hampered as possible in carrying on the practical business. The Panama Commission might well be reorganized as an expert consulting body under the direction of the War Department. It would seem as if the American minister might best represent the governmental authority of the United States over the canal zone. The country must not be impatient even if it should require some time to decide finally upon such momentous problems as are involved in the question whether or not the canal is to be cut to sea level or is to have locks. For the bearings of these problems the reader is referred to Mr. Barrett's article.

*Senatorial
Changes.*
The reassembling of State legislatures has been attended with the election or reelection of a number of United States Senators. Thirty members of the Senate will take the oath of office on March 4, a great majority being men reelected for new

terms. There are not so many protracted Senatorial contests in the legislatures this year as usual, yet the results as a whole do not lessen the growing conviction that it would be better to elect Senators by popular vote. Beginning with New England, ex-Governor Crane is elected to succeed the late Mr. Hoar, of Massachusetts, and ex-Gov. Morgan G. Bulkeley will represent Connecticut in place of General Hawley, who retires, after a long service, on account of ill health. Senator Depew, of New York, succeeds himself, the earlier opposition having been entirely withdrawn. At Harrisburg, Pa., on January 18, Mr. Knox was chosen to succeed the late Senator Quay. On the same day, the Legislature of Indiana elected Congressman Hemenway to succeed Mr. Fairbanks, who will be Vice-President after March 4, and who resigned from the Senate on January 7. Mr. Clapp has been reelected by the Minnesota Legislature. In Nebraska, Representative Elmer J. Burkett has been promoted to the Senate from the House, succeeding Senator Dietrich. The Utah Legislature has chosen the Hon. George Sutherland to succeed Senator Kearns. Mr. Sutherland is a Gentile. Montana retires Senator Gibson, Democrat, and accords the seat to Hon. Thomas H. Carter. Senator Bard, of California, fails to secure another term, and will be



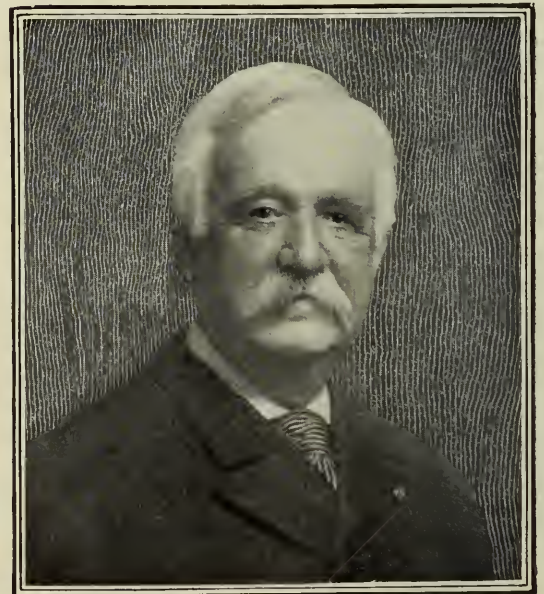
HON. JAMES A. HEMENWAY, OF INDIANA.
 (Who succeeds Mr. Fairbanks in the Senate.)



HON. GEORGE SUTHERLAND, OF UTAH.
 (Who succeeds Senator Kearns.)



HON. ELMER J. BURKETT, OF NEBRASKA.
 (Who succeeds Senator Dietrich.)



HON. MORGAN G. BULKELEY, OF CONNECTICUT.
 (Who succeeds Senator Hawley.)

succeeded by Hon. Frank P. Flint. Mr. Flint is a prominent lawyer of Los Angeles, and will be one of the younger members of the Senate, being forty-three years old. It is stated that Senator Burkett, of Nebraska, will be the youngest man in the body. He was thirty-seven years old in December. The Wisconsin seat now held by Senator Quarles will have gone readily to Governor La Follette if he chooses to take it.

Several Appointments. The Hon. Vespasian Warner, of Illinois, a prominent member of Congress for ten years past, with a fine record as a soldier in the Civil War, has been chosen Pension Commissioner to succeed the Hon. Eugene F. Ware, of Kansas. Mr. Ware retires with the regret and the high esteem of the whole country, and with his keen sense of humor quite unimpaired. Mr. Warner is fully acceptable to public men of both parties. The Hon. William Williams, who has made a brief but splendid record as Immigration Commissioner at New York, also, like Mr. Ware, retires to his law practice. He is succeeded by Mr. Robert Watchorn, who has for several years been an immigration inspector. Mr. J. Hampton Moore, of Pennsylvania, has been appointed chief of the Bureau of Manufactures in the Department of Commerce and Labor. This bureau was authorized by the act creating the department, but has not until now been organized. There are to be numerous diplomatic and consular changes, the more important of which it will suffice to comment upon next month.

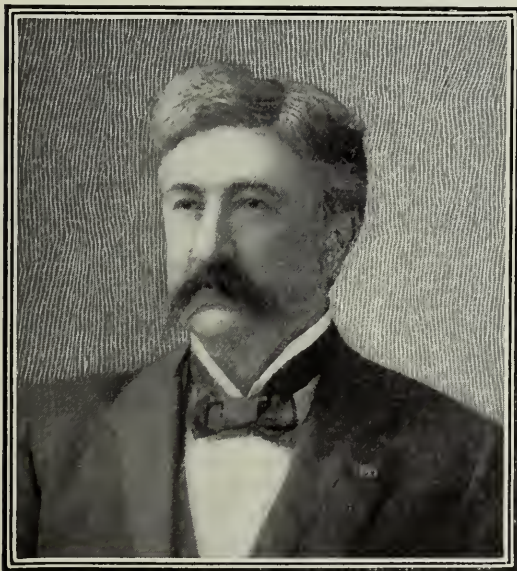


HON. N. V. V. FRANCHOT.

(Who will rebuild the New York canal system.)

A State Note or Two.

Governor Higgins, of New York, has entered upon what promises to be a notably useful and efficient administration. The most significant appointment within his power was that of commissioner of public works, in view of the prospect of speedy entrance upon the vast project of enlarging the Erie Canal. For this office he named a capable business man of western New York, Hon. N. V. V. Franchot. The opponents of the canal have secured eminent legal opinions to the effect that the canal act is unconstitutional, and this may postpone actual work. Colorado is engaged in an almost unprecedented reëxamination of the election returns. Governor Adams has been seated by agreement, as elected on the face of the returns; but it is regarded as quite possible that the contest of the retiring governor, Mr. Peabody, may yet succeed. Missouri, with Folk as governor and a Republican legislature, is keeping its eyes on the situation at the State capital, where political honesty is at a high premium. Governor Douglas, in Massachusetts, is urging bold views upon the Legislature and making an impression as a man of force and character. Pennsylvania has been discussing Governor Pennypacker's renewed attack upon the press.



HON. VESPASIAN WARNER.

New Cabinets in Denmark, Austria, and France. There were changes in several European ministries during January. Following upon the formation of the new cabinet in Spain, by which General Azcaraga becomes prime minister (noted in this REVIEW last month), the Danish ministry, headed by J. C. Christensen, who is also minister of war and marine (the first civilian to occupy this position in Denmark), had begun with the session of the Danish Parliament. Rather more significant had been the crisis in Austria, culminating in the resignation of Dr. von Koerber, after four years as prime minister. While Dr. Koerber's fall was apparently due to the government's defeat in its application for a loan, it was ultimately due, beyond a doubt, to the Innsbruck affair and the trouble with Hungary, as pointed out in this REVIEW last month. The new premier, Baron Gauch von Frankenthurn, was premier and minister of the interior eight years ago. The downfall of the Combes cabinet in France, which was announced on January 18, was due, not to the anti-clerical attitude of the government, as might have been supposed, but to the exceedingly unpopular system of espionage which M. Combes had instituted, and opposition to which had been manifested in the attacks on War Minister André, which forced him to resign. Starting out with a programme which called for a reduction of the military service to two years, the secularization of the schools, the income tax, and old-age pensions for workingmen, the Combes government had succeeded in putting the first two into effect, and was carrying through the income-tax project when it fell.

A Year of the War. One year of the far-Eastern war (closing on February 8) finds Japan virtually in possession of all the points in dispute, while Russia, with broken prestige in Asia, faces a political and economic crisis at home. While the real underlying cause of the war was the clash between Russian territorial expansion, or, as the Russians avow, their search for an ice-free port on the Pacific, and the pressure of Japan's economic and social needs, the immediate occasion was, briefly, the refusal of Russia to give definite, adequate assurances that her protectorate in the far East would not be extended to Korea. With Russia in Korea (and between Russian intrigue and Korean incompetency the Hermit Kingdom was fast being "earmarked" for the Czar), Japan felt that her national existence would be endangered. Besides, the occupation by the Russians of Port Arthur, from which Japan had been ousted, after her war with China,

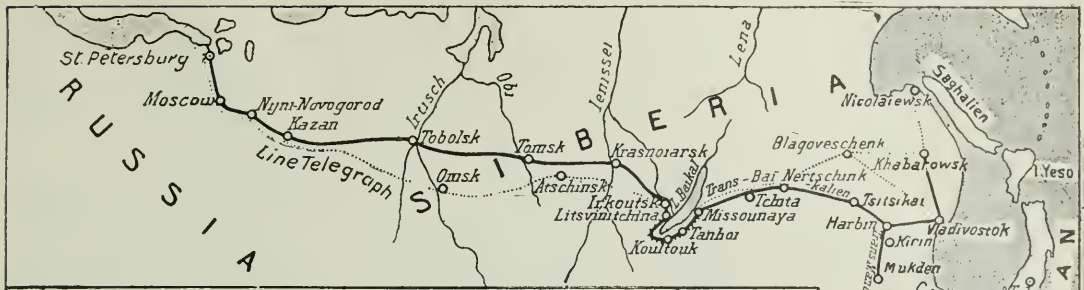
by coalition of the European powers, was regarded in Japan as an insult to the national pride. Beginning immediately after the Chino-Japanese War, Russia established a practical occupation of Manchuria; and her designs were furthered by the Boxer uprising in 1900.

Japan Moves Swiftly.

While she disclaimed any intention of formally annexing Manchuria, there were so many signs of permanent control by Russia in that province that Japan had taken alarm. Unfulfilled promises to evacuate Manchuria (Russia kept claiming that her interests demanded that she keep order in the province), valuable concessions along the Korean side of the Yalu River to Russian subjects, and the large increase in Russia's far-Eastern naval and military strength had decided Japan to put an end to the long and fruitless diplomatic "fencing match." Russia's final reply to the Japanese note, sent to Tokio on February 6, 1904, had been so unsatisfactory that the ministers of both countries were at once given their passports, and two days later, on the night of February 8, the Russian fleet in Port Arthur harbor was attacked and disabled by the Japanese admiral, Togo, and two Russian cruisers, the *Variag* and the *Korieta*, caught in the harbor of Chelmulpho, Korea, were destroyed. Russia's contention that Japan's attack in advance of a declaration of war (the Russian declaration was made on February 10, and the Japanese a day later) was treacherous is not supported by the history of the nations of the world, including that of Russia herself. Besides, as the Japanese counterclaim shows, the day before Admiral Togo's attack a strong hostile Russian force crossed the Yalu River into Korea, thus invading the disputed territory, and really putting upon Russia the responsibility for beginning hostilities.

Russia Unprepared for War.

While Japan had been preparing for this war for years, it is now generally admitted, even by the Russians themselves, that the Czar's government did not expect a conflict, and, in any case, was unprepared for it when it came. Admiral Alexeiev, the Russian viceroy of the far East, believed Japan to be "only bluffing." Consequently, Russia's naval strength in Manchuria, which was supposed to be superior to Japan's, was poorly equipped and unfortunately placed. Seven battleships (the *Retvizan*, *Peresviet*, *Czarevitch*, *Serastopol*, *Pobieda*, *Petropavlovsk*, and *Poltava*) and six cruisers (the *Diana*, *Askold*, *Pallada*, *Novik*, *Bayan*, and *Boyarin*), besides quite a force of torpedo boats, destroyers, and other vessels of war, were in the harbor of Port Arthur. Two



MAP SHOWING THE "LINES OF REVICTUALMENT" OF THE TWO ARMIES IN MANCHURIA.

cruisers (the *Variag* and the *Korietz*) had been sent to Chelmulpho, and four cruisers (the best in the Russian navy, the splendid *Rurik*, *Rossia*, *Gromoboi*, and *Bogatyr*) were practically ice-bound at Valdivostok. The Russian army in Manchuria was estimated on paper to number between 300,000 to 400,000 men. On the best of authority, it is now known to have been less than 50,000, and the Siberian Railway, owing to its great length and faulty construction, and the official corruption in Russia, had proved inadequate to carry the needed troops. The thoroughness of Japan's preparation, on the other hand, the knowledge and capacity of her general staff, and the courage, endurance, and resources of her armies in the field and her navies on the seas, have been the wonder and admiration of the world.

Plans of the Belligerents. The Japanese campaign had been planned—and has actually been carried out—along very nearly the same general lines as the Japanese campaign against the Chinese in 1894-95. The armies of the Mikado, it was planned, were to occupy Korea; isolate, invest, and capture Port Arthur; invade, by three armies, maritime Manchuria, and converge upon the Russian army near Mukden, with the intention of destroying it. Meanwhile, the Japanese fleet was to blockade Port Arthur, threaten Vladivostok, and keep the seas open for the transportation of troops and supplies. Details of the general plan were to cut the Siberian Railroad, in the Russian rear, and destroy the Port Arthur and Vladivostok sections of Russia's far-Eastern fleet, the latter, of course, a necessary part of the general plan. Russia, being caught unprepared, had no offensive campaign planned, nor has the first year of the contest apparently developed any coherent campaign of Russian defense. In its larger lines, her conception had been—first, to send over the railroad to the far East armies large enough to aggregate a sufficient military strength to force back the Japanese invaders; second, to maintain the de-

fense of Port Arthur until it could be relieved, either by General Kuropatkin advancing from the landward side or by the Baltic fleet forcing Admiral Togo to raise the blockade; third, to interfere with and if possible cripple Japanese sea communications by raids of the Vladivostok squadron.

The Naval Campaign Against Port Arthur.

The main interest in the war has without a doubt centered about the siege of Port Arthur, which lasted from June to January and was marked with terrible losses and great gallantry on the part of both besieger and besieged. As a result of the first attack on the Russian fleet in the harbor, the *Retvizan*, *Czarevitch*, and *Pallada* were torpedoed. Admiral Togo began the blockade, and made a number of unsuccessful attempts to close the entrance to the harbor by sinking steamers. The Russians, meanwhile, had lost several vessels by their own mines, and Admiral Stark, the Russian naval commander at Port Arthur, had been succeeded by Admiral Makaroff, one of Russia's ablest and most famous sailors. Admiral Skrydlov, meanwhile, had been sent to the squadron at Vladivostok. After unsuccessfully bombarding that port (May 6), Admiral Togo established his base on one of the Elliot Islands and settled down to the blockade of Port Arthur. Admiral Makaroff, having brought his fleet to its highest possible efficiency, made a sortie (April 13). In the engagement which followed, his flagship, the battleship *Petropavlovsk*, struck a mine and sank, carrying down her admiral and six hundred men, including the artist Vereshchagin. The Russians made no further naval effort until June 22, when Admiral Witthoof, successor to Makaroff, again attempted to escape, but was driven back with heavy losses. On August 10, the Russian fleet attempted to effect a

junction with the Vladivostok squadron, but were defeated and dispersed, Admiral Witthoeft being killed, and the *Askold* and *Czarevitch* being compelled to seek neutral ports and dismantle. The *Norik* fled to Saghalien, where it was destroyed. Admiral Wirenius (or Viren), who succeeded Witthoeft, remained under cover of the guns of the forts. On November 29 and 30, the Japanese army succeeded in capturing the position known as 203-Metre Hill, which commands the harbor. From this eminence, early in December, their guns destroyed what was left of the Russian Port Arthur fleet. Japan's naval losses consisted of the sinking of the battleship *Hatsuse* (May 15) by a mine; the loss of the cruiser *Nisshin*, and later the losses of the battleship *Yashima* and the cruisers *Saiyen* and *Miyako*—all by mines.

The Siege of Port Arthur. The land operations against Port Arthur divided themselves into two sections,—(1) the landing and preliminary battles by General Oku, and (2) the regular approach and siege by General Nogi. On May 5, Oku's army landed at various points on the Kwan-Tung Peninsula, moved westward to the railroad, and (May 26) fought and won the important and bloody battle of Nanshan Hill, which gave it the key to the outer defenses of Port Arthur. On May 30, Oku occupied Dalny, at which port, in the first part of June, General Nogi's army for the investment of Port Arthur was landed. General Kuropatkin's attempt to relieve the fortress by sending a force under General Stachelberg southward was frustrated by Oku, who defeated Stachelberg in a severe battle at Vafangow (or Telissu) on June 15. Meanwhile, Nogi had begun the regular siege of Port Arthur. The main points of the outer chain of defenses were taken by the Japanese on August 7. Then followed months of mining and countermining; several great Japanese assaults were defeated with tremendous losses. With the capture of Urhling Mountain and 203-Metre Hill came the beginning of the end, and on January 1 Port Arthur capitulated. The Russian defense had been conducted by General Stoessel, with, it is now learned, about 25,000 soldiers, besides sailors from the warships. The Russians justify Stoessel's long defense because it detained Nogi's 60,000 to 70,000 men, preventing their reënforcing Oyama.

Port Arthur Surrenders. With the signing of the conditions of capitulation, on New Year's Day, the end came to Port Arthur's siege of six months,—a siege marked by continuous and desperate fighting, and by the employment

on both sides of the most ingenious methods of modern military engineering. While the official figures are not all obtainable, it has been estimated that the Russian loss, with Port Arthur, was 50,000 lives and close to \$300,000,000. The price paid by the Japanese included more than 50,000 lives, and about \$25,000,000. By the surrender, General Nogi received 50 permanent forts, 546 large guns, 4 battleships, and 2 cruisers (it is hoped and believed by the Japanese that they can fully restore that number of the sunken Russian vessels), besides 14 gunboats and destroyers, and a number of other vessels, and, finally, a large quantity of military stores, including shells, powder, and ammunition, and 2,000 horses. By the formal surrender of Port Arthur, Japan makes good her title to Dalny and the railroad from Port Arthur to Liao-Yang, besides the immense increase in prestige and the great sentimental value of having won the fortress.

Conditions and Losses. General Stoessel's defense had been long and brave. Whether he himself came to the determination to surrender, or whether, as is reported, it was only upon the urgent representations of his subordinate officers, is not exactly known. After the ceremonies of capitulation had been concluded, and General Stoessel accorded all the honors of war by special direction of the Emperor of Japan for his gallant defense, the Russian commissioned officers were permitted to return to Russia on parole, retaining their side-arms. The soldiers and non-commissioned officers who refused parole—numbering some 48,000, including eight generals, four admirals, and fifty-seven colonels—had been taken to Japan as prisoners of war. General Fock, and several others of the commanders, had refused to give their parole not to take further part in the war, and had been transferred, as prisoners, to Japan. General Stoessel reported terrible suffering and losses, due principally to the ravages of the scurvy (there were 14,000 sick in the hospitals) and the destruction by the Japanese eleven-inch shells. Of ten generals, two, including Kondrachenko, the famous engineer, were killed, and four others, including Stoessel himself seriously wounded.

The Japanese Take Possession. The meeting of Generals Nogi and Stoessel was courteous, even cordial, the Japanese general complimenting Stoessel on his brave defense and the Russian expressing his appreciation of Japanese courtesy, which included immediate and adequate care of the Russian sick and wounded. On January 17, General Stoessel, with his wife and daughter,



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1904, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

GENERAL BARON NOGI AND HIS OFFICERS AFTER LUNCH AT THE JAPANESE HEAD-QUARTERS BEFORE PORT ARTHUR. A SIX-INCH RUSSIAN SHELL DECORATES THE TABLE.

and a number of other Russian officers, left Nagasaki for Europe. Upon formally entering the city, the Japanese found its means of defense much greater and more efficient than had been supposed. The town itself had suffered but little from the bombardment. Evidences of insubordination and carousing on the part of the troops were frequent, and much liquor had been consumed. It is announced from Tokio that a great number of Chinese coolies will be put immediately at work fortifying Port Arthur. The Japanese are confident that they can put the defensive works into better condition than ever, with the Russian defects eliminated, long before the Russians can besiege it—if they ever do so.

Japan Invades Korea and Manchuria. The story of the land campaign in Manchuria is one of an almost unchecked Japanese advance and of a brilliantly executed Russian retreat. Japanese troops began to be moved into Korea on February 18. On the last day of that month they

had occupied Ping-Yang. Two months more sufficed for the complete occupation of Korea and the march of the first Japanese army, under General Kuroki, to the Yalu River, which cuts off the peninsula from Manchuria. On the north bank of the Yalu, the Russian general, Zassulitch, occupied naturally and artificially strong positions. On May 1, by a brilliantly conceived and finely executed series of movements, Kuroki crossed the Yalu, defeated Zassulitch with considerable loss, and began the invasion of Manchuria. A few days later, he took Feng-Wang-Cheng, where the road divides to Mukden and Peking, and halted. The second army, under General Oku, having defeated the Russians at various points north of Port Arthur (Nanshan and Vafangow), and the third army, under General Nodzu, landing on the Korean Gulf, had defeated the Russians at Siu-Yen, and moved to the northward, filling in the gap in the Japanese line between Kuroki and Oku. On July

20, Field Marshal Oyama, commander-in-chief of all the Japanese armies in the field, arrived at Dalny, and took immediate direction of the operations against the Russians.

The Russians Begin Retreat.

Dissatisfaction with the policy and inaction of Viceroy Alexeiev had led to the appointment, in March, of General Kuropatkin as commander-in-chief of the Russian forces in the far East. Kuropatkin's problem was to retard his enemy's advance until he could collect a force to match him. This side of the Russian commander's task, and how it has been even partially accomplished, is a phase of the war which, when the facts are known, will make very interesting reading. Stachelberg's attempt to relieve Port Arthur having failed, Kuropatkin drew in his lines and retreated slowly northward on Liao-Yang, a very strongly fortified city, some forty miles south of Mukden. Meanwhile, the Japanese advance had been resumed, and on June 30 Kuroki took the impor-

tant Mo Ting Pass, thirty miles south of Liao-Yang. After the capture of Kai-Ping, Oku and Nodzu effected a junction (July 15), and, nine days later, after a severe battle, Oku had rendered Tashi-Chiao untenable, the Russians retiring on Hai-Chang and losing Newchwang. In the meantime, Kuroki had repulsed an attack by the Russian general, Count Keller, at Mo Ting Pass, afterward again defeating that general east of Liao-Yang, in a battle in which Keller was killed. Kuropatkin retired from Hai-Cheng, on August 2, to An-Shan-Chan, the southern end of the strong fortifications of Liao-Yang. The heat and the rains then checked active operations for several weeks.

Emerging from the mountains, the three Japanese armies—Kuroki's, Oku's, and Nodzu's—under the supreme command of Field Marshal Oyama, and numbering some 200,000 to 220,000, met and engaged General Kuropatkin, who had about 200,000 men stationed along the semicircle of hills surrounding the strongly fortified city of Liao-Yang, in which the Russians had gathered immense quantities of supplies and munitions of war. On the morning of August 26, the great battle of Liao-Yang began. While Oku and Nodzu broke the Russian center and right at An-Shan-Chan, Kuroki turned Kuropatkin's left by crossing the Tai-tse River and taking the Russians in the rear. Kuropatkin was compelled to move back to a position at the Yentai coal mines, in the rear of Liao-Yang. The Russian retreat began in good order, but during the ten days following the first Japanese attack each side suffered tremendous losses, and Kuropatkin, failing to cut off Kuroki from the rest of the Japanese army, was obliged to evacuate Liao-Yang, the retreat beginning on September 3. At one time the peril of the Russian army was great; but the escape was finally made, and Mukden was reached in safety. The Japanese advance had been equaled in brilliancy by the Russian retreat.

Owing to heavy rains, it was the end of the first week in October before the next noteworthy engagement on a large scale took place. With a force then estimated at about 300,000 men, and for the first time a superior force of artillery, General Kuropatkin, having inspired his troops with a proclamation, moved forward against the Japanese positions. Whether this advance was Kuropatkin's own idea, or whether it was ordered prematurely from St. Petersburg, is not positively known, but it was not a success. For a

week the armies, estimated at about equal strength, engaged in a terrific battle—one of the greatest in modern history—generally known as the battle of the Shakhe (or Sha) River. It was one long-continued test of endurance on both sides. While there was splendid work on the part of the Russians, and while at times the fighting resulted in clear gain for Kuropatkin, on the whole, the battle was a Russian repulse. On the other hand, it checked, for an indefinite interval, the Japanese advance. Heavy rains put an end to the battle on October 20. From this date until now the armies have been in winter quarters on the opposite banks of the Sha River, which they have fortified, apparently waiting until spring to resume operations on a large scale. Kuropatkin has been constantly receiving reinforcements by the railroad, and after the capitulation of Port Arthur, General Nogi's main army was dispatched northward to swell the ranks of Oyama.

After the "bottling up" of the Port Arthur fleet, Russia's naval activity expressed itself in three directions,—first, the raids of the Vladivostok squadron; second, the passage of the Dardanelles by the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg*, of her Black Sea volunteer fleet, and their challenge of the world's neutral commerce in the Red Sea; and, third, the expedition of the second Pacific squadron, generally known as the Baltic fleet, to relieve Port Arthur, with its unfortunate attack on British fishing ships in the North Sea. The Vladivostok squadron, composed of the cruisers *Rurik*, *Rossia*, *Gromoboi*, and *Bogatyr*, under command of Vice-Admiral Bezobrazoff (representing Admiral Skrydlov), succeeded in breaking through the ice of the port on April 26, and, after a cruise in Japanese waters, sank the transport *Kinshiu*, with 200 of its crew, who refused to surrender. The *Bogatyr* then went on the rocks near Vladivostok, where it has remained. The three other ships, on June 15, made another raid, and sank the transport *Hitachi*, with 900 men; the transport *Idzumi*, and wrecked the transport *Sado*, on both occasions eluding the Japanese admiral, Kamimura, who was looking for them. On July 31, they raided off the eastern coast of Japan, and outside of Tokio Bay they captured and sank Japanese and neutral vessels, causing losses to trade estimated at \$15,000,000. Among the vessels destroyed was the British steamer *Knight Commander* (a large portion of its cargo owned in the United States), and among those seized, the German steamer *Arabia*, chartered by an American company. In both of these cases, protests were

The
Battle of
Liao-Yang.

Raids of the
Vladivostok
Fleet.

Battle
of the
Sha River.

made to Russia by the American State Department. The squadron returned to Vladivostok on July 31. On August 14, Admiral Kamimura caught the Vladivostok cruisers on their way to join the Port Arthur fleet, sank the *Rurik*, and entirely disabled the *Rossia* and the *Gromoboi*.

Early in July, the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg*, two auxiliary cruisers of the Russian volunteer fleet in the Black Sea, passed the Dardanelles as merchant ships, and afterward (in violation of the provisions of the treaty of Paris) mounted guns and seized merchantmen in the Red Sea, causing a storm of protest in Great Britain, and open hints of war. Representations by the governments concerned (Great Britain and Germany) led Russia, while not admitting the British contention regarding the status of the Black Sea vessels, to release the ships captured (notably the *Malacca*), and to agree (in the middle of September) to the American and British contention that the burden of proof in the case of the alleged contraband of war should be upon the captor. The *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg* were finally recalled, to be regularly commissioned as vessels of war. In accordance with this agreement, the decisions of the Vladivostok prize court, in the cases of the British steamers *Allanton* and *Calchas*, and the German-American steamer *Arabia*, were reversed by the admiralty court (the court of appeal) at St. Petersburg.

When the Port Arthur and Vladivostok squadrons had been disabled, Russia hastened preparations to send most of her Baltic fleet to the Pacific. After many false starts, this fleet, composed of seven battleships and four cruisers, with destroyers, torpedo boats, and transports, under command of Admiral Rozhdestvenski, sailed from Libau on October 16. During the night of October 21, while out of their course, the Russian ships fell in with a fleet of British fishing trawlers, on the Dogger Bank, in the North Sea. The Russians, according to the fishermen's reports, turned searchlights on them, and opened fire without warning, sinking a trawler, killing two men, and wounding several. The news reached Hull on October 24, and the British Government promptly sent a note of protest to Russia, demanding redress. In the meantime, the Russian commander continued his voyage to Vigo, Spain, and his home government was unable to reply to the British note further than to express regret and willingness to make reparation. The tone of the British Government was correct and moderate, but there was great excitement

throughout England, and mobilization orders were sent to the various British fleets. When the Russian admiral's reports were received, it served only to further inflame British resentment. He claimed he had been attacked by Japanese torpedo boats in the North Sea, and cited warnings in proof of his contention. The Japanese Government denied the presence of any Japanese warships in European waters.

The acceptance of Admiral Rozhdestvenski's report by the Russian Government left Great Britain the choice of three alternatives,—(1) to go to war; (2) to recede from her position; or (3) to submit the question to investigation and arbitration. Mainly through the good offices of France, the last means was agreed upon (October 28), and, in accordance with the formal agreement, an international commission, under the terms of the Hague convention, was appointed to fix the responsibility and determine the question of damages. Admiral Beaumont was chosen to represent England, and Admiral Kaznakov, Russia. Representatives from France and the United States were also provided for in the agreement, the four to choose a fifth. Admiral Fournier was appointed from France, and Admiral Davis from the United States. At the first meeting of the commission (in Paris, December 22), Admiral von Spaun, head of the Austrian navy, was elected the fifth member, Admiral Fournier being chosen president. Owing, it is reported, to age and ill health, Admiral Kaznakov retired from the commission early in January, and Vice-Admiral Dubassov was chosen to represent Russia in his stead. The first public session of the commission, at which the statements of Russia and England were read, was held on January 19. The Russian ships left Vigo early in October and proceeded in two sections on their journey to the far East, one section, under Admiral Voelkersam, going by way of the Suez Canal, and the other, consisting of the heavier battleships, under Admiral Rozhdestvenski himself, taking the longer voyage by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The third squadron of the fleet left later than the other two. By the middle of January the two main divisions had entered the Indian Ocean and joined forces. Port Arthur having fallen, and the entire Russian naval force in the far East having been destroyed, the main object of the Baltic fleet had ceased to exist, and there were reports that Admiral Rozhdestvenski had been recalled, so that later on a stronger fleet might be sent to meet the Japanese. Admiral Togo, meanwhile, had returned to Tokio, where he received great ovations.

The
Red Sea
Seizures.

The
North Sea
Commission.

The
Baltic Fleet
and England.

Secretary Hay, to whose prompt, vigorous, and diplomatic action, backed by Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, is due the fact that China is to-day "an administrative entity," has again recognized this government's responsibility in the international phases of the Chinese question. It will be remembered that in February of last year Secretary Hay (at the suggestion of Germany) had sent a note to all the powers signatory to the Peking settlement of 1900 asking that these nations pledge themselves to limit the area of the war, and to keep China from becoming involved, at the same time using their best endeavors to restrain both belligerents from violating Chinese interests so long as the Celestial Empire should maintain a correct attitude. A practically unanimous assent had been received to these propositions. Japan and Russia each agreeing to respect Chinese neutrality so long as the other should do so. Charges of violation of Chinese neutrality had been made against the other by each of the belligerents. Japan had claimed that Russian ships of the Port Arthur fleet had received unfair advantages in Chinese ports, and that Kuropatkin's Cossack raiders had constantly invaded the neutral zone in attempting to cut Japanese communications. Early in January, the Russian Government had issued a circular to the powers calling attention to a number of alleged violations of Chinese neutrality in favor of Japan, citing particularly the "cutting out" of the Russian torpedo boat *Ryeshitelni* in the harbor of Chefu and the alleged presence of Chinese troops with the Japanese forces. To these charges China has made a sweeping denial, and it is announced that the Japanese Government is preparing countercharges.

Secretary Hay at once addressed identical instructions to the American ministers in all the countries signatory to the Peking settlement directing them to request those governments to repeat the assurances given by them last February with reference to securing from Russia and Japan a promise to respect Chinese neutrality, and to impress upon China the necessity of taking no part in the war. Just what is behind the Russian demands is not yet certain. It is true that with every serious reverse in the war the Russian court party (which gives voice to its opinions in the *Novoye Vremya*) has complained that China was violating her neutrality; but British journals are claiming that this move foreshadows the despoiling of China by Russia when the latter has been beaten by Japan. The possibility of this had been emphasized by the reported occu-

pation by a Russian force of the Chinese province of Kashgar, whose capital (with the same name) is one of the most important cities of central Asia. By the way, if those Russians who cannot understand why American sympathies, which follow American interests, should go to Japan in the war will study the figures of last year's American trade with Manchuria they will find in the figures (which are five times larger for 1904 than for 1903) an answer conclusive if not satisfactory.

It had been assumed by many of the newspapers and some statesmen that the fall of Port Arthur, terminating, as it did, the first period of the war, would be made the occasion for overtures of peace by either or by both of the belligerents. Japan and Russia, however, had each officially declared that the capture of the famous fortress had been only an incident of the contest and would not influence either to suggest peace. In this connection, an interview with Vice-Admiral Dubassov, reported in the *Écho de Paris*, is interesting. The admiral, it will be remembered, is the successor of Admiral Kaznakov as Russian member of the North Sea Commission, and also Russian chief of naval construction. After a lengthy conference with the Czar in St. Petersburg, immediately upon his arrival at Paris Admiral Dubassov announced that Russia needed time for the reconstruction of her navy. Recognizing this condition, he went on:

However painful it may be to national self-love, I do not hesitate to say that we tend toward a not-far-off peace. We will leave the Japanese Port Arthur and the territory they now occupy in Manchuria. We will set ourselves resolutely to work to prepare a powerful, invincible navy—as this peace will be but temporary—and the next time we shall be amply prepared.

Ideas for which men were sent to Siberia twenty years ago are now being discussed in the most open way in the Russian press. Even the Czar's answer to the petition of the zemstvos has been commented upon with a frankness almost incredible; and in this fact of frank discussion is to be found, perhaps, the only actual accomplishment, so far, of the present liberal movement in Russia. The censorship has not legally been relaxed, but, as pointed out in one of our "Leading Articles" this month, the press ignores the censorship and talks freely, and nothing happens. Three phases of Russia's internal condition had been engaging the attention of the world. These were the Czar's reply to the zemstvo petition for reform and a representative government; the measures advocated by Minister Witte in his report on the con-

Secretary
Hay's Chinese
Note.

Peace
Prospects—
Dubassov.

Our Interest
and Stake.

Russia
Beginning to
Talk Openly.

dition of the peasants, and the great industrial riots threatening revolution in St. Petersburg.

The Czar to the Zemstvos. An imperial manifesto in reply to the zemstvo request for representation in the government was made on December 26. Several days preceding this, the Czar had returned certain resolutions submitted to him by several zemstvos with an indorsement that questions of state administration are of no legal concern to the zemstvos. In his manifesto, the Emperor ignores entirely the demand for a constitutional government, but announces, in the most definite and authoritative way, that the Russian Government is to remain autocratic. He pledges himself to care for the needs of the country, "distinguishing between all that is real in the interests of the Russian people and tendencies not seldom mistaken and influenced by transitory circumstances." The ukase goes on, in somewhat indefinite terms, to grant certain liberal reforms, including uniform laws for the peasantry, liberty of the press and religion, revision of laws affecting foreigners, and thorough reform of the general laws of the empire, so that "its inviolable fulfillment for all alike shall be regarded as the first duty by all the authorities and in all places, subject to us; that its non-fulfillment shall inevitably bring with it legal responsibility for every arbitrary act, and that persons who have suffered wrong by such acts shall be enabled to secure legal redress." The manifesto had been received by the reactionaries as too liberal, and by the Liberals as unsatisfactory, because, while promising great reforms, the Czar, in reaffirming autocracy and intrusting the execution of his reforms to the council of ministers and the very bureaucracy which is so detested had practically made his own declaration a dead letter.

The Struggle at Court. So far as now known, the scheme of Minister Witte, as outlined in his report to the Czar on the condition of the peasants, provides for the full liberation of the peasant class by placing them on an equality with other classes in the empire. This is to be done by advancing money at reasonable rates by the state, instead of allowing the peasants to become the prey of money-lenders. The scheme also provides means for the transfer of peasants from one community to another, and makes larger provision for local self-government by the creation of communal administrative boards in addition to the provincial or district zemstvos. It had been repeatedly rumored that, owing to his inability to carry through the reforms, Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski had resigned, and that Minister Witte would succeed him.

Is It Revolution?

An industrial strike of vast proportions, developing into political riots which held the Russian capital in a state of siege and resulted in the killing by the military (on January 22) of 2,100 and the wounding of 5,000 of the demonstrators who had gathered before the Winter Palace to present a petition to the Czar, had almost set the entire empire ablaze. Strikes are forbidden by Russian law, but, beginning with the employees of the Neva Shipbuilding Works, in the capital, the strike had spread so that it included all of the 174 industries represented in the city, paralyzing all business, and even depriving the city of electric light. Under the leadership of an unfrocked priest named Gapon, nearly 100,000 of the strikers marched toward the Winter Palace (on January 22) with a petition to the Czar (which they were not permitted to present) for relief from intolerable laws, couched in terms of such despair as perhaps have not been used since the days of the French Revolution. The authorities were prepared, and more than 50,000 troops, drawn up in the streets and squares, received the crowds, first with a blank volley, and afterward with bullet, shell, and saber, killing more than 2,000 unarmed men, women, and children, and wounding 5,000 more. Led by two priests in sacred robes, bearing the cross, these peaceful citizens were trampled upon and massacred by Cossacks. Before the slaughter, Father Gapon addressed a letter to the Czar, informing him of the trust of the people, and calling upon him to meet the petitioners, but, he concluded, "if vacillating, you do not appear, then the moral bands between you and the people who trust in you will disappear, because innocent blood will flow between you and your people." After the massacre, the strikers entrenched themselves in the streets of Vassili Ostroff (Basil Island, north of the Neva), wrecking buildings and burning telegraph poles. Armories, arsenals, and cartridge factories were sacked. "Down with Autocracy" and "Down with the Czar" were heard in the streets. The Emperor himself, after an attempt on his life had been made with a gun of one of the saluting batteries at the ceremony of "blessing the waters" (on January 19), had disappeared from public view, and for several days his whereabouts appears to have been unknown. The revolt had not been confined to the capital, but had spread to Moscow, Odessa, and Sevastopol, and throughout the Caucasus. In spite of his liberal and reform tendencies, Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski is not looked upon as the strong man of the occasion, but Russian Liberals have been turning to ex-minister of finance, Serge Witte, whom many regard as a possible dictator of the empire.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 21, 1904, to January 20, 1905.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 4.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess.... In the Senate, the Statehood bill is made the unfinished business.

January 5.—The Senate passes bills for the reorganization of the medical corps of the army, for promotion in the ordnance corps, and for better quarters for consuls.... The House tables a resolution calling on the Department of Agriculture for the facts on which its cotton forecast was based.

January 6.—The Senate, in executive session, confirms the nomination of William D. Crum, a negro, to be collector of customs at Charleston, S. C.... The House passes the fortifications appropriation bill.

January 9.—The Senate passes the omnibus claims bill; Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.) speaks against the Statehood bill.

January 10.—The Senate accepts certain amendments to the Statehood bill.... The House considers the currency bill and adopts amendments thereto; the articles of impeachment of Judge Swayne are presented.

January 11.—The Senate debates the Statehood bill and the question of railroad regulation.... The House adopts an amendment to the army appropriation bill providing that officers above the rank of major shall not receive the full pay of their grade when on duty with State militia.

January 12.—The Senate takes up the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.... The House discusses the articles of impeachment of Judge Swayne.

January 13.—The Senate passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

January 14.—The House passes 459 private pension bills in 108 minutes.

January 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Mitchell (Rep., Ore.) makes a statement defending himself from the charges on which he was indicted in Oregon.... The House debates the Swayne impeachment.

January 18.—The Senate continues discussion of the Statehood bill.... The House adopts the articles of impeachment of Judge Swayne and authorizes the Speaker to appoint seven managers to conduct the prosecution before the Senate.

January 19.—In the Senate, a special message is received from President Roosevelt advocating the appointment of experts to study industrial and trade conditions abroad, with a view to benefiting American commerce.... The House considers the army appropriation bill.

January 20.—In the Senate, New Mexico's memorial against union with Arizona is presented.... The House passes the army appropriation bill, with amendment relating to the pay of retired officers holding militia assignments.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 21.—The report of Commissioner of Corporations Garfield, recommending a federal license, or franchise, for corporations engaged in interstate

commerce, is made public.... President Roosevelt appoints a son of Gen. J. E. B. Stuart, the Confederate cavalry commander, United States marshal for eastern Virginia.

December 30.—The grand jury of the District of Columbia recommends the establishment of the whipping-post for wife-beaters and persons guilty of petit larceny.... The Colorado Supreme Court orders a sweeping investigation of the Denver election frauds.

December 31.—United States Senator John H. Mitchell and Representative Binger Hermann, of Oregon, are indicted on charges of land frauds at Portland, Ore.; President Roosevelt removes from office United States District Attorney Hall, of Oregon.... The Boston Board of Aldermen vote in favor of establishing a municipal gas plant.

January 2.—Frank W. Higgins is inaugurated governor of New York State.... The annual message of

Mayor McClellan, of New York City, recommends legislation for a municipal lighting plant, and for increasing the city's water-supply.

January 4.—Attorney-General Moody makes an argument against the "beef trust" in the United States Supreme Court.

January 6.—Governor Durbin, of Indiana, declares that voters in that State are openly bought and sold.

January 7.—By an agreement between the Colorado Legislature and Governor-elect Adams, he is to be



ADMIRAL VON SPAUN.

(Head of the Austro-Hungarian navy and fifth member of the North Sea Commission.)

seated, in return for certain concessions, and all contests are to go over until after his inauguration.

January 11.—Frank P. Flint (Rep.) is elected United States Senator in California; Senator William B. Bate (Dem.) is reelected in Tennessee; ex-Representative George Sutherland (Rep.) is elected United States Senator in Utah.

January 12.—The Colorado contest for the governorship is formally opened.

January 13.—President Roosevelt appoints Vespasian Warner, of Illinois, Commissioner of Pensions.... Joseph L. Bristow resigns as Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General and is appointed a special Panama Railroad commissioner by President Roosevelt.

January 16.—The Montana Legislature elects Thomas

H. Carter (Rep.) United States Senator; Nevada Republicans nominate George F. Nixon for United States Senator.

January 17.—The Minnesota Legislature reelects United States Senator Moses E. Clapp (Rep.); the North Dakota Legislature reelects Senator McCumber (Rep.); the Indiana Legislature reelects Senator Albert J. Beveridge (Rep.) and chooses Representative James A. Hemenway (Rep.) to succeed Vice-President-elect Fairbanks in the Senate; the Nebraska Legislature elects Representative Elmer J. Burkett (Rep.) to the United States Senate; the Massachusetts Legislature reelects Senator Henry Cabot Lodge (Rep.), and elects Winthrop Murray Crane (Rep.) to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Hoar.

January 18.—The following United States Senators are reelected by the legislatures of their respective States: Chauncey M. Depew (Rep., N. Y.), Nelson W. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.), Eugene Hale (Rep., Maine), and J. C. Burrows (Rep., Mich.); ex-Gov. Morgan G. Bulkeley (Rep.) is elected United States Senator in Connecticut, and Philander C. Knox (Rep.) in Pennsylvania.

January 20.—United States Senator Reed Smoot, of Utah, takes the stand in his own defense in the investigation of protests against his retaining his seat in the Senate.



VICE-ADMIRAL DUBASSOV.

(Russian member of the North Sea Commission.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 23.—The French ministry is sustained in the Chamber of Deputies after a debate on the spying system.

December 25.—Vilbrun Guillaume, former Haitian minister of war, is sentenced to penal servitude for life for implication in the fraudulent issue of bonds.

December 26.—The Czar of Russia addresses to the Senate an imperial decree entitled "A Scheme for the Improvement of the Administration of the State."

December 27.—The Moscow Zemstvo adjourns indefinitely, declaring it impossible to conduct public business in view of the attitude of the government in relation to the zemstvo meetings....A Haitian court renders a judgment in default condemning ex-President Sam to imprisonment for life in connection with the fraudulent bond cases.

December 28.—Premier von Koerber, of Austria, resigns office....A new cabinet is formed in Greece, with M. Delyannis as premier.

December 29.—The Town Council of St. Petersburg resolves to petition for the convening of a congress of representatives of the municipal councils of all Russia....Orders are placed for the rearmament of the entire British army.

December 31.—Baron Gautch von Frankenthurn is appointed Austrian premier, to succeed Dr. von Koerber; the other members of the cabinet retain their portfolios.

January 6.—Members of the Danish cabinet resign, owing to a disagreement over the military situation.

January 10.—The French Chamber of Deputies elects Paul Doumer president, to succeed M. Brisson.

January 11.—King Christian of Denmark names J. C. Christensen to form a new cabinet and take the post of minister of war and marine.

January 15.—The Combes ministry in France decides to resign.

January 18.—The resignation of the Combes ministry is accepted by President Loubet, of France.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 22.—Japan consents to negotiate an arbitration treaty with the United States....The North Sea Commission begins its sessions in Paris, all four admirals being present; Admiral von Spaun, of the Austro-Hungarian navy, is unanimously chosen the fifth member of the commission.

December 23.—The French minister at Tangier is instructed to withdraw all Frenchmen from the capital....Secretary Hay's note to the powers suggesting a further exchange of views in regard to a second peace conference at The Hague is made public.

December 26.—Bulgaria gives notice to the powers that she will not accept responsibility for reprisals made because of excesses committed by Turkish troops.

December 29.—It is announced that Admiral Kaznakov, whose health has given way, is to be succeeded by Admiral Dubassov on the North Sea Commission.

January 10.—A treaty of peace and amity between Chile and Bolivia is signed.

January 11.—It is announced at Washington that the arbitration treaties pending in the United States Senate will be withdrawn if amendments neutralizing their intended effect are made.

January 13.—The United States demands of Haiti the annulment of sentence against an American on pain of energetic intervention.

January 19.—The first public session of the North Sea Commission is held at the French foreign office....It is announced that the United States has received assurances from the powers that they will not attempt to extend their territorial possessions in China at the close of the Russo-Japanese war.

January 20.—An arbitration treaty between the United States and Sweden and Norway is signed at Washington.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

December 21.—The Japanese occupy the height to the north of Hou-san-yen-tao, near Pigeon Bay, also the height on peninsula in Pigeon Bay.

December 22.—A Japanese squadron of powerful cruisers has gone to the South China Sea to meet the Russian Baltic squadron.... The Japanese discover three Russian naval officers on board the captured steamer *Nigretia*.

December 25.—The Russians are dislodged from several outposts on the Japanese right.... Admiral Togo announces the withdrawal of the majority of the Japanese fleet from Port Arthur.

December 27.—The Russian cartridges seized at Feng-tai, near Peking, number about 3,500,000.

December 28.—The Japanese occupy the whole fort of Ehlung-shan: their casualties number 1,000. They capture 43 guns.... Admiral Skrydlov is recalled from Vladivostok to St. Petersburg.

December 30.—Admiral Togo and Vice-Admiral Kamimura are enthusiastically welcomed at Tokio, where they are received by the Emperor of Japan.

December 31.—The Japanese capture Sung Shu-Shan, "H" Fort, and a new fort at Pan-Lang-Shan, thus securing control of the entire western half of the eastern fort ridge at Port Arthur.

January 1.—General Stoessel makes overtures for the surrender of Port Arthur.

January 2.—Formal terms for the surrender of Port Arthur are concluded at a conference between aides of the opposing generals.... The Russian squadron of five battleships and three cruisers, with auxiliary craft, is anchored in the harbor of Sainte-Marie, Madagascar.

January 3.—The Japanese take formal possession of Port Arthur.

January 5.—The Czar summons an extraordinary war council.

January 6.—Only eighty of the Russian officers at Port Arthur accept the Japanese offer of parole.

January 8.—The transfer of prisoners at Port Arthur is completed, 878 officers and 23,491 men being surrendered.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 23.—The lieutenant and thirty-seven enlisted men of a detachment of Filipinos are ambushed and killed in Samar.

December 27.—President Roosevelt consents to become the honorary president of the American Committee on Excavations at Herculaneum.

December 28.—Thousands of workmen in the Baku oil fields go out on strike.

January 1.—For the first time in the history of United Italy, aldermen of the Clerical party attend the reception at the Quirinal.

January 6.—The Archbishop of Canterbury refuses a request of American churches that he have the educational tax removed from British Nonconformists.... The Forestry Congress in Washington adopts resolutions urging more stringent measures for preserving the timber on the public lands.... Lick Observatory announces the discovery of a sixth satellite of Jupiter and a number of double stars.

January 9.—Secretary Morton and Admiral Dewey review, at Hampton Roads, the greatest assemblage of

warships ever known in the history of the United States.

January 10.—The annual meeting of the American Public Health Association is formally opened in Havana.

January 11.—Ambassador Choate speaks at the unveiling of the statue of Lord Russell of Killowen at London.

January 19.—During the ceremony of blessing the waters of the Neva at St. Petersburg, grapeshot, discharged from a battery in firing a salute, falls near the person of the Czar.... Six persons are killed and nine seriously injured in a collision of three trains on the Midland Railway of England.

OBITUARY.

December 21.—Admiral Sir Erasmus Ommaney, known as "the Father of the British Navy," 90.... Ex-United States Senator George L. Shoup, of Idaho, 68.

December 25.—Rev. John Mackenzie Bacon, a well-known English scientist, 58.... Ex-Congressman Hugh H. Price, of Wisconsin, 45.

December 27.—Representative William F. Mahoney, of the Eighth Illinois District, 48.... James F. Secor, an old-time shipbuilder of New York, 90.

December 28.—Eugene G. Blackford, formerly commissioner of fish and fisheries of New York State, 65.

December 31.—John Mollenhauer, a leading American sugar refiner, 77.... Ex-Congressman P. V. Deuster, of Wisconsin, 73.

January 1.—Chief Justice Albert Mason, of the Massachusetts Superior Court, 68.... Cardinal Langenieux, Archbishop of Rheims, 80.

January 3.—William H. Baldwin, Jr., president of the Long Island Railroad Company, 42. (See frontispiece.)

January 4.—Theodore Thomas, the noted orchestra leader, 69 (see page 196).... Prof. Benjamin W. Frazier, of Lehigh University, 65.

January 5.—Ex-Gov. William Claflin, of Massachusetts, 87.... Henry V. Poor, known for many years as a railroad authority and an expert on financial affairs, 92.... Karl Klauser, a well-known musical instructor of Farmington, Conn., 81.... Madam Belle Cole, the American singer.

January 8.—Ex-Gov. Lloyd Lowndes, of Maryland, 60.... Warren F. Draper, of Andover, Mass., a publisher of theological works, 86.

January 9.—Louise Michel, the French communist and anarchist agitator, 75.

January 10.—Rev. Edmund J. Wolf, D.D., president of the General Synod of the Lutheran Church, 65.

January 11.—Prof. William T. Matthews, the well-known artist, 70.

January 12.—Ex-Gov. Silas Garber, of Nebraska, 72.... K. H. Sarasohn, founder and editor of the *Jewish Daily News*, in New York City, 70.

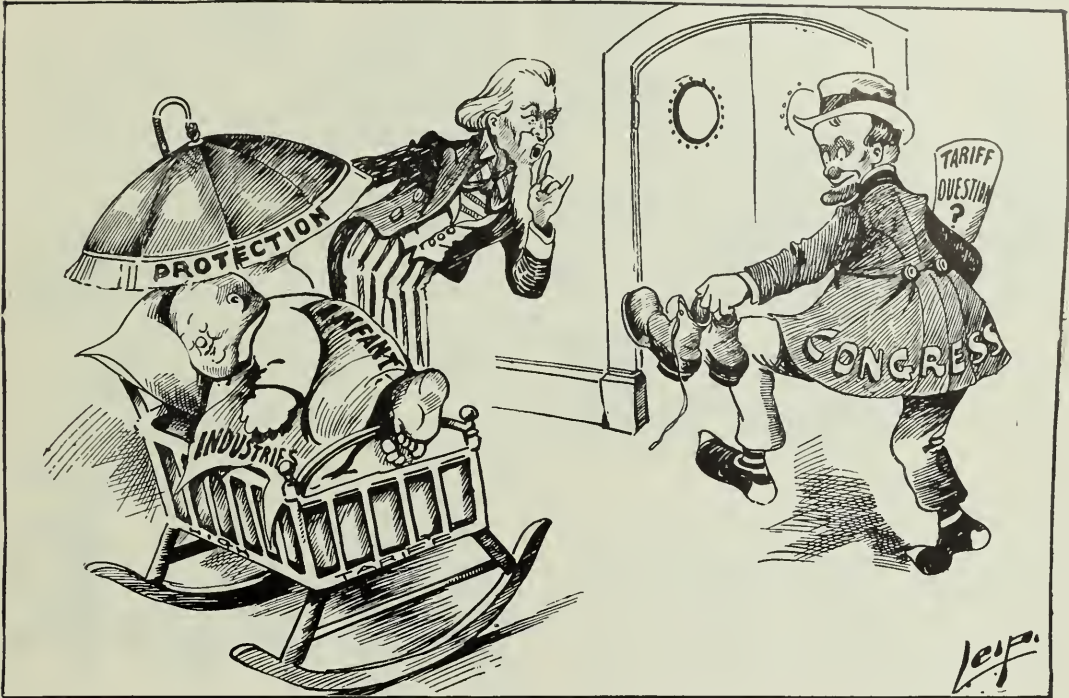
January 13.—Rev. James Henry Parks, D.D., the well-known Baptist clergyman of New Jersey, 77.

January 15.—Robert Swain Gifford, an eminent landscape painter and etcher, 64.... Gen. Reuben Williams, the veteran editor of Indiana, 73.

January 17.—Dr. Leonard J. Gordon, founder of the free public library of Jersey City, 61.... The Grand Duchess Caroline of Saxe-Weimar, 19.

January 19.—George Henry Boughton, the Anglo-American painter, 70.

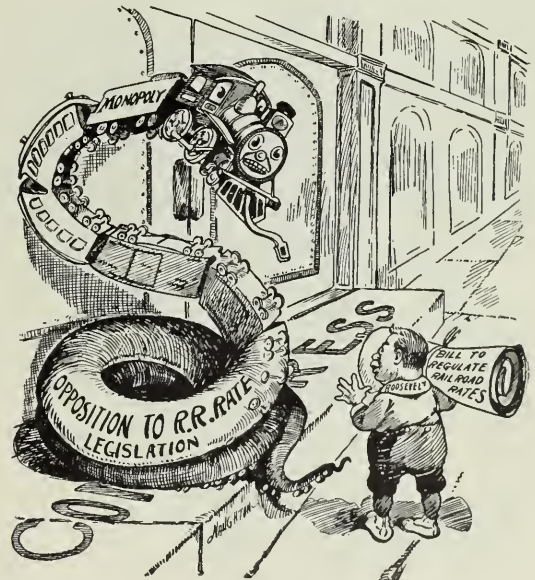
SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



Hush!!!—From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



THE CLUB GETS IN A PRELIMINARY WALLOP.
From the *Press* (Cleveland).



TRYING TO BLOCK HIS WAY.
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



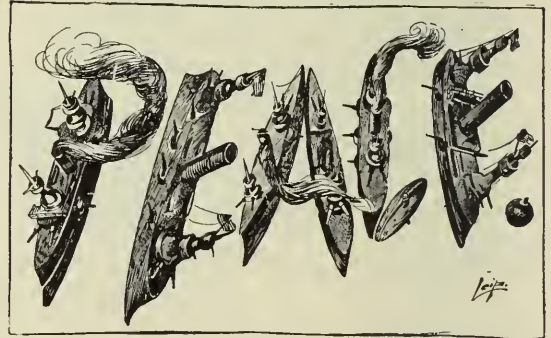
PULL, THEODORE! PULL!

President Roosevelt and Chairman Cannon in the tariff-revision tug-of-war.—From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).

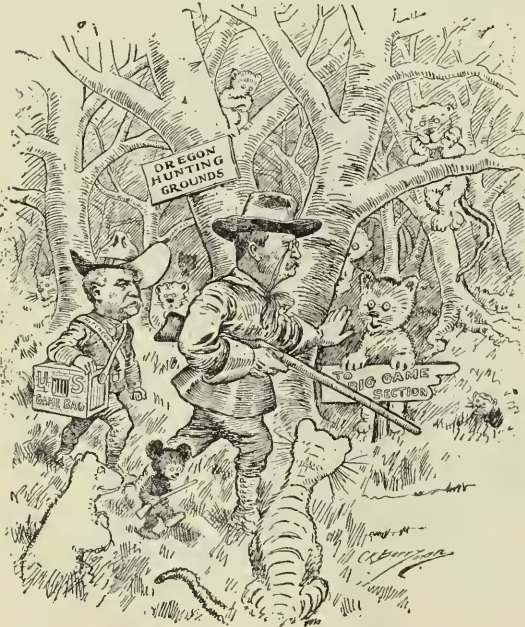
THE cartoonists, last month, appreciated the President's interest in tariff revision, control of railway rates, exposure of Northwestern land frauds, naval expansion, progress at Panama, order in Venezuela, and many other desirable directions. On the last page of this department we reproduce two striking foreign cartoons, one from a Russian, the other from an Italian source.



OH, YES, THEY'RE PULLING TOGETHER ALL RIGHT. From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



AS PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPELS IT. From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



THE PRESIDENT AND SECRETARY HITCHCOCK ARE AFTER BIG GAME IN THE PUBLIC LANDS OF THE NORTHWEST. From the *Post* (Washington).



UNCLE SAM AS AN OPTICIAN. "Can you read the small print, Mr. Castro?" From the *Press* (Cleveland).



"A CHIEF'S AMONG YOU TAKING NOTES. AND, FAITH, HE'LL PRENT IT."

(Apropos of Mr. Bristow's visit to Panama, to report upon the management of the Panama Railroad and its alleged contracts with favored transportation systems.)

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



THE CAUSE OF THE COLD WEATHER.

[Uncle Sam doesn't seem to find the latchstring out at Miss Canada's front door. But he must make it clear that he means business, and is able to take a reciprocal view.]

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



WHY HE WAS WHIPPED.

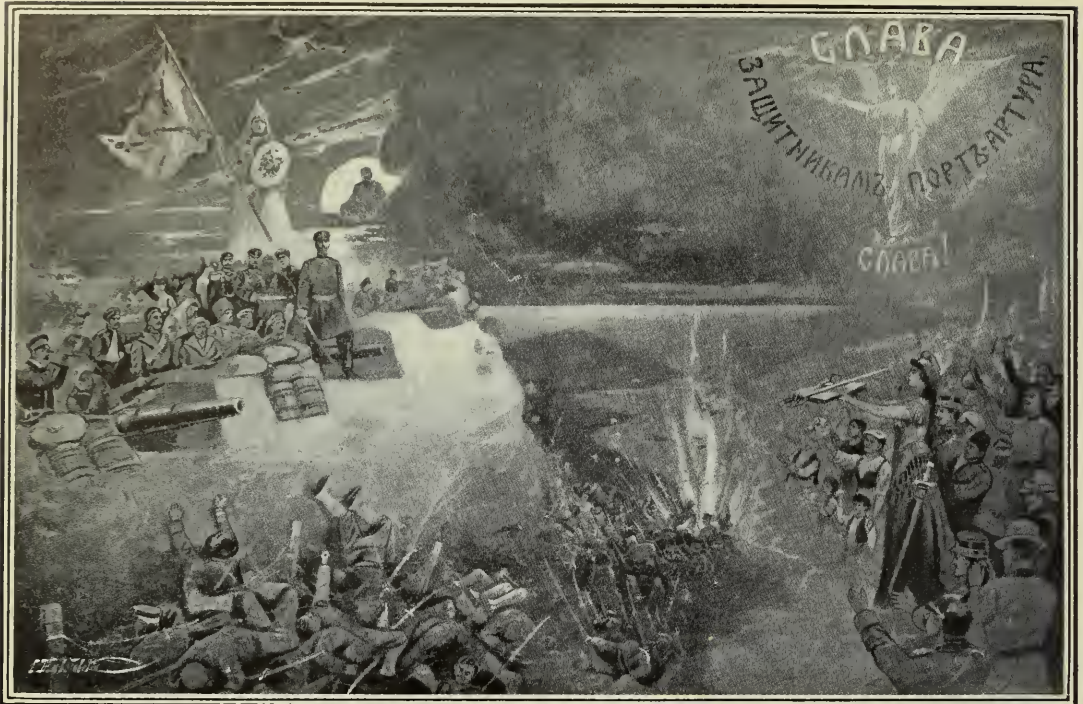
THE RUSSIAN BEAR (to the powers): "Well, you see, I was just fighting for a dinner, while he was fighting for his life." (Apologies to Æsop.)

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



PICKING OUT A FELLOW HE CAN LICK.

Lack of neutrality is as good an excuse as any, for Russia, if he decides to play even by grabbing more Chinese territory.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



HAIL, DEFENDERS OF PORT ARTHUR!

By the famous Russian cartoonist, S. Zhivotovski, in the *Niva*, the popular illustrated weekly of St. Petersburg.



THE RUSSIAN REFORMS.

The Czar's small offering will not keep the bears off for long.—From *Fischietto* (Turin).



AN ALLY.

RUSSIAN: "Halt! Who goes there?"

STRANGER: "Winter!"

RUSSIAN: "Advance, friend!"

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

THE PANAMA CANAL AND ITS PROBLEMS.

BY JOHN BARRETT.

(United States Minister to Panama.)

IT is the purpose of this article to discuss some of the problems that confront the master builder and master mind of the Panama Canal. The point of view is that of a layman. The arguments are not technical or professional, but simply those that appeal to practical students of public affairs. Had not, however, the editor of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS specially requested me to prepare a paper for lay readers and demonstrated to me its possible educational value, I should not have dared to assume this responsible task.

Public interest in the canal is so widespread that my mail is flooded with hundreds of letters asking all conceivable questions. Judging what is wanted from these queries and from the character of the discussions in American papers, I am endeavoring, with full appreciation of my shortcomings, to answer through this medium all reasonable inquiries in non-technical, everyday terms. These observations are based on investigations conducted during the last six months. The execution of my duties has fortunately enabled me to study the whole canal project impartially and carefully on the ground, and to traverse several times nearly every foot of the route of the canal. Although my official and social relations with the Canal Commission, Governor Davis, and Chief Engineer Wallace are intimate, the opinions expressed in this article do not in any measure commit them or represent their conclusions.

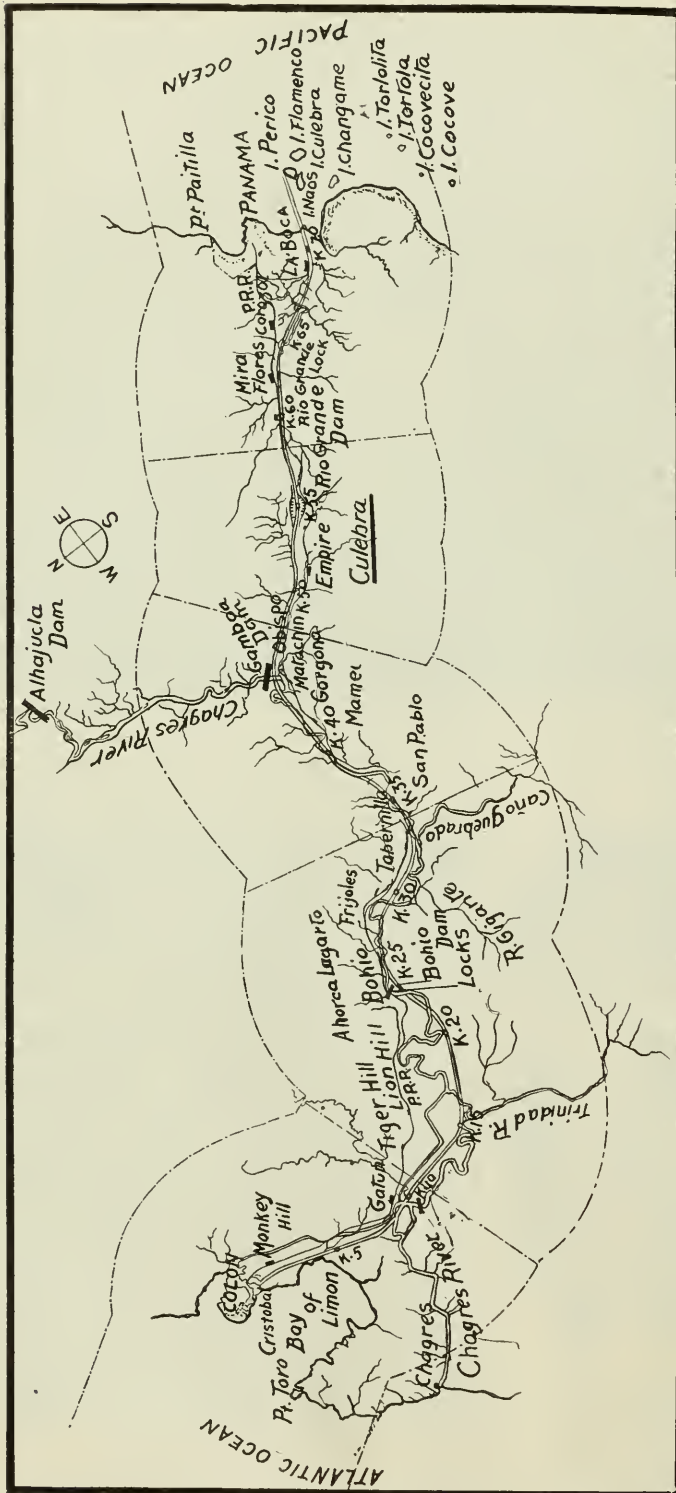
I.—GREAT RESPONSIBILITIES OF CHIEF ENGINEER WALLACE.

The importance of the position of chief engineer of the Panama Canal cannot be overestimated by the average lay critic. His responsibilities are far greater and broader than is generally supposed by the person who looks at the construction of the canal in a casual way. A chief engineer, in the ordinary use of the term, is a man who looks after the technical side of a work of this character. In truth, technical knowledge is only one quality of the many that the chief engineer of such a mighty undertaking must possess. Invoking a broader definition of engineering as that skill or profession which controls and adapts the forces of nature for the

benefit of mankind, we find that the chief engineer of the Isthmian Canal must be a man of large experience, not only in technical construction, but in the management and direction of men and machinery, and in the meeting and mastering of all the many problems that confront him on every side.

If he knows how to erect a massive concrete dam or lock and to excavate millions of cubic yards of earth, he must also possess commercial and executive knowledge, so that he can do this work with the least expenditure of money and time and with the maximum of efficiency on the part of his subordinates. He may be able at a glance to tell just how a steam-shovel should be placed upon the side of a cut, but if he does not know how to provide an adequate system of transportation to remove the dirt and rock that this and other steam-shovels excavate, he will fail ignominiously. He may possess the technical skill which will enable him to design on paper every detail of the canal so that he will impress the world with its beauty and precision and with his own capability, but if he is ignorant in the direction of the complex system of labor, in the preparation and management of the intricate subdivisions of transportation, construction, excavation, mining, dredging, and finance, he will not answer the requirements of chief engineer upon this Isthmus.

The organization of men and the use of them to supreme advantage are among the chief considerations. By perfect organization, the chief engineer can save millions of dollars to the United States. Perhaps even more important than the organizer is the man who never forgets the value of money and time and finds out to the smallest fraction of a cent the cost of doing every variety of work on the canal within a given time. Here comes in the immeasurable practical advantage to the Canal Commission in having a man, like Chief Engineer Wallace, who has enjoyed long, exacting, and successful experience in managing all the details of a vast railroad system, where the use of every cent is carefully noted and computed, and where the efficiency of a man is measured by the greatest good and service for the railroad he can accomplish at the least cost. While I would not in any way reflect upon the technical skill and



MAP OF THE CANAL ZONE, SHOWING THE LOCATION OF DAMS AND PRINCIPAL POINTS.
 (The position of Panama in relation to Central and South America is shown in the small map on the opposite page.)

training of army engineers, and would give all credit for what they have accomplished and are accomplishing, it can be contended that few if any army engineers have ever had such broad experience and training as Chief Engineer Wallace, and that it would therefore seem unwise if the construction of the canal, by any combination of circumstances, were taken out of the hands of this distinguished member of the citizen engineering profession and placed in the hands of the army.

If the qualities required in a chief engineer were to be summed up in terms to be appreciated by those of us who are not engineers but still are keenly interested in the practical success of the canal, it could be said that, estimating his total knowledge and experience as 100 per cent., about 25 per cent. should be classed as technical, 25 per cent. as executive, 25 per cent. as administrative and organizing ability, and 25 per cent. as diplomacy and knowledge of human nature. In other words, the chief engineer of the Panama Canal really requires 75 per cent. of knowledge and experience along other than technical lines. His technical skill must be largely that of discrimination and judgment, to determine what is best among the designs and plans laid before him by his technical subordinates, and to decide, in turn, what is best to recommend to the Canal Commission. If he were unable to organize and administer his work and staff successfully, and if he lacked the power of execution or did not know how to deal with the men below him and above him, and with all others who meet him in

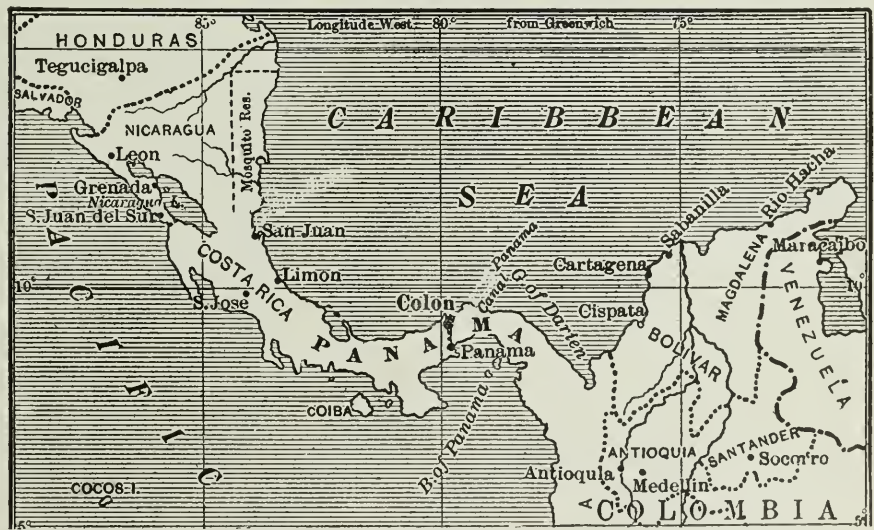
a business or official way, he would make a signal failure. He can hire his technical skill, but no one but himself can supply the executive, administrative, and organizing ability, and the diplomacy, which are essential to the position.

I do not wish to indulge in any flattery, but I am convinced, after watching the work of Chief Engineer Wallace during a trying period of over six months, that he comes as near possessing all the qualities enumerated above as any man that could possibly be obtained, and I am quite sure that the judgment of Secretary Taft and the Congressmen who have recently visited the Isthmus, as well as that of the Canal Commission itself, coincides with my estimate of the man. It is therefore to be hoped that he will receive the support and cooperation, not only of the United States Government and of Congress, but of the American people, in his conservative and wise policy,—first, to find out what is the best thing to do here, and then to do it in the shortest time and at the smallest cost possible. Officials, engineers, and all other persons watching the work on the canal who reside in the United States should be patient, and be fair in their criticisms of what is being done here. It is one thing for an engineer or an editor, in the quiet, seclusion, and comfort of his own office in the United States, to sit down and write articles and editorials showing just how this vast undertaking should be carried out, and how the chief engineer should do this, that, and the other thing, but it is an entirely different responsibility to come down here on the Isthmus itself, right into the heart of the tropics, and into the midst of all kinds of difficulties, handicaps, and embarrassments, and carry on the work to the satisfaction of all concerned.

As an entirely impartial observer, connected in no way with the Canal Commission, I beg of the American people to have every confidence in Chief Engineer Wallace, and to trust him to the fullest extent to complete the canal successfully, despite all obstacles. The government at Washington,

and Congress, however, have a grave responsibility in equipping him or the commission with sufficient authority, so that he may not be held back and delayed, as he now is, by certain unfortunate features of organization and responsibility. Perhaps there is no more constant responsibility on the chief engineer than that of keeping "graft" out of this vast work, where possibly \$250,000,000 must be expended before it is completed. The attacks are already being made by the "grafters," but they are making no progress with Chief Engineer Wallace. There is, therefore, consequent danger that they will endeavor to attack him under cover at Washington. There are evidences that they have commenced their insidious persecution. The good people of the central West, especially of Illinois, who have known him intimately through a long period of years, must stand by him in the fight that may yet be made upon him by those who are actuated only by selfish and personal interests.

In justice to Chief Engineer Wallace as he stands before the American people, and to correct some of the newspapers, which have unfairly assailed him for advocating a sea-level canal, and which have quoted him as saying that such a waterway would cost \$300,000,000 and occupy twenty years in construction, I desire to call attention to the fact that Mr. Wallace has not yet advocated either a sea-level or a high-level canal, and has not yet submitted any final figures as to the cost or time of construction. These stories and criticisms emanate from the statement he made before the Congressional



MAP SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

committee when they questioned him during their recent visit to the Isthmus. If this official report, later on submitted to Congress, is carefully read, it will be noticed that he himself did not make any final estimate or express any decided views. He simply informed the committee what were the estimates and the conclusions for a sea-level canal that could be based on the figures of the former commission, respectively of \$300,000,000 and twenty years. It is due to the conservative character of Chief Engineer Wallace's methods to state that he will not commit himself on this point until he has made such complete investigations and experiments that he will be sure of his premises and his deductions.

II.—A SEA-LEVEL OR HIGH-LEVEL CANAL?

Possibly the greatest general problem, and the one that awakens the most popular interest, is whether there shall be a sea-level canal, with only a tide lock on the Panama side, or a high-level canal at 30, 60, or 90 feet above tide-water, with locks and dams in proportion. While I do not as a layman claim the right to discuss conclusively the technical questions involved in the determination of the level, yet I have, in common with all other Americans, a profound desire to see the kind of canal constructed that will best serve the commerce of the United States and the world. There is little doubt in the minds of the majority of men who study the question carefully, either in the United States or here on the ground, that if the chief engineer, after thorough investigation, favors a sea-level canal, that plan should be approved by Congress and the money provided to carry it through.

With the fullest respect for the views of those members of the commission who favor a high-level canal with locks, I shall submit herewith such arguments as may be understood by non-professional readers in support of the sea-level scheme. Some of the salient points that must be brought into consideration in deciding upon any level are: (1) interest on cost of construction; (2) annual charge for maintenance; (3) annual charge for operation; (4) value to ships of time occupied and safety assured in passing through the canal. In this connection it must be remembered that the canal which is the cheapest in the cost of construction may be the most expensive in the end.

We may now note the principal points in favor of a sea-level waterway:

1. Increased economy of maintenance and operation as compared with canal with locks.

2. Time saved and dangers avoided in passage of vessels through a canal without locks.

3. Minimum of liability to damage in times of war, or by extraordinary action of the elements of nature, such as earthquakes, floods, etc.

4. Avoidance of the great cost of locks and dams, which sum can be applied against the increased original cost of the sea-level over the high-level canal.

5. Condition of flexibility which permits widening or deepening the canal without putting it out of service, whereas extensive widening and deepening of a high-level canal would destroy its utility for a long period and disastrously affect the commerce of the world.

The strongest arguments that can be presented in favor of a high-level canal, say of 90 feet or 60 feet, or even 30 feet, with, respectively, six, four, and two locks to correspond (as now planned), are those of cost and time required for construction. There is no doubt that the higher the level the quicker will be the time and the lesser the cost of construction.

It is reasonable, from data now at hand, to predict that the maximum difference in the time between the opening of a sea-level and a high-level canal to the ships of the world need not be more than four or five years, and that the cost of the former need not exceed the latter by more than \$50,000,000, unless some great unforeseen and unexpected difficulties are encountered.

As this statement will tend to arouse discussion, I have carefully worked out the figures in support of my contention. From knowledge we have at hand, based upon experience with the old French machinery, steam-shovels, and transportation facilities in the central, or Culebra section, which presents the greatest difficulties and cost, it can be stated that this central section can be excavated, by the use of modern steam-shovels and machinery, for \$30,000,000 less than the estimate of the former canal commission! Carefully computed figures of cost per cubic yard of earth and rock demonstrate this saving beyond question. For instance, Chief Engineer Wallace has already made the remarkable record of reducing the expense per cubic yard of excavation of earth and loose rock in the Culebra section from 80 cents per cubic yard under the French *régime* (and a figure used by the former commission in its estimates) approximately to 50 cents per cubic yard, and it is not at all improbable that he will have this down to 40 cents when modern American steam-shovels and transportation facilities under experienced engineers are installed. Now, to this \$30,000,000 let us add \$20,000,000 saved on construction of other sections of the canal, and we can count upon the sum

of \$50,000,000 as a clear saving over the former estimates and rendered available for the construction of a sea-level canal. The estimate of the former commission also included \$50,000,000 which has been paid out in proportionate amounts to the French company and the Panama Government for property and franchises.

If we now add this latter \$50,000,000 to the other \$50,000,000, we have a total of \$100,000,000, which subtracted from the total former estimate of \$300,000,000 will make the actual *bona fide* cost of the sea-level canal only \$200,000,000. The estimate of the former commission for a high-level canal was \$200,000,000. If we subtract from that the \$50,000,000 paid proportionately to the French company and the Panama Government, we have \$150,000,000 as the actual *bona fide* cost of the high-level canal, or a difference between the two projects, in confirmation of my conclusion stated above, of only \$50,000,000. Of course, it may be maintained that there should be a corresponding deduction, on account of modern machines and methods, in the commission's estimates for a high-level canal, but the point I wish to make is that a sea-level waterway need not cost more than \$50,000,000 beyond the average amount which the American people have been educated to believe must be expended to have any kind of a canal, and which expenditure they have already ratified with enthusiasm. Considering the signal advantages to be gained by a sea-level canal, this additional amount will be readily approved by them, especially when they are convinced that the time required will not be too long.

Having, I hope, demonstrated that these estimates of cost, based primarily on figures of the former commission, whose estimates have been considered conservative and ample and have never been questioned by engineers familiar with the situation, are worthy of serious consideration, I will try to show how a sea-level canal can be ready for use in ten years from January 1, 1904, or in 1914. The one great engineering problem is the removal and disposal of the earth and rock from the Culebra, or central, section, which is from eight to ten miles in length. The control of the Chagres River is no longer considered by members of the commission or by the chief engineer and his assistants as presenting any insurmountable difficulty or serious delay in the completion of the canal. Of that point something is stated farther on. The character of the work to be done on the other sections of the canal is such that it can all be completed easily by the time the Culebra section is ready. In other words, it will take longer to excavate the ten miles of the Culebra section

than the other forty miles. This Culebra division is the only part of the canal route that really presents conditions and difficulties that have never been met before in canal-construction. The other portions have their counterparts in the Suez and Chicago Drainage canals. The tide-water sections on the Atlantic and Pacific, respectively from Colon to Bohio and from Panama to Miraflores, correspond to the work of the Suez Canal; the sections on the Pacific and Atlantic sides, respectively from Bohio to Obispo and from Miraflores to Pedro Miguel, have their counterpart in the Chicago Drainage Canal. We can, therefore, estimate almost to a day and a cent how long and how much it will take to build these portions of the canal. Stated in another way, the conformation of the surface and the character of the material are such that sufficient machines can be put to work to complete all the other sections before the Culebra division, with its many limitations and difficulties, is ready for use.

These deductions now bring us to the main consideration of how much time will be required to excavate the Culebra, or central, division so that vessels drawing 25 to 30 feet can pass safely through. From thorough tests, Mr. W. E. Dauchey, the engineer under Mr. Wallace in charge of Culebra and formerly chief engineer of the Rock Island Railroad system, has demonstrated that the steam-excavators which are now at work in the Culebra cut can handle 25,000 cubic yards per machine per month, working ten out of twenty-four hours for twenty-five days in the month. This means an average of 360,000 yards per annum for each machine. If we make a liberal reduction of 50,000 yards for time when the machine is idle through repairs, rains, slides, etc., we can place this estimate at 310,000 cubic yards. Now, then, if two machines are placed every half-mile of the section, one on each side of the cut, for a distance of eight miles, allowing for the gradual slant on both sides, we have thirty-two machines excavating 9,920,000 cubic yards a year. As there are 100,000,000 cubic yards to be excavated in the Culebra division for a sea-level canal, we have approximately ten years required in which to do the work. Two years added for all kinds of contingencies makes twelve. The question now arises, How is the sea-level canal, then, to be finished by January, 1914, or less than ten years from now? The explanation is simple and logical.

These estimates just given are all based on the supposition that the steam-shovels, machinery, and forces work only in the daytime, or ten hours per day for twenty-five days in each month. The dam which it has been determined

can be constructed in two years from now to control the Chagres River at Gamboa is sure to develop from 25,000 to 50,000 constant horsepower. This should yield sufficient electric power, not only to operate the transportation service and machinery of the canal, but to illuminate brilliantly the entire length of it and enable the construction to go on at night as well as in the day! As the climate not only permits work to be done at night, but makes that time, by avoidance of the sun, far better for the laborers, it seems entirely logical that the whole time for the construction of the canal, including that for the completion of the Gamboa dam and the installation of electric plants (inasmuch as electric light can be provided in the meantime from other sources and the use of the Gamboa power is purely for economy), might easily be reduced to one-half, or to six years. However, that there may be further allowances for rainy weather, landslides, other disadvantages, and possible lesser efficiency of night-work, we will add two years for the preparation of the canal for actual use and for the successful installation of the organization for operation, and then we should be able to see the largest vessels steaming through from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and *vice versa*, in 1914. The use of the canal by vessels of the average draught now coming to Panama and Colon can be expected even before dredging to the depth limit of forty feet is completed.

III.—PROJECTS FOR DAMS AND ARTIFICIAL LAKES.

As it is the purpose of this article, in accordance with the suggestion of the editor, to take up and discuss the important features of the work before Chief Engineer Wallace, so that the average non-professional man and woman can understand and take a deeper interest in the canal project, I will make brief reference to the much-discussed dams and artificial lakes which cut considerable figure in the plans of the Canal Commission. These are generally described as the Gatun, Bohio, Gamboa, and Alhajueta projects. The facts developed by the technical investigations of the engineers have practically eliminated all of these except the Gamboa dam. This will so restrain the waters of the famous Chagres River at all times, especially at the flood, that they will not flow into the canal so as to impede navigation or fill it with sediment. It is, in other words, practically the solution of the Chagres problem. The greatest engineering difficulty heretofore emphasized in constructing a canal across the Isth-

mus has been the presence of the Chagres River cutting into and across its route.

The Gamboa dam, which impounds the waters of the Chagres to the east of the canal and in the mountains, also carries with it the important project of a tunnel through the lateral mountains which will keep the surface of the water in an artificial lake at such a distance below the crest of the dam as to provide sufficient capacity to take care of the maximum flow of the Chagres without causing the dam to overflow. The water drawn off by the conduits through the dam will generate electric power and also serve to reduce the level of the water above the dam. In case of a high-level canal, it can also provide the necessary water for the operation of the summit level. In the opinion of the best experts, the Gamboa scheme is entirely feasible, and will probably be followed, unless it is entirely given up, and a dam at Bohio constructed. The Alhajueta project is supplementary to the Bohio plan, and would simply form an additional reservoir farther up the Chagres to impound a portion of its waters and supply the Bohio lake in the event of a prolonged dry season. The Gatun dam below and in place of Bohio is now deemed impracticable on account of the extreme depth of bed-rock.

The dam at Bohio would require a gigantic structure, the highest in the world above bed-rock and the deepest below the surface. Its purpose would be to make a large lake reaching back to the Culebra section and entered by a series of great locks, thereby saving a long distance of excavation. In other terms, the channel of the canal would extend fifteen miles through an artificial inland lake which would at the same time impound the waters of the Chagres River and allow them to pass off through a spillway without damage to the rest of the canal. The Bohio is only a necessity for the 90-foot level in combination with the artificial lake, while the Gamboa dam would serve all levels below the 90-foot.

The Bohio dam could only be constructed at an enormous cost and in the face of serious engineering difficulties. Solid rock is 165 feet below the level of the sea at Bohio, not to count the 50 feet between the level of the sea and the surface of the ground. Only an engineer can appreciate the vast difficulty of putting in a suitable foundation for such an immense structure 165 feet below the land level of tide-water. The problem is increased by the porous, water-bearing nature of the material overlying the rock at this point. If, moreover, this dam were ever seriously injured by earthquakes, or by explosives in time of war, the canal would be

rendered absolutely useless for a long period, and no man can overestimate the harm that would result to the prestige and commerce of the United States in such a situation. If the Gamboa dam were injured, the harm would only be temporary, and the repairs could be made in a comparatively short time. The flood resulting might wash out or partially fill with *débris* some sections of the canal, but dredgers and excavators could soon restore it to its proper condition. At the Gamboa site, bed-rock is found at sea level, and no serious engineering difficulties stand in the way of its construction. If built according to the best modern practice, it will suffice against all probabilities of freshets or extra strains. The flow of the Chagres for a great many years has been carefully estimated, and this dam would easily restrain its waters. No flood has occurred on the Isthmus within the record of mankind that could destroy it or overtax the provisions made by its walls and the proposed tunnel.

IV.—THE PROBLEM OF SECURING COMPETENT LABOR.

One of the most difficult problems before the commission and the chief engineer is that of securing competent labor. Skilled men of nearly all classes can be secured from the United States, but up to the present time there has not been a sufficient number of ordinary day-laborers applying to supply the imperative demands of the chief engineer. The average white laborers of the United States cannot possibly stand the tropical climate. It is therefore entirely out of the question to think of employing them in any large number. Americans can act in all positions, from foremen, machinists, and chainmen up to the highest posts, but they suffice for no work lower than these positions. The force of the department of engineering and construction, on January 1, 1905, amounted, approximately, to 3,000 men. Of these, about 2,640 were laborers paid in silver, or the currency of the country, and classed as artisans, as laborers receiving $17\frac{1}{2}$ cents silver per hour, and as laborers receiving 15 cents silver per hour. The artisans number 750, and receive wages averaging from \$50 to \$150 silver per month. These include a certain percentage of Americans and other foreigners who have drifted to the Isthmus for one reason or another and yet are competent men. Laborers who are paid 15 cents an hour number about 1,500, while those who earn $17\frac{1}{2}$ cents per hour are only 350. The latter class represent promotions from the former division. This system of advancement has an excellent

effect on the great mass of laborers. These wages may not seem large in the United States, but they are far beyond what was paid on the Isthmus before the United States began work, and now represent to the fullest extent the earning capacity of the men compared with similar labor in the United States.

By far the greatest portion of common laborers upon the canal and associated works hail from Jamaica. After these come in varying proportions men from the other West Indian islands, Central and South American countries, and Panama. The actual natives of the Isthmus are not fond of the heavy hard work required by the chief engineer, and it is difficult to induce them to take positions other than those of light labor. A considerable proportion of the Jamaicans, left over from the old French *régime*, have made their homes permanently on the Isthmus, and therefore might be classed with the natives. They, however, rigidly refuse to renounce their allegiance as British subjects, and so should not be considered strictly as people of Panama.

Recently, Secretary Taft, accompanied by Admiral Walker and Chief Engineer Wallace, visited Jamaica in the hope of making some arrangement with the government of that island so that its natives could come to the Isthmus in such numbers as are required for work on the canal, but the British governor-general stipulated terms which neither the Secretary of War nor the chief engineer have yet seen fit to accept. The fact remains, however, that plenty of labor, or all that is needed for the construction of the canal, could be obtained from Jamaica if the natives were only permitted to come to Colon. Careful investigation on the island of Jamaica, not only by Mr. Wallace, but by British Consul Mallet, of Panama, and Mr. Lee, secretary of the American legation, Panama, who accompanied Secretary Taft, developed the truth beyond question that the Jamaicans themselves are most anxious to secure employment at the hands of the commission, but that they are held back by the regulations of their government. I do not mention this as any reflection on the governor-general, but rather in the hope that he may see fit to alter his terms. In the meantime, Mr. Karner, assistant to Mr. Wallace, has gone to the Barbadoes, in response to an intimation from the British authorities, to investigate the possibility and feasibility of securing labor from that island, while further negotiations are being opened in Nicaragua and Costa Rica.

Various plans are also being discussed for the employment of Porto Ricans, Chinese, and Japanese. Porto Ricans will be tried, but are com-

monly considered as lacking sufficient endurance. The present laws of Panama excluding Chinese, and the fear of the American authorities that they might be smuggled into the United States in large numbers from the Isthmus, stand in the way of their employment. These objections to the Chinese can be removed by rigid regulations, and there is a growing feeling that the commission may be absolutely dependent upon them for reliable permanent labor. The result of the war between Japan and Russia will have a bearing on the employment of Japanese coolies. If that struggle is soon over, it is not improbable that a considerable number of them could be put to work. There is one great advantage in having different kinds of laborers,—if they are all of one nationality, there will be constant danger of strikes and sympathetic opposition to the employers; if the labor is divided among various nationalities, there will be a measure of competition and a lack of sympathy that will tend to the accomplishment of far greater results in the amount of work done.

The total number of men employed in every way by the Canal Commission at present reaches, approximately, 4,000, there being 1,000 under General Davis in addition to the 3,000 under Chief Engineer Wallace. The stories often published in the United States that 25,000 or 30,000 laborers will be required on the canal are gross exaggerations. The best estimates limit the number, when the work is in full swing, to 15,000. If we add another 10,000 to cover families and people brought here in one way and another on account of the canal-construction, we can conservatively state that the total increase of population resulting from the building of this waterway will not exceed 25,000. I mention this in order to destroy the effect of some of the foolish reports that have gained credence in the United States and tended to bring Americans of all kinds, seeking business opportunities or employment, to the Isthmus. This legation has so many demands made upon it to pay return passages to the United States and to assist stranded Americans that the minister speaks feelingly.

V.—THE WELFARE OF EMPLOYEES ON THE ISTHMUS.

The comprehensive attention of the chief engineer to all the important details of this work is illustrated by his interest in the physical and moral welfare of the canal employees. From his wide experience as one of the principal executives of the Illinois Central Railway, he recognizes that the amount of work done by employees is vastly increased by their physical and

moral condition. He is doing everything he can to provide them with satisfactory dormitories and accommodations, although he has been heavily handicapped in the first stages of the work by the lack of proper quarters. He is now coöperating with Governor Davis, Colonel Gorgas, chief of the sanitary staff, and myself to perfect plans for the establishment of branches of the Young Men's Christian Association in Panama, Culebra, Empire, and Colon, so that every provision under the wise management of this organization, as developed by its long experience in the United States and foreign countries, will be made for the welfare of the young men in the form of suitable places for rendezvous, amusement, entertainment, and physical exercise in a wholesome moral environment.

As it is now, most of the young men on the Isthmus have absolutely no places of amusement, recreation, and rendezvous except the saloons and gambling places. It is believed by the gentlemen named above and by Secretary Taft that the Canal Commission has a right (under the instructions of the President to provide for the well-being of the men in their employ) to appropriate money for the construction of necessary buildings for the Young Men's Christian Association and for maintenance, especially as this association is entirely non-sectarian. Catholics as well as Protestants are welcome to its membership. It is to be hoped that the Canal Commission, for its own good and for the efficiency of its employees, will take the necessary steps in this matter. They can certainly count upon the unanimous support of Christian family influence throughout the United States in doing whatever is required and reasonable for the moral and physical well-being of the sons and brothers who leave the favorable surroundings of their homes in the United States to serve their country in the construction of this mighty waterway in a tropical land and under totally different conditions.

That families in all parts of the United States have a direct personal concern in the work of the canal is demonstrated by a list showing the States from which hail the men, including engineers, assistant engineers, rodmen, clerks, stenographers, foremen, machinery engineers, and others on the "cold roll" employed in the engineering and construction divisions of the Isthmian Canal Commission, as follows: New York, 49; Illinois, 33; District of Columbia, 16; Michigan, 16; Massachusetts, 14; Virginia, 12; Pennsylvania, 8; New Jersey, 6; Minnesota, 6; Indiana, 6; Maryland, 5; Louisiana, 5; Iowa, 4; Tennessee, 3; Texas, 3; West Virginia, 2; Mississippi, 2; Colorado, 2; Maine, 2; Georgia, 2; Florida, 2; Missouri, 2; Nebraska, 2; Con-

necticut, 2; California, 2; Nevada, 1; Wisconsin, 1; Arkansas, 1; Vermont, 1; North Carolina, 1; Rhode Island, 1; Kentucky, 1; Kansas, 1. That the chief engineer also takes into consideration the right and ambition of the young men of Panama to secure employment with the Canal Commission is shown by the fact that 145 out of 360 high-class employees are natives. This latter condition has completely silenced the complaints that were started in Panama to the effect that the work of the canal was bringing no benefit to the better class of Isthmians in the form of employment. This list given above does not include 256 other high-class employees under the special section of administration of the canal zone, at the head of which is General Davis. These come from all portions of the United States, and include forty young women nurses in the different hospitals. A similar proportion of the administrative staff are natives of Panama. The totals given above of 360 men under Mr. Wallace and 256 under Governor Davis will increase, within another year, respectively to 600 and 400, or 1,000 in all.

This feature of my discussion would not be complete without at least a passing reference to the sanitary staff and the health conditions. Colonel Gorgas, at the head of the sanitary force, assisted by Major LaGarde, Dr. Carter, Dr. Balch, and other competent and experienced men, is striving with all his energies, despite the limited sum of money placed at his disposal, to kill off the yellow-fever and malarial mosquitoes, and to prevent the spread of these dreaded diseases. In the opinion of many who are competent to judge, it is a pity, and even a serious mistake, that Colonel Gorgas has not been provided with a larger sum and more extended organization to prosecute his work. It is of the highest importance that he should be dealt with liberally if he is to stamp out these diseases and repeat his brilliant record in Cuba. Up to this writing, there have been about fourteen cases of yellow fever during the last six or seven months, or, approximately, since July 1, 1904, of which the number of deaths has not exceeded 20 per cent. It has been demonstrated that the best antidote for yellow fever is good nursing, and there are employed in the hospitals at Panama and Colon some forty young women, trained nurses from the United States and Canada, under direction of Miss Hibbard, who also distinguished herself in Cuba. The fact that a few American women have died here of yellow fever is no cause for panic or alarm either on the Isthmus or in the United States, because yellow fever has been prevalent to a greater or less degree in Panama for scores of years, and

these particular deaths have been proved to have resulted largely from primary carelessness on the part of the victims. Of course, there is always the possibility of an extended outbreak of either yellow fever or malaria, in the form of the so-called Chagres fever, but it is to be hoped that the sanitary staff may have the time and the support to conquer these enemies of the canal's successful construction.

VI.—ASSOCIATED PROBLEMS TO BE SOLVED.

Before concluding this discussion, it is well to note some of the many other responsibilities that are resting upon the shoulders of the chief engineer.

1. He is building an entire new sewerage system for the city of Panama, which requires a large staff of men, under Mr. C. B. Davis, engineer in charge, and which presents many interesting problems of sanitation.

2. He is constructing a system of water-works, the first ever possessed by Panama, to bring water some ten miles, from Rio Grande Lake, near Culebra cut, to every house in Panama and the suburbs. Private interests have endeavored to force Mr. Wallace to take water from another point on the Juan Dias River, farther distant from Panama, at a largely increased cost, but he has stood by his project, and will be able to supply water of equal quality to Panama in a third of the time and at a third of the cost that would be required by the scheme supported by private interests.

3. He has before him the prospect of being called upon to take over the management of the Panama Railway, so that it may be run in harmony with the plans of the commission and in complete coöperation with the chief engineer. Mr. Wallace's large experience as a railway man will be of great practical benefit here, because the rapid construction of the canal depends in considerable measure on the assistance of the Panama Railway.

4. He must make a new harbor at Colon, the Atlantic end of the canal, dredging its entire area and building massive breakwaters, so that it can hold the commercial and naval fleets of the world; he must raise the city of Colon several feet above its present level and provide it with water and sewerage systems, and he must erect a great electric-power plant near Gamboa, surpassed only by the plant at Niagara Falls, which will supply electric light for the entire Isthmus, and electric power for running the railways and machinery required in the construction of the canal.

VII.—LEADING QUESTIONS ANSWERED.

I am repeatedly asked whether the application of the civil-service regulations assists or hampers the chief engineer. My answer is frank: One of the most perplexing and unexpected difficulties that confronts Chief Engineer Wallace is the application of the civil-service rules to the employees in his departments of the canal work. It is to be hoped that these regulations will not be enforced as originally announced, and there is reason to believe that the visits to the Isthmus of Secretary Taft and the Congressional committee, who were able to see the difficulties of the application of these rules, will result in their modification. The fact that two experts were recently sent to Panama by the Civil Service Commission to investigate the facts is another hopeful sign. While the civil-service system is thoroughly applicable to most of the departments in Washington, the peculiar conditions here make it impossible to apply it without serious embarrassment to the chief engineer. In Washington and the United States, the work in the governmental departments is regular, uniform, and continuous. Here, it is entirely of an emergency nature. Although it will probably continue for eight or ten years, it will be always changing in its character, and will demand an organization, not only highly efficient, but very flexible. It is difficult to imagine any influence that would hamper a man of the wide experience and great executive training of Chief Engineer Wallace more than to be compelled to appoint, promote, or remove his assistants, upon whom he depends for effective execution of his orders, by and with the consent of civil-service officers, no matter how able and sympathetic these latter men may be. Then, again, the constant necessity of shifting men from one department to another, according as their fitness as determined by trial or as the emergencies of the work require, in order to keep up the standard of efficiency, often conflicts with the civil-service regulations. In short, Chief Engineer Wallace is like a general of an army deploying his troops in battle, and who must always be ready for a new situation. His working forces must possess the highest measure of mobility to achieve victory over the difficulties in his way. I make this statement with all the more earnestness because I am a sincere believer in the general utility and benefit of the civil-service regulations.

A number of questions are repeatedly asked in regard to the dimensions of the canal. The total length of the canal, from a depth of 40

feet in the Caribbean Sea near Colon to 40 feet in the Pacific Ocean near Panama, will be very close to 50 miles. The depth of the canal proper, from the surface of the water to the bottom, will probably be 40 feet, so as to enable the largest vessels to pass in safety. The width on the surface will vary from 200 feet on straight lines or tangents to 280 feet on curves. The bottom will vary from 125 feet on tangents to 200 feet on curves. The cubic yards of earth and rock to be excavated vary, according to the estimates of the former canal commission, from 100,000,000 cubic yards for a high-level canal to 300,000,000 cubic yards for sea-level. If any one wishes to get a practical measure of what this latter excavation includes, let him estimate by arithmetic how large a wall he could build around the world with the earth and rock taken out, or how many miles of new subway in New York City would have to be excavated to equal this vast total. Then he will realize what a responsibility and what labor there are before Chief Engineer Wallace.

The question is often asked in the American press and in letters written by those who have not visited the Isthmus, When is the actual work of the canal going to begin? The answer is that work not only has begun, but is being carried forward with remarkable success, considering all the hindrances and embarrassments that confront the chief engineer in the inauguration of such a mighty undertaking. If the critics who are skeptical about the work done could have visited the Isthmus about July 1, 1904, and could come here now, they would be convinced beyond question that a vast amount of preparatory work has been accomplished, and that everything is moving along as rapidly as can be expected in face of many difficulties. It is not for me to discuss any alleged deficiencies or weaknesses that there may be in the present system, and I am confident that if there are such they will be eliminated in due course of time.

The Canal Commission, which is composed of able men, is doing all in its power to inaugurate the successful running of the extensive machinery under its control, and its efforts should not only be considered with patience, but should be supported by all who desire to see the canal carried through to early completion. The names of Admiral Walker and General Davis, respectively representing the navy and army, and of Parsons, Burr, Harrod, and Grunsky, most prominent in the engineering profession, are guaranties to the American people that the canal will be constructed with honor and credit to the nation.

PANAMA, January 3, 1905.

STREET-RAILWAY FARES IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY EDWARD DANA DURAND.

THE report of the United States Census Bureau on street and electric railways, just published, brings out vividly the rapidity with which electricity has usurped the domain of urban transportation, and the wonderful extension and improvement in facilities which the change has effected. In 1890, the length of all the street-railway tracks (including, as in all other cases hereafter mentioned, second tracks, sidings, and switches) in the country was 8,123 miles. Nearly seven-tenths of this trackage was operated by animal power. In 1902, but a dozen years later, our street railways and interurban lines had 22,577 miles of track, on 97 per cent. of which electricity was the motive power. The stumbling horse, the jerky cable, the smoky locomotive, have been all but banished by the trolley and the motor.

This revolutionary change meant, first and foremost, economy. On the strictly horse railways, in 1890, the operating expenses averaged 73.7 per cent. of the gross earnings, and the average cost of carrying a passenger was slightly over three and one-half cents. The operating expenses of all the railways in 1902 were only 57.5 per cent. of their operating earnings, and the average cost of carrying a passenger had fallen to three cents.

ELECTRIC TRACTION AND PUBLIC SERVICE.

Such saving in cost of transportation has, in no small measure, inured to the benefit of the public. It has made the railway companies willing and able to extend their lines far into the suburbs of our great cities, and to establish them in hundreds of towns of moderate size which could not support horse railways. The economy and other advantages of electricity have made possible, too, the modern "interurban railway," the importance of which as an economic and social factor may be roughly judged by the fact that, in 1902, more than 7,500 miles of electric trackage lay outside the limits of incorporated municipalities and urban communities. The natural result of the increased facilities has been an enormous growth of the traffic of the street and electric lines. They carried 2,023,010,202 fare passengers in 1890 and 4,774,211,904 in 1902. Besides the fare passengers, there were in the latter year more than a billion transfer passengers,

as against a mere fraction of that number in 1890. The average passenger gets a longer ride for his money to-day than he did fifteen years ago, to say nothing of the greater speed and greater comfort which electricity has brought. It is, indeed, impossible to overestimate the importance of the service rendered to the people by the street railway, particularly in our great urban communities. Without cheap and quick transportation, the overcrowding of the population in our huge cities would long ago have become intolerable. The census statistics show that much the greater part of the increase in urban population during recent years has been spread over the outlying areas, the accessibility of which depends mainly on the street railways. Side by side with this dispersion of residences has come, largely through the aid of the same agency, a marked and advantageous concentration in the location of business establishments of all classes.

But, greatly as the people have benefited by the introduction of electric traction, its economies have been still more beneficial to the street-railway companies. They have not reduced their fares in any proportion to the saving in expense. Street-railway service is, indeed, worth to us more than we have to pay for it, but people are yet properly asking whether we have to pay for it more than it fairly costs. No other feature of the recent census report will draw so much public attention as the statistics bearing upon the question of the reasonableness of fares, although the report itself, as befits a census investigation, presents no direct conclusions on this subject.

FARES NOT LOWER IN LARGE THAN IN SMALL CITIES.

It goes almost without saying that an increase in the population of a city should reduce the cost of carrying passengers, and that it should cost less to carry a passenger in a great city than it does in a small town. As a matter of fact, however, there has been no lowering of fares in most of our great urban communities for several decades, and the fares in the largest cities are usually as high or higher than those in small places. In none of our cities of more than five hundred thousand people is the prevailing charge of street railways other than five

cents. On the other hand, in several cities of second rank, such as Washington, Detroit, and Indianapolis, tickets for six rides are sold for twenty-five cents, part of the Detroit system, in fact, selling eight tickets for that sum. In Columbus, seven tickets may be had for twenty-five cents, and in many much smaller towns six or seven rides are given for that price. It would seem that if such fares could be made profitable in these places, they would be still more profitable in cities like New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston, Baltimore, and St. Louis.

GREATER DENSITY OF TRAFFIC IN LARGE CITIES.

The immense influence of large population in increasing the density of street-railway traffic appears clearly from the census statistics. In cities of more than 500,000 people, designated as cities of the first class, the number of street-railway rides in 1902 was equal to an average of 239 for every man, woman, and child. In cities of the second class, with from 100,000 to 500,000 inhabitants, the average number of rides *per capita* is 185 yearly; in those of the third class, with from 25,000 to 100,000 people, 108; in the still smaller fourth-class cities having street railways, only 68. In other words, the dweller in a municipality of the first rank rides three and one-half times as often as the dweller in a town of less than 25,000 inhabitants.

Every mile of track in first-class cities carried 446,527 fare passengers in 1902.* The Inter-urban (now the New York City) system in New York received no less than 1,434,088 fares per mile, and the Philadelphia system 685,235. The number of passengers per mile of track decreases rapidly with population, till in towns of the fourth class the average is only 95,204 per mile, or barely one-fifth as many as in the largest cities. Exceedingly important in reducing the operating expense per passenger in the great municipalities is the fact that cars earn more fares per mile traveled by them than is the case in smaller places. The average number of fare passengers per car mile run is 4.9 in cities of the first class, 4.1 in those of the second class, 3.7 in those of the third class, and 3.3 in those of the fourth class. Several great companies in New York, Philadelphia, and other large cities carry from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 passengers per car mile.

Note now how these differences in the density

of traffic affect the financial results of street-railway operation in the several classes of cities. In urban centers of more than 500,000 people, the gross operating earnings were \$21,982 per mile of track in 1902; diminishing rapidly with population, they become only \$4,872 in towns of less than 25,000 inhabitants. For every mile traveled by the cars in cities of the first class the earnings average 23.8 cents, as compared with 20.6 cents in cities of the second class, and only 16.6 cents in those of the fourth class. Chiefly because of the higher wages paid in the largest cities, the operating expenses per car mile are somewhat greater than elsewhere; but they exceed the expenses per car mile in the smallest towns by only 17 per cent., while the gross earnings are 43 per cent. more for every mile run.

OPERATING EXPENSES AND NET EARNINGS IN LARGE AND SMALL CITIES.

All this means, of course, that it costs decidedly less to carry a passenger in the metropolis than in the small town. The average operating expense per fare passenger in cities of the first class is almost exactly $2\frac{3}{4}$ cents; the margin between this expense and the average fare, representing chiefly return on capital invested, is 2.03 cents per passenger. In cities of the second class, the expense per passenger is about the same and the margin is 2.2 cents. In towns of the third class, on the other hand, the average operating expense per passenger is 3.15 cents and the average margin 1.7 cents, while in places of less than 25,000 inhabitants the expense rises to $3\frac{3}{4}$ cents, and the margin between fare and expense falls to 1.3 cents. Most significant of all, however, are the statistics of net earnings, representing the difference between gross earnings and expenses of operation. In the largest cities, the net earnings of the electric surface railways average \$9,572 per mile of track; in those of the second class, \$6,429; in those of the third class, \$2,866; and in those of the fourth class, \$1,519.

WOULD A THREE-CENT FARE PAY THE COMPANIES?

The question of the reasonableness of fares has to do primarily with that part of the charge which constitutes the profit of the investors. We may observe at the outset that the uniform three-cent fare, which is so widely advocated nowadays, would be unremunerative in most even of the largest cities. If to the operating expenses of the railways in urban centers of more than half a million people be added taxes, at the present rates, the sum is already a trifle more than three cents. Nor could it be expected that a reduction of fares to three cents would in itself,

* This figure, with others hereafter presented, unless otherwise indicated, applies only to the most typical class of railways,—namely, electric surface lines operating during the entire census year, and having no commercial lighting plants in connection with their railway business. With these railways are necessarily included a few which operate some elevated track, and which use horse or cable power in part.

by increasing traffic, sufficiently lower the average cost of carrying a passenger as to leave, ordinarily, a reasonable margin of profit. For, in all probability, five-sixths of the present patronage of the street railways is so nearly compulsory in character that it would not be affected by a change of fares, while that traffic which may be attributed to mere pleasure or convenience is so comparatively small that to double or treble it would increase the total business by only a fraction. Undoubtedly, however, so marked a reduction of fares as from five to three cents would considerably stimulate traffic and serve to reduce the cost of operation per passenger in some measure. Moreover, it must be remembered that there are several railway companies which, by their peculiarly favorable conditions, are able to carry passengers at an operating cost of less than two and one-half cents, and for such railways a three-cent fare might possibly bring an adequate return to capital.

HEAVY CAPITALIZATION OF STREET RAILWAYS.

If the capitalization of street-railway companies represented no more than their actual cash investment, there would be no ground for complaint regarding fares. The returns on the outstanding securities are in most cases moderate, and often exceedingly low. For electric surface railways in cities, excluding interurban lines, the net earnings, after deducting taxes, were equal, in 1902, to only 4.7 per cent. on the net capital stock and funded debt of the companies. But the question is, What percentage do the net earnings bear to the true investment which lies back of capitalization?

The street and electric railways of the country have stocks and bonds outstanding in the huge sum of \$2,308,282,099. For the electric surface railways, without lighting plants, the net capitalization, deducting for duplications and for investments in other than railway property, is \$1,719,064,409, which is an average of \$92,114 for every mile of track. The street railways have a capitalization far larger in proportion to their trackage than the steam railroads, the average net capitalization of the latter being only about \$36,000 per mile of track.* A remarkable difference in the capitalization of street railways appears as among the various classes of cities. In urban centers of more 500,000 inhabitants, every mile of track, on the

average, is made the basis of no less than \$182,775 of stocks and bonds. For cities of the second class, the average capitalization is \$107,103 per mile; for those of the third class, \$53,918; and for those of less than 25,000 inhabitants, \$33,754.

Such figures as these, beyond question, indicate great overcapitalization. No one can believe that the street railways of the United States have cost more than two and one-half times as much per mile of track as the steam railroads. Though the railways in the large cities, with their superior roadbed and more extensive equipment, have cost much more per mile than those in small towns, it is impossible that they should have cost six times as much. The fact that the net earnings of the companies in cities of the first class are six times as much per mile of track as those in towns of the fourth class coincides with the common belief that the capitalization of street railways has been based on earning capacity rather than on cost.

SUGGESTIVE COMPARISONS OF CAPITALIZATION.

The wide differences in capitalization between railways of essentially similar characteristics and operating under similar conditions are also highly significant. A common comparison which, though not quite fair, is immensely instructive, is drawn between the railway companies of Massachusetts and those of other States. In Massachusetts, especially since 1894, the issue of securities by public-service corporations has been carefully regulated by the State authorities, and, though there is some overcapitalization, it is comparatively moderate. The average net capitalization of all the street railways of that commonwealth in 1902 was \$39,067 per mile of track, as compared with \$92,114 for the electric surface railways of the entire country. The excellent system of Boston and vicinity, which includes sixteen miles of elevated structure, is capitalized at \$97,353 per mile, the surface lines alone having about \$80,000 of securities per mile. These figures contrast strikingly with those for the street railways of Baltimore, \$182,009 per mile; of Jersey City, Newark, and adjoining cities, \$220,383; of Philadelphia, \$165,085; of Pittsburg, \$185,170; or of St. Louis, \$198,647 per mile. In all of the cities mentioned, the street railways are wholly of the common type, with surface tracks and overhead trolleys, and in none of them is the system more efficient, or more expensive in style of construction, than that in Boston.

Another comparison may be made between the railways of the city of Washington and the New York City Railway (formerly the Interur-

* This figure must not be confused with that presented in the reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The latter is based upon length of line (first main track) only, and it takes no account of the great duplications due to the ownership of the securities of railroads by other railroad companies.

ban). Both systems have about the same proportion of the expensive underground-trolley construction. The Washington lines have securities amounting to \$186,416 per mile of track. Heavy stock-watering accompanied the railway consolidations in Washington, yet this capitalization is only a little more than one-third as great as that of the New York company and its subsidiary lines (excluding the Third Avenue system), which amounts to \$494,399 per mile. Many other equally marked differences in capitalization could be pointed out. Without careful study of local conditions, it is impossible to draw precise conclusions regarding the comparative cost of railways, but there is no doubt that many of the differences in capitalization bear no relation to cost.

FAMILIAR INSTANCES OF STOCK-WATERING.

It would require a volume to present the mass of facts which have been brought to light during recent years with regard to the overcapitalization of scores of individual street-railway companies. It is well known that many such companies have openly offered large bonuses of stock to purchasers of their bonds; often, indeed, railways have professedly been constructed wholly from the proceeds of bonds. The history of the consolidations and reorganizations by which the railway systems of most of our great cities have been welded together is replete with evidence of stock-watering. The new companies which have taken over existing lines have often added large amounts of securities without in any proportionate measure adding to the actual investment. Sometimes, as in New York, Philadelphia, and Pittsburg, the process of combination and reorganization has been repeated again and again, the stocks and bonds becoming more inflated at each turn.

ENGINEERS' ESTIMATES OF COST OF CONSTRUCTION.

The most common method of criticising the capitalization of street railways is by comparison with estimates of engineers regarding cost of construction, or with known figures of cost for individual roads. Many erroneous conclusions have been drawn from such comparisons. The wide differences in the character of track, and in the quantity and quality of equipment, as well as the differences in cost at different periods of time, have often been overlooked or underestimated. A careful study of the most trustworthy of the many published estimates of cost, however, will show that in every case they are far below the capitalization of a large majority of the railways of the character to which the estimates apply.

This is true, for instance, of the estimates made in 1902 by Mr. Bion J. Arnold, one of the leading electrical engineers of the country, regarding the value of the street railways of Chicago and the cost of reconstructing them. These estimates, submitted in a report to the Chicago City Council, were beyond question liberal. The general level of wages and prices of materials at the time was decidedly higher than the average since 1890.

One of Mr. Arnold's estimates is for track laid with six-inch rails, weighing 78 pounds per yard and resting on wooden ties with earth foundations—a common construction such as prevails in many medium-sized cities. The cost of the rails is put at \$5.025, and the total cost for ordinary track at \$10,182. For the "special work" at street intersections and crossings, Mr. Arnold allowed an amount equal to an average of \$4,000 per mile for all the track. This is liberal even for large cities, and is much in excess of the cost of special work in places of moderate size, where the systems are less complicated. Adding 10 per cent. to the other items for engineering and administration of construction, the total cost of the track alone was brought to \$15,600 per mile (single track). The most common style of track in Chicago, according to Mr. Arnold, would cost slightly more than this. The cost of overhead trolley construction was estimated at \$4,050 per mile for each track where the construction spans a double track. To the costs thus far mentioned must, in cities, be added that of paving the track between the rails. Asphalt pavement eight feet wide, at \$2.80 per square yard, requires \$12,880 per mile. This would give, for the style of track under consideration, an aggregate cost of \$32,530 per mile, exclusive of equipment.

Many railways in the larger cities have heavier rails and stronger foundations than were covered by this estimate. Another calculation of Mr. Arnold was based on the very best modern construction, with 9-inch 120-pound rails, laid on concrete beams. The style of construction here provided for is decidedly superior to that of the greater part of the trackage in cities of the first class. Such track, with asphalt paving and overhead trolley construction, was estimated to cost \$40,985 per mile.

To each of these estimates must be added the cost of power plant, barns, cars, and other equipment. The ratio of the cost of these elements to that of roadbed is much higher in the great cities than in small towns or on interurban railways. From Mr. Arnold's figures we may roughly estimate that the cost of reproducing the electric stations, buildings, machinery, rolling stock,

tools, etc., of the electric part of the two leading systems of Chicago would amount to about \$27,000 per mile of its electric tracks.

TROLLEY SYSTEMS CAPITALIZED AT ABOUT THREE TIMES THEIR COST.

According to these estimates, then, the total cost of a new electric railway system, of the prevailing Chicago type, or of the type which is common in some other large cities, in 1902 would have been about \$60,000 per mile of track, while for a system of the highest modern type, with overhead trolleys, the cost would have been about \$68,000 per mile. These figures far exceed the cost of the simple and scantily-equipped systems in small towns and of most interurban lines. Still another estimate submitted by the same engineer placed the cost of track construction for the underground-trolley system at \$94,181 per mile, while the cost of equipment would raise the total for this style of construction to perhaps \$125,000 per mile.

It is probably safe to conclude, in view of the liberality of these estimates, that the present electric surface railways in our cities of more than 500,000 population—including even the small amount of elevated, cable, and underground-trolley track owned by railways which operate chiefly on the surface with overhead trolley—could be completely reproduced in their present style at a cost of not more than \$60,000 per mile of track. The average capitalization of these railways is \$182,775 per mile.

RECONSTRUCTION OF OBSOLETE EQUIPMENT.

We must not, to be sure, overlook the fact that many of our railway companies have spent large sums in reconstructing properties which the swift progress of the art had rendered obsolete. The horse-railway trackage and equipment of fifteen years ago had to be thrown away almost *in toto*. The costly cable systems were also largely consigned to the scrap-heap. Not a little even of the inferior roadbed and equipment of the earlier electric lines has had to be partly or wholly replaced. Such destruction of capital—we can scarcely call it waste, since it is the incident of progress—has been particularly conspicuous in the larger cities, in which the capitalization of railways now appears most excessive. Street railway apologists, however, frequently exaggerate the losses thus suffered. According to the census of 1890, the "cost of construction" of all the surface street railways then existing was only about \$300,000,000. "Cost of construction," in street-railway balance-sheets, is almost always made approximately to equal capitalization, and has little to do with

cash investment. The companies in 1890, as now, understood the art of stock-watering, and \$200,000,000 is a liberal estimate of the total actual investment in surface railways at that time. The subsequent expenditures upon properties which have since been replaced were probably fully offset by the present value of properties which were in existence in 1890, plus the salvage where they were reconstructed. There is no reason to suppose that much more than one-tenth of the present total capitalization of street railways could be explained by the investment in obsolete plant and equipment, and the proportion may be considerably smaller.

ALLOWANCE FOR DEPRECIATION.

This reference to outlived investment brings us to the difficult subject of allowance for depreciation as an element in street-railway charges. Railway managers ordinarily claim that at least 5 per cent. on their investment should be allowed yearly for depreciation, and some put the allowance as high as 10 per cent. As a matter of fact, American street-railway companies have almost never made systematic appropriations for depreciation out of their earnings. This neglect has greatly complicated the question of over-capitalization and of reasonable fares.

There are two wholly distinct forms of depreciation. The first is that due to the wearing out of the plant; the second, that due to improvements in the art which render the plant obsolete, or to the outgrowing of the capacity of the equipment before it is worn out. The first kind of depreciation can be calculated with reasonable accuracy, the second cannot. It should be observed, however, that, in the case of many street railways, much of the depreciation due to the wearing out of property is covered by maintenance expenditures charged as part of operating expenses. For the street railways of the country as a whole, the expenditures for maintenance in 1902 amounted to fully one-fifth of the total cost of operation. Many companies charge to maintenance the cost of new cars, or even that of relaying entire sections of track. So far as this is the case, no additional allowance for depreciation needs to enter into fares. At the same time, there are elements in plants, such as engines and dynamos, which cannot usually be replaced in such a gradual manner as they wear out, and a proper allowance for the depreciation of these elements, and of all others which wear out without being replaced from maintenance expenditure, should properly enter into fares. The second form of depreciation above distinguished is such that it can scarcely be covered by maintenance expendi-

ture. It is highly improbable, however, that for the future there should be such revolutionary changes as the substitution of the cable for the horse, or of electricity for the cable and for steam. The idea, recently advanced, that automobiles will replace ordinary street cars, hardly seems well founded in view of the decidedly greater cost of operating and maintaining automobiles, and in view of the advantage, where streets are of sufficient width, in confining part of the traffic to fixed tracks in the center. It seems, therefore, that a very moderate percentage of the value of property would represent a sufficient allowance for the depreciation due to future progress of the art of urban transportation.

The argument of depreciation has been often used in a most juggling fashion with reference to the charges of public-service corporations. The fundamental point is that, if street-railway fares are to be fixed with a view to providing for depreciation, capitalization should also be adjusted to depreciation. A depreciation fund is properly intended to prevent the necessity of capitalizing outlived property. Railway companies should set aside adequate depreciation funds from their net earnings, instead of hastening to pay the earnings all out as dividends, and they should make those improvements which depreciation necessitates out of such funds, instead of issuing more securities on which the people are expected to furnish a return.

It must be admitted that for some time during the later '80's and the earlier '90's, that form of depreciation which is due to the progress of the art was taking place so rapidly that it would have been impossible for most street-railway companies to set aside a sufficient amount from their earnings to cover it. They were justified in increasing their capitalization more rapidly than the value of their property increased. For such companies, however, the proper policy would have been to begin at once the accumulation of *post-mortem* depreciation funds, as it were, in order gradually to reduce their capitalization. And it may be noted that precisely those companies which had lost most heavily through the abandonment of outlived properties were, in most instances, those whose heavy traffic and earnings would best have enabled them to pursue this policy.

It would require a very extended discussion to attempt to arrive at a conclusion as to what

would constitute a reasonable street-railway fare in cities of different population and different conditions. A rough estimate may, perhaps, be hazarded with regard to the average railway in cities of the first rank, though, of course, a fare which would be proper under average conditions would be too low on some lines and too high on others.

WHAT IS A REASONABLE FARE?

It has been estimated that \$60,000 per mile of track would cover the cost of constructing and equipping the average surface railway in cities of more than 500,000 inhabitants. A return of 5 per cent. on this investment should be adequate, in view of the fact that there is almost no risk in the street-railway business in a great city. A further allowance of 5 per cent. yearly on the investment should be ample to cover depreciation in all its forms. Interest and depreciation would thus amount to \$6,000 per year for each mile of track. The number of fare passengers carried by surface lines in cities of the first class averages about four hundred and fifty thousand annually per mile, so that $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per passenger would suffice for interest and depreciation charges. Adding to this amount the 3 cents required for operating expenses and payments to the public treasury, we have $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents as a reasonable fare under average conditions. If, instead of 5 per cent., the allowance for depreciation be fixed at 3 per cent.,—at which rate, by compounding, a fund would be accumulated sufficient to replace the entire plant in about twenty years,—a quarter of a cent could be taken off the fare. It is practically certain, in view of the increase of traffic which would follow a lessening of the charge for transportation, that the rate of six tickets for twenty-five cents would, in most large cities, return a fair profit on the capital actually invested. In those cities which, like New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, now demand from the street railways considerable payments for franchise privileges in addition to ordinary taxes, the abandonment of such requirements in favor of lower fares, in accordance with a principle now very generally approved, would render a straight four-cent fare reasonable. A still lower charge would be just in some individual cases, even at the present time; and it is highly probable that, in most great cities, future growth of traffic will make further reductions in fare possible from time to time.





HARVESTING SUGAR CANE NEAR CARÁCAS.

THE INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL OUTLOOK IN VENEZUELA.

BY G. M. L. BROWN.

FEW countries in modern times have had to face such a serious crisis as had Venezuela in 1902. So complete was her cycle of misfortunes,—a long period of corrupt government, followed by six years of civil war, with the crowning setback of a foreign blockade of her coasts,—that one marvels that the ruin was not absolute. Her reputation, certainly, has suffered irreparably, for Venezuela is now associated in the popular mind with Hayti and certain Central American states,—“the incorrigible republics.” Yet she has suffered, perhaps, quite as much materially, and, notwithstanding two years of peace, many maintain that the country is still retrograding. “I have been here more than thirty years,” recently remarked a German merchant, “and I never knew business to be so bad as it is to-day.”

Perhaps he should have said *his* business; yet the very next person I interviewed, a prominent Venezuelan provision merchant and exporter, made a similar statement, and asserted that trade had steadily declined during the last ten years. He did not expect to see any improve-

ment for three or four years at least. To make matters worse, the former assured me, a new revolution is brewing; foreign complications, with possibly a second blockade, threaten the country, and, not least of her misfortunes, coffee, the chief source of wealth, is down to an unheard-of figure. Meanwhile the government is being conducted on the plunder system, to the immense advantage of the few at the expense of the many.

Others, however, regard this view as extreme. Two years ago, they admit, the country was at a very low ebb financially, but since then there has been a marked improvement, and they point to the fact that the crops are being harvested; that trade is, at least, steady and unrestricted, and that the government, with all its faults, is meeting its current obligations. As to another revolution, when, they ask, was there not talk of a revolution? The indications are that there will be, at least, several years of peace, and peace in Venezuela means prosperity, no matter how bad the government may be.

Although over-optimistic, perhaps, this view



A SCENE ON THE GERMAN RAILROAD, BETWEEN CARÁCAS AND VALENCIA.

seems, on the whole, the more rational one to take. Unfortunately, trade statistics cannot be appealed to, as there is a four years' gap in the government records. It seems almost inconceivable, however, that business should not have improved since 1902, even omitting from the comparison the period of the blockade. The greater part of the country estates are now marketing their produce and buying supplies; the revolutionists are at home again, and at work (except the few unfortunates in prison), hence they have become honest consumers instead of foragers; the people in the cities are beginning to think once more of luxuries; building operations, on a small scale, have been resumed, and contracts for various public works have lately been given out. But it seems idle to talk of prosperity until the price of coffee goes up, and even then there are serious drawbacks to be taken into consideration.

To mention just a few of these, there is the distrust and, one might add, disgust of foreign capitalists, who now refuse even to consider a Venezuelan investment.

There is the granting of monopolies, which the present government has indulged in in a most reckless fashion. There are the excessive duties, import and export, the special taxes, imposts, licenses, and various other devices of officialdom to hamper trade, and despite the contention of the gentleman I have quoted, there is the constant dread of another revolution, which works immeasurable harm both within the country and abroad. Hence, though conditions are apparently better than they were, the situation, on the whole, seems gloomy enough.

SIZE AND RESOURCES OF THE
REPUBLIC.

Venezuela is the fourth largest republic in South America, and ought easily to rank next to Brazil and Argentina, both in population and in importance. Yet we find that Peru, Colombia, and Chile exceed her in population, and Chile and Uruguay in trade. Venezuela stands sixth in population and fifth in trade, with Peru a close rival, and this notwithstanding her favorable position at the north



A SECTION OF THE CARÁCAS & LA GUAYRA RAILROAD.

(This railroad pays large dividends, and has not had a single fatal accident in its history.)

of the continent, the accessibility of the interior through the lake of Maracaibo, and the magnificent river system of the Orinoco.

Comparing Venezuela with our own country, we find that it is equal to all of our Atlantic and Gulf States combined, without Texas, for which we may substitute Wisconsin. And, while only a third of the vast territory is supposed to be capable of cultivation, this would make a farm nearly five times the size of Ohio. Yet the population, including nearly a hundred thousand savages, is considerably less than that of Massachusetts.

In climate and resources, Venezuela is peculiarly favored. Owing to the altitude of her mountain valleys, there is a large temperate area, principally given up to coffee and sugar cultivation, but producing as well a great variety of fruits and vegetables, maize, yams, beans, and peas, mostly for local consumption. On the lowland slopes and along the coasts and rivers are found the famous cacao estates. Tobacco also is grown in this region, and every kind of tropical fruit. Here, too, are to be found such natural forest products as co-paibá, caoutchouc, the tonca bean, and vanilla.

Of the wealth and extent of the forests, no estimate can be made. At the World's Columbian Exposition (I have not been able to get the particulars of her exhibit at St. Louis), Venezuela displayed no less than one hundred and sixty-five kinds of wood, most of which are, as yet, unknown to commerce. Twenty of these were dye and tanning woods, and more than half were reported to be "serviceable for construction, as they are hard, close-grained, and almost imperishable." Yet the annual export of timber from all Venezuelan ports would hardly make one respectable cargo, and is no more than a few days' output from the average Michigan sawmill.

Many of these forests, of course, are almost inaccessible, and despite the government's glowing reports, it is not to be supposed that all the woods they exhibit will be marketable,—at least, not in this generation. Some samples of mahogany, for example, that were shown me were of a very poor grade, coarse and porous, and the



THE UNIVERSITY OF CARÁCAS.

(This institution dates back over three hundred years, and has long been famous throughout Spanish-America.)

price asked in Carácas was higher than the price of the finest quality in Hamburg. The Venezuelan forests will some day yield a valuable output, but at present there is no skill shown in selecting the wood, the facilities for getting it shipped are of the poorest, and the wages of the Venezuelan peon make the price prohibitive.

CATTLE-RAISING AND LAND VALUES.

The vast llanos of the Orinoco, which comprise almost half the total area of the country, unless the term be restricted to the plains upon the left bank of the river, are devoted almost exclusively to cattle-raising, an industry that has languished in recent years, owing to unsettled conditions and the practical monopoly of export. The llanos, in fact, are in much the same condition of development as were the Argentine pampas half a century ago, and while larger in area than Texas, they support, probably, less than a sixth the number of cattle, although Texas now produces enormous crops of cotton and corn and other cereals. No other region in the world, healthful, fertile, and accessible as is the Orinoco basin, is in such a backward state, and none could be settled more rapidly were there a stable government and unrestricted commerce.

No better illustration could be given of the stagnant condition of trade and agriculture on the Orinoco than the attempted sale of the Crespo



A COFFEE TRAIN COMING INTO CARÁCAS.

estate, to the west of the Caura River. This property belonged to the late President Crespo, who shrewdly appropriated the finest lands that he could lay his hands upon. It contains more than a million and a half acres, and is situated about one hundred miles above Ciudad Bolívar, being readily accessible to steamers of light draught. The estate produces sugar, tobacco, rice, rubber, tonca beans, and all the food that is consumed on the place. It is well watered, and every stream literally teems with edible fish. It supports large herds of cattle and horses, and these could be greatly increased without exhausting the pasture. Furthermore, there has been quite an outlay in houses, sugar mills, wells, corrals for the cattle, etc. Yet this estate has been offered by the Crespo heirs, who have to sell for political reasons, at a price as low as two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, and is still upon the market, I believe, at that price. On the Paraná, such a property would readily bring ten times as much, and could be sold and resold, mortgaged at a low interest, or divided into small farms on the "colony" system and leased to European immigrants. But therein lies the difference between the Argentine Republic and Venezuela.

It must not be supposed that cattle-raising in Venezuela is confined to the llanos. Excellent grazing lands are found in the whole region bordering upon the Caribbean Sea, and all the northern ports carry on an active trade both in live stock and hides. Here, as on the Orinoco,

unfortunately, local monopolies exist. A few influential men, with the connivance of the government, form a "ring" and force the stock-breeders to sell to them at their own price. If the latter refuse, they find themselves obliged to pay such excessive taxes and shipping fees, with, probably, a few additional fines, that profits are out of the question. Whereupon they wisely come to terms with the "ring." Live-stock raising in the north, however, important as it is becoming, will always remain secondary to agriculture; but whether coffee will continue to be the chief crop, or will be superseded by a more staple product, it would be impossible to predict. Cacão

culture will undoubtedly increase, though the limited area suited to the plant will prevent any overproduction, as has occurred with coffee.

CHOCOLATE AND SUGAR PRODUCTION.

Venezuelan cacão, the chocolate of commerce, as is well known, is the best in the world. It has long been the most staple crop in the country, and though the output compared with coffee is insignificant, it yields a handsome profit to the planter,—or rather it would, if the government were not so assiduous in taxing the industry.

Sugar, which, like cacão, is indigenous, yields abundantly; but, fortunately perhaps, very little



INTERIOR OF A CARÁCAS WAREHOUSE.

is raised for export. The home market, however, owing to a prohibitive tariff, is entirely in the hands of the producer, and the housewife, in consequence, has to content herself with a third-rate grade (properly refined sugar cannot be had at any price), for which she pays, at retail, ten cents a pound. The crude brown sugar is compressed into conical loaves called "*papalones*," which retail for five cents a pound, and this is used exclusively by the poorer classes. Here again an apparently highly lucrative industry is so well taxed that the planter gets but a moderate return on his capital, and frequently none whatever.

THE PLIGHT OF THE COFFEE-PLANTER.

The position of the coffee-planter, however, is immeasurably worse. The price of coffee has now fallen so low that his only hope is to clear expenses; but with a majority, even this has been impossible, and some of the finest estates, which, a decade ago, brought their owners an annual income of from fifty thousand to a hundred thousand dollars, are now being worked at a heavy loss. By an unfortunate coincidence, the fall in price occurred about the time of the first Hernandez revolution, so that the cost of production went up when the planters were least able to bear the increased outlay. Even at the present time labor is scarce and expensive, the wages of the peon varying from forty to eighty cents a day; while the government, evidently willing to see the whole industry ruined, has rigorously kept up the export duty.

I had an interesting conversation with the owner of an *hacienda*, or estate, situated almost a day and a half's journey (reckoned by pack



WOMEN SORTING TOBACCO IN A CARÁCAS FACTORY.

donkey) from the capital. The cost of raising coffee on his estate and transporting it to Carácas, he informed me, is eleven dollars per hundredweight. The current price in Carácas for coffee of that grade is just ten dollars, so that he loses a dollar on each hundred pounds.

"Are you marketing it, then?" I asked.

"Not at present. I am storing it in the hope of better prices next year. In the meantime, we are giving all our attention to maize. We are making a good profit on this, and are planning to double the crop next season. We are also experimenting, on some lowlands, with cacao, with encouraging results."

"Is your land not suitable for tobacco also?" I asked.

"Yes, we can grow an excellent tobacco, but the government taxes it so heavily that there is no profit in it."

"Venezuela used to export considerable indigo," I continued. "Is none being grown now?"

"No," he replied, with a smile; "I think it must be fifty years since indigo has been raised in Venezuela."

"Would it not pay to try it again?"

He shrugged his shoulders. "We are not an enterprising people, señor, and one never knows



INDIAN FISHERMAN MAKING NETS, NEAR PUERTO CABELLO.

what attitude the government will take toward a new industry."

This is only too true. Instead of fostering its agricultural resources, the government incessantly preys upon them, never, apparently, having heard the story of the goose that laid the golden eggs. When this suicidal policy is changed, whether it be during this century or the next, and the people are encouraged to take up land with the assurance that taxes will be moderate and for legitimate purposes only, Venezuela will astonish the world by the extent and variety of her natural resources.

Whether indigo will be cultivated again or not, cotton will certainly be raised extensively, and tobacco, a very fine grade of which is now produced, will become one of the most important exports. Sugar, also, if the foreign markets are favorable, tropical fruits, cocoanuts, rubber, and, possibly, maize and rice will be largely exported. Olive orchards and vineyards will be planted to supply the home market with oil and wine, and many cereals and fruits of the north will sooner or later be introduced into the temperate upland valleys. Dairy industries, also, will spring up in time, and the large importation of Danish butter and Dutch cheese may even be followed, as was the case in Argentina, by the export to Europe of her own products.

MINERAL RESOURCES AND THE SALT MONOPOLY.

The mineral resources of the republic, with the exception of the famous gold mines of the

Yuruari district and the copper mines lying south of Puerto Cabello, are almost untouched. Nearly all the precious metals are known to exist, and lead, coal, and iron have been found in large and valuable deposits. Yet so exorbitant have the authorities become in their demands that few investors, either foreign or native, could be persuaded to advance a dollar for a mining concession, no matter how glowing the assayer's report might be. On certain ores, for example, on which a tax of one-half per cent. had heretofore been charged, 3 per cent. is now collected by the Castro government, and upon alluvial gold, which was formerly free, 10 per cent. is demanded. Furthermore, new mining codes are issued at uncertain intervals, often containing the most ill-advised regulations, some of which the mining companies find, to their dismay, are retroactive in effect.

Though containing inexhaustible beds of salt which can be dug out and worked at a moderate expense, the Venezuelans pay more for this necessary article, perhaps, than any other civilized nation. It is coarse and unrefined, yet the retail price is from five to ten cents a pound, and even at the mines it costs almost three dollars a hundredweight. At Ciudad Bolivar and other Orinoco ports, where salt is in great demand for the jerked-beef industry, the wholesale price is about four cents a pound. Is it any wonder that the meat is improperly cured, and that smuggling is constantly carried on with Trinidad, where salt can be had for a shilling a hundredweight? The industry, of course, forms a monopoly, and is under the most ruthless and exacting monopolist in the country,—the government itself.

It is a marvel how the people have been able to exist under the conditions that have prevailed during the past few years. Clothing, shoes, and all manufactured goods sell at exorbitant prices; flour is sixteen dollars a barrel (in Carácas); wines, which are imported mostly from France, cost about five times as much as in Paris; butter is fifty cents a pound; kerosene, fifty cents a gallon; rents are very high, and postage rates are double what they are in the rest of



A SCENE ON THE WHARVES AT LA GUAYRA.
(Showing native Indian dugouts.)

the world. Even country produce, vegetables and fruits, seem dear when compared with the prices prevailing in the neighboring islands of the West Indies, and meat, owing to a special monopoly, throughout the federal district, granted to Vicente Gomez, the vice-president of the nation, reached famine prices shortly after my arrival. This monopoly was so unpopular, however, that it has since been canceled.

PERENNIAL "HARD TIMES."

The result of such high prices, of course, is that the people live badly. They wear inferior clothing, they eat inferior food, they regard as luxuries what the average American workman would demand as a necessity. The houses are no longer kept in good repair, the interior furnishings are shabby; everything bears testimony to "hard times." "It seems like a different country since the days of Guzman Blanco," is a remark one hears constantly repeated.

I have traveled considerably in Spanish-America, but never have I beheld such a shortsighted policy in force as that of the present administration in Venezuela. General Castro's watchword when he first assumed the presidency was "Down with monopoly," yet never since the overthrow of Spain have such ruinous monopolies been created. Taxation, also, has probably exceeded anything before known on the continent, yet the funds are applied to few useful



A STREET SCENE IN LA GUAYRA.

(Showing the steam tram that runs to Macuto.)



CARIB INDIANS OF THE ORINOCO REGION.

purposes. The many government salaries are paid,—promptly I am told. A small allowance is made to education, the claims awarded by the Hague court to the three European powers are being steadily reduced, the army consumes a large share of the revenue, and vast sums, of course, are misappropriated. Were even a fraction applied to the roads, which are in a deplorable condition, to the construction of railroads, bridges, and wharves, to the maintenance of the public buildings, which are rapidly falling into decay, and to experiments in agriculture, one would be less inclined to condemn the administration.

Yet it must be remembered that a country generally gets the kind of government it deserves. General Castro has, at least, succeeded in preserving order and making himself feared. Moreover, he has promised a speedy reduction of taxes, and maintains that they were necessary to defray the cost of putting down the last revolution. He is, of course, a military man, not an administrator; but it must be admitted that he has surrounded himself with some able men, one of whom, General Velutini, is now in Europe endeavoring to arrange for the consolidation of the entire national debt.

CARÁCAS, VENEZUELA.



A VIEW OF THE CENTER OF THE BURNED DISTRICT, SHOWING ONE OF THE NEWLY WIDENED STREETS, NEW OFFICE AND STORE BUILDINGS, AND FIREPROOF BUILDING BEING REPAIRED.*

BALTIMORE, ONE YEAR AFTER THE FIRE.

BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY.

“FROM what we hear, there is not much left of Baltimore,” was the way the editor of one of the metropolitan magazines put it, in declining an article of a local character he had requested the writer to prepare just before the disaster of February, 1904.

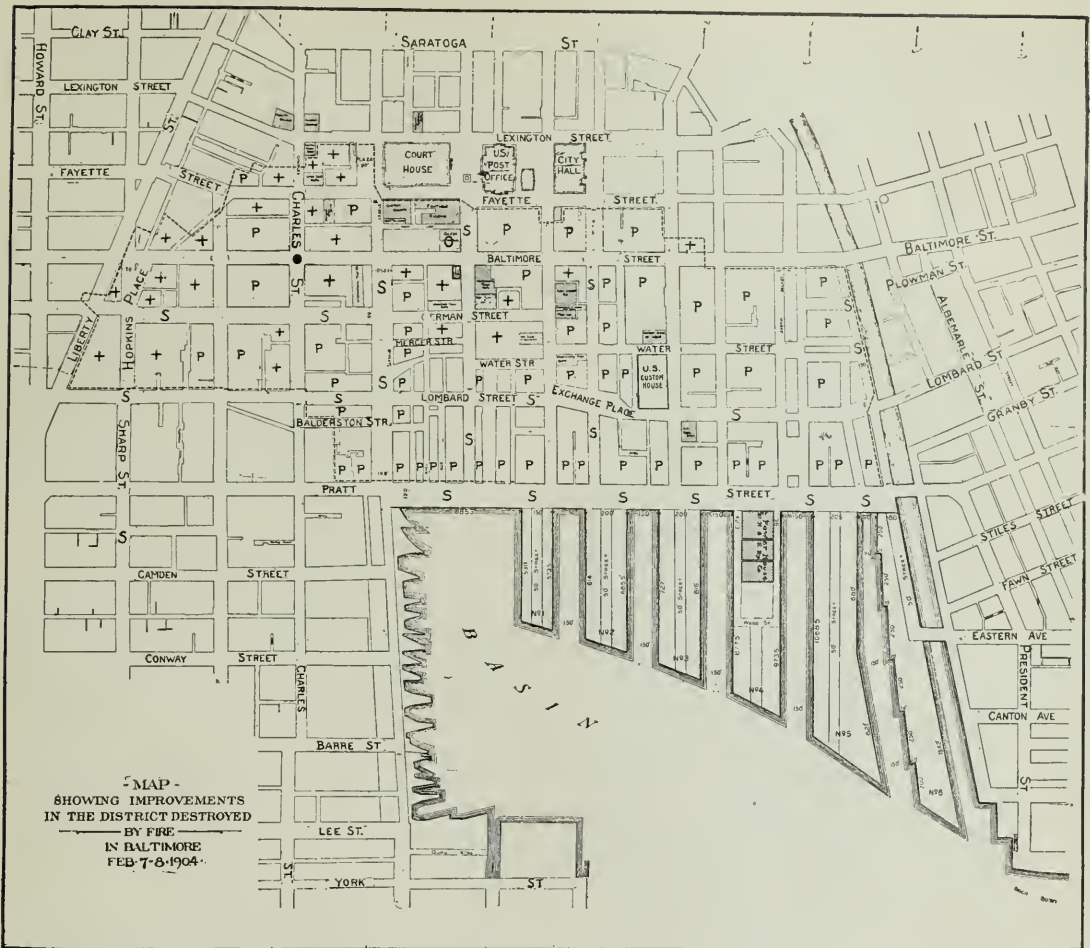
Where the whirlwind of heat and flame had reached, little was left. In one hundred and forty acres of the heart of the city stood a few skeletons of office-buildings and tottering fragments of walls. For block after block, only heaps of brick and piles of broken and twisted metal covered the sites of stores and warehouses, and the streets on which they stood, to such an extent that even the highways could not be distinguished. Out of thirteen hundred and forty-three structures of all kinds, actually less than a half-dozen were so little damaged as to be fit for occupancy. Over a thousand were literally razed to the ground; the walls of most that remained were so weakened as to be unfit for further use. The huge metal-framed “fireproof” office-buildings were mere shells, so completely fire-swept that practically everything inflammable was consumed. The exact proportion of their injury, as determined by the insurance appraisers, ranged from 54 to 74 per cent. of their value. In other words, over half of the material each contained was a total loss.

As in other large cities, the tendency in Balti-

more has been to center a certain kind of business in a particular locality. Thus, most of the wholesale shoe-dealers were so concentrated. The dry-goods jobbers could be found in the same neighborhood. The wholesale millinery establishments were side by side. The extensive dealers in men’s clothing, with one or two exceptions, were also “colonized,” and several of the largest clothing manufacturers in the United States were within a stone’s-throw of one another. Baltimore had its financial district, centering about German Street—the Wall Street of the South. The principal office-buildings stood within an area of two squares. Naturally, the greater number of banking institutions were situated in or near the financial section. When the flames of the conflagration had died away to smoking embers, and the people had become calm enough to form a partial estimate of the extent of the disaster, they realized that the jobbing trade had suffered most severely,—stores and stocks of the great majority of the wholesale merchants had been destroyed, or damaged so as to be worthless. The financial district was simply obliterated, with the exception of two or three banking-houses. Nothing of value was left on the mercantile streets leading to the wharf front. But two office-buildings, and those of small size, were untouched. The main portion of Baltimore Street—the Broadway of the city—was in ruins.

Few amid the thousands who saw the havoc which had been wrought ventured to predict

* The pictures accompanying this article are from photographs, copyrighted 1904, by D. A. Willey, Baltimore.



MAP OF THE BURNED DISTRICT, PREPARED BY THE TOPOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF BALTIMORE CITY.

([•]) Corner of Charles and Baltimore streets, the business center of the city. [----] Boundaries of burned district. [⊕] Blocks where all sites have been rebuilt or contracts let for buildings. [P] Blocks partly rebuilt. [S] Streets widened. Scale 300 feet to inch.)

that the city would ever recover from it. After a partial estimate had been made of the loss from a monetary standpoint, the figures were of such proportions that the pessimists had ground for their statements that Baltimore would drop out of the list of greater American communities and take its place among those of minor importance,—that its diminished resources would lead to a decline both in business and in population. As is usually the case at such a time, the hurriedly compiled accounts of the disaster in many instances grossly exaggerated its extent. But the statistics of such authorities as the insurance adjusters, agents of large estates, and other experts in realty were formidable enough. They proved beyond question that not less than \$25,000,000 worth of buildings were totally or par-

tially destroyed, allowing \$1,500,000 for salvage. The goods, machinery, furniture, and other material they contained were destroyed or damaged to the extent of \$55,000,000, allowing for the small quantity rescued. On this property, insurance to the amount of \$35,000,000 had been placed, leaving a balance of \$45,000,000 not covered by premiums. To it, however, must be added the income from rental of the burned structures. While a precise estimate cannot be made, an idea of its extent is shown by the fact that a single corporation acted as agent for property which rented for \$200,000 annually. As none of the new buildings on it was ready for occupation until a year later, the amount mentioned has been lost by its clients, besides the sum not covered by insurance. In

fact, the decrease in revenue from this cause is believed by real-estate agents to have aggregated fully \$20,000,000, making a total net loss of \$65,000,000. But the most serious question of all was the business outlook for the merchants whose establishments were in ruins. What could be done to serve their customers? What could they do to keep their patronage from being distributed elsewhere? It may be said here that the money represented by orders which could not be filled ran into millions of dollars; but as will be noted hereafter, the falling off in business was merely temporary.

TEMPORARY BUSINESS QUARTERS.

Thus crippled, the people were left to work out their own future, for after the fire companies, who had responded from neighboring cities in answer to the call for help, had departed, no other aid was requested. Long before the flames had shot up for the last time, the streets adjacent to the burned area had been invaded by the store and office hunter. Mansions, historic in their associations, were turned into counting-rooms and banking-houses. Even their attics, where the old colored caretakers had lived since the Civil War, were renovated and rented to the homeless business and professional folk. Such was the demand for accommodations that anything with a roof was eagerly secured. A colored high school was converted into quarters for one of the principal trust companies; another was turned into a temporary office-building, its recitation rooms occupied by attorneys, insurance men, real-estate agents, and stock brokers. So few warehouses remained that a wholesale grocery firm leased a church edifice and took the minister's study for its office. One of the armories was turned into a dry-goods store. The largest savings-bank in the city moved into the courthouse. Thus, the fire proved an unexpected blessing to real-estate owners in the vicinity, who expended their means liberally in repairing and enlarging their buildings.

STREET AND WHARF BETTERMENTS.

With a place where one could at least hang out his sign and receive his mail, the next step was to set about rebuilding. Then the opportunity for making civic improvements presented itself. Some of the principal thoroughfares were narrow and crooked—why not widen and straighten them? It was recognized that the spread of the fire in one direction had been checked by the fireproof courthouse and the spacious square or plaza which adjoined it on the east. If another plaza were created on the west side, it would form an additional safeguard

against possible conflagrations in future and an ornamental setting to the courthouse itself, which is one of the most artistic public edifices in America. The streets adjacent to the docks could be broadened to relieve the congestion of traffic, and the suggestion was also made that a series of wharves and warehouses could now be afforded which would greatly increase the commercial facilities of the port. It speaks well for the spirit of optimism which prevailed, that the people decided in favor of these and other plans for public betterment, although they mean the expenditure of a large amount of money in addition to the outlay incurred for merely replacing the buildings in the burned area. Baltimore will have paid out fully \$10,000,000 for the improvements referred to, as well as new school buildings, street-paving, and other public utilities, when the plans which its citizens are now executing are completed.

AN IMPROVED ARCHITECTURE.

In the work of restoration, the people have made haste slowly, and it is, perhaps, as well. They have given careful consideration to the future, and if any error has been made, it is on the side of conservatism, but they have had expert counsel of the greatest value in their efforts. Naturally, when the extent of the disaster became known outside, here centered the interest of the architect, the builder, and the material dealer, and in a few weeks the city's population received a notable addition. The property-owners had their attention drawn to the latest ideas in the construction and equipment of the store or warehouse. The designs of the country's noted architects were submitted for their decision. The merits of various forms of fire protection were placed before them. In short, if they had been behind the times in knowledge of modern building, they were soon made familiar with it by the energetic agents who invaded the city by the score. While week after week passed, in which the *débris* was being removed and the State and city authorities were dallying over legislation necessary to carry out the public improvements, the real-estate owners were studying the best methods of again utilizing their vacant sites. Consequently, the architecture of the district being rebuilt represents the most recent conception of structures for commercial, financial, and industrial purposes.

It is but just at this point to refer briefly to the faith in the future Baltimore displayed by the newspaper publishers, who were among the first to plan business homes which would not only be suitable for their purposes, but form examples of the city's progress. The *News*, for instance, is

to be provided with an artistic building composed of what is known as ferro-concrete, the walls being literally molded in one piece. The entire space is devoted to the offices and plant, and is lighted, ventilated, cleaned, and all the other mechanism operated by the electric current,—not a particle of steam being generated on the premises. For the *American*, was planned a sixteen-story structure, its massive steel framework faced with stone and ornamental brick. Its dimensions make it one of the most imposing of the group of “sky-scrapers.” The publishers of the *Sun* also decided on an elaborate building exclusively for the newspaper, placing it upon a new site, but erecting attractive apartments for offices at its former location. Vying with the press, however, were bankers, managers of estates, and tradesmen, and while, as already intimated, the weeks became months before the army of masons, carpenters, iron-workers, and other artisans began the creation of the newer city, when the work was fairly under way, the magnitude of the operations was such as to dispel any doubt as to the confidence of the capitalist in the future importance of Baltimore. True, here and there can be seen designs which are inferior and discreditable to the neighborhood in which they are situated, but in nearly every instance, from the ruins have arisen or are rising structures equal if not superior in size and quality to those which they replace, for many firms have availed themselves of the emergency to provide room for expansion in business, and in some instances, occupy double the amount of space embraced in their former quarters.

Extremely interesting from a technical standpoint have been the methods of repairing the office-buildings which passed through the baptism of heat and flame.

In one instance, the entire interior—with the exception of a single brick partition wall and a few steel girders—had to be replaced, the metal taken out being worthless except as scrap iron. The cost of restoring this building was 60 per cent. of its original value. The *Continental*—the costliest of the series—was stripped of nearly every particle of material in its walls, leaving bare its steel skeleton, to be given a new covering. The classic marble front of the home of a trust company was so damaged by the heat that it was necessary to remove every piece of it, but the directors did not hesitate to pay for another marble exterior equally as ornate. Such is but one example of the broad, far-seeing spirit that has been shown in making the “newer” city—for it is another city in size that is taking the place of the blackened stretches of brick and mortar.



THE RUINS OF THE NEW BANKING-HOUSE OF
HAMBLETON & CO.

THE PROGRESS OF REBUILDING.

Thus far, we have referred only in general terms to what has been accomplished in the restoration of Baltimore. Fortunately, testimony to verify the statements made is found in the statistics compiled by the insurance adjusters and by the city authorities, while the camera also furnishes reliable evidence which cannot be contradicted. A significant fact is that until July 1, 1904, permission had been given to erect but one hundred and sixty-five new buildings in the vacant district, and in nearly five months from the date of the fire, only thirty in all had been completed. This was largely due to the delay in enacting legislation and the dilatory attitude of public officials. On December 1, 1904, however, permits had been issued for work representing a total value of nearly fifteen million dollars, actually 75 per cent. of the total value



THE SKELETON OF A FIRE-SWEPT BUILDING, FROM WHICH THE EXTERIOR WALLS WERE TORN AWAY.

of the real estate destroyed, although the number of buildings was several hundred less than the number burned. This indicates that the average value of the new ones is considerably greater than that of the old. When it is stated that nearly two hundred contracts had been let up to December 1 for buildings four stories high and upward, a further conception of the scale of operations may be gained. Included in the series of illustrations which accompany this article, however, are several which show the actual condition of various portions of the devastated area immediately after the fire and on November 15 last. Each set of views was taken from the same position, except where it was necessary to move the camera a few feet to prevent the vista from being cut off by the wall of a new building. Since November 15, much of the work shown in a partly finished state has been completed. These photographs indicate that the building operations are of such magnitude that in some instances the more important thoroughfares have been almost entirely restored for commercial purposes.

The activity we have noted means more than

merely the city's recuperation from the fire. Before it culminates, the facilities for business generally will be far greater than were enjoyed before the disaster, despite the fact that a considerable area has been required for the broader thoroughfares and the new wharves, which must be taken from property formerly occupied by buildings. Sites not only for warehouses and stores, but for hotels, are being purchased outside of the burned district itself. In brief, the entire city is being affected and is undergoing a beneficial change. One indication of this fact is shown by the increased value of real estate of all kinds, which has made a notable advance since the work of restoration was begun. Among the illustrations of individual promotion may be cited the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company. Before the fire had been extinguished, business bodies in other cities began offering inducements to the company to move its headquarters elsewhere, the inducements including generous tenders of assistance. It is understood that one community pledged itself to furnish free a site for a building, but all proposals were declined, and as this article is being written, the president of the corporation has made public the statement that it will expend two million dollars in erecting a new home on a site it has purchased in the very center of the city at a cost of five hundred thousand dollars. This means that the two thousand employees constituting the general office force of the railroad in question will remain in Baltimore, and that their yearly wages will continue to be disbursed here. It may be added, that no important firms or companies have removed to other cities by reason of their misfortune.

NEW HARBOR FACILITIES.

What the public improvements signify in the future commercial expansion of the city can be realized by a brief description of the changes on the water front. At present, steamships carrying five thousand tons of cargo cannot come within a mile of the upper or city end of the harbor, owing to the depth of water and the limited dock space. When the present system is completed, it is expected that the largest transatlantic liners entering this port can moor at the new piers if necessary, so that vessels of ten thousand tons' capacity may be docked within three squares of the business center of the city. In fact, the wharves will be as conveniently and centrally situated as those of any American seaport, and far more accessible than those of some Atlantic ports. They range in length from 550 to 1,450 feet, and in width from 150 to 210 feet, each slip being 150 feet



LOOKING EASTWARD, ON FAYETTE STREET, TOWARD CHARLES STREET, SHOWING WHAT WAS LEFT AFTER THE DISASTER, AND THE CHANGES WHICH HAVE SINCE BEEN MADE. THE NEW STRUCTURES WHICH APPEAR, IN THE PICTURE ON THE RIGHT WILL GIVE THE STREET A FAR MORE SUBSTANTIAL APPEARANCE THAN IT HAD BEFORE THE FIRE.



THE APPEARANCE OF BALTIMORE STREET, THE MAIN BUSINESS STREET OF THE CITY, IMMEDIATELY AFTER THE FIRE, AND NINE MONTHS LATER, SHOWING THE RAPID RESTORATION OF THIS BUSY THOROUGHFARE.

wide. Consequently, at the larger piers four steamships can be easily accommodated at once—two on either side. The streets bordering on the water front are to become commercial avenues 120 feet in width, but the plan of street improvement provides for widths varying from 60 to 150 feet, where in some instances the roadway was barely the width of three wagons abreast.

THE NEW BALTIMORE AS A BUSINESS CENTER.

To realize the effect of the Baltimore disaster upon the country at large, the position which this city has occupied in commerce, industry, and other forms of activity, as well as in population, must be taken into consideration. In the extent of its manufacturing interests, Baltimore may be compared with the cities of St. Louis and Pittsburg. Prior to the fire, the total amount of capital invested in its various industries aggregated nearly \$150,000,000, with a yearly product valued at nearly \$200,000,000, slightly exceeding Pittsburg. The total amount of capital represented in industries in St. Louis is placed at \$175,000,000, with a product of nearly \$250,000,000. From an industrial standpoint, Baltimore ranked seventh in the list of cities. In population, it is somewhat smaller than Boston, the latest local census showing that it contains nearly if not quite five hundred and sixty thousand population. As a clearing-house city, it stands eighth in the list, but its importance as a seaport is perhaps most notable. For a period of years, more corn has been exported from it than from any other city in the United States, and in point of foreign trade it has occupied third place, during some years exporting more products than any other port, with the exception of New York. While the number of railroads reaching Baltimore is not large, they include three of the most extensive systems in the United States,—the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore & Ohio, and the Wabash.

Undoubtedly, the future possibilities of Baltimore, as an outcome of the facilities with which it is being provided, has aroused much of the widespread interest which is being manifested by outsiders. True, the fire proved to be a benefit from the standpoint of publicity, for it advertised the city far and wide. The community was brought into touch with the country at large, and not merely with the South, as in the past. People in general had their attention called to its location, its broad trade territory, and the extent of its financial, mercantile, and industrial interests, likewise its opportunities as a center for investment, and its attractions—

which are many—as a place for one's home. The great insurance companies of the metropolis, already heavily interested here, were among the first to come with offers to loan money in the burned area, and a part of the restoration has been accomplished with their aid. Instead of the number of business concerns decreasing, it has been increased by the entrance of firms and corporations from outside,—men who observed advantages which the citizens had perhaps overlooked. But the infusion of people and capital has been principally due to the belief that the city is to expand, not contract, and that its progress is assured by the transformation which it is undergoing.

But those who are laboring for a community of greater magnitude and progress than the Baltimore of the past have a substantial foundation for their efforts. Considering the amount of the city's wealth which was absolutely lost through the calamity, it seems marvelous that its credit has been so well sustained. In the space of thirty-six hours, its assets had been depleted to the extent of sixty-five million dollars in value. Yet the resources of the local banking-houses were such and the feeling of confidence so general that no interruption to business was caused, except by the fire itself. In the period which has elapsed not a single failure has been due to it where the liabilities exceeded twenty-five thousand dollars, and the total liabilities of firms who have become insolvent on account of the disaster have not aggregated one hundred thousand dollars. In a general way, Baltimore has always had the reputation of being a rich community. The manner in which it has sustained this blow shows that the reputation is not unmerited. And another remarkable fact is, that its volume of trade is rapidly assuming normal proportions. Not discouraged by the handicap in their relations with their outside patrons, the merchants have made far more earnest efforts than ever before to reach not only the market in the Southern States, but in other parts of the country, and such has been the result of their enterprise that at present the business of the community, as indicated by the transactions of the banks in its clearing-house, is but slightly less than previous to the fire. Even during the ten months ending with November, 1904, the transactions referred to amounted to over nine hundred million dollars, but $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less than for the same period of 1903, despite the fact that the conflagration occurred in the second month of 1904. During a single week in November, 1904, the clearings actually exceeded those of a year previous.



THE NEW MANHATTAN BRIDGE OVER THE EAST RIVER, NEW YORK, CONNECTING THE BOROUGHS OF MANHATTAN AND BROOKLYN.

MANHATTAN BRIDGE: A LESSON IN MUNICIPAL ÆSTHETICS.

BY G. W. HARRIS.

NEW communities are slow to recognize the value of beauty, to realize their own æsthetic needs. Most American cities are so new and have grown so fast that they have found little time for other than utilitarian considerations. But better days are dawning. In the older centers of Europe it has long been insisted upon that beauty and utility must go hand in hand in public works, and that principle of city building is beginning to be applied on this side of the world. A conspicuous and gratifying proof of the awakening is to be found in the strenuous and persistent effort exerted to make the Manhattan Bridge over the East River, in New York, an imposing monument,—effort which has finally met with at least partial success.

The crying physical need of the immense and rapidly growing American metropolis is better transit facilities,—especially between its largest two boroughs, Manhattan and Brooklyn. Sev-

eral years before the twin cities were united under one municipal government, the old slow-going ferries had been found inadequate and the Brooklyn Bridge had been built. But it was not long before that, too, proved insufficient to carry the increasing traffic. It became evident that several bridges would be needed. The second bridge over the East River, known as the Williamsburgh Bridge, was opened in December, 1903. The third, or Manhattan Bridge, it is now promised by the city's Bridge Department, will be built as speedily as possible.

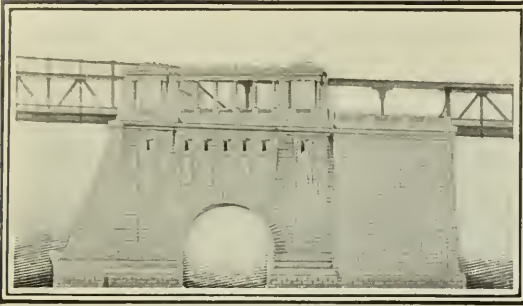
EVOLUTION OF THE DESIGN.

Concerning this bridge,—whether it should be built at all, and if so, how it should be built,—there has been more discussion than over any other bridge ever projected to span any of the waterways of New York City. It was originally decided upon in 1898, when the Board of Pub-



All of the illustrations with this article from drawings by Jules Guerin.

THE TOP OF THE ANCHORAGE, SHOWING COLONNADE TREATMENT.



THE ANCHORAGE ELEVATION.

lic Improvements authorized the preparation of plans for a bridge to cost \$5,732,000. Plans for a wire-cable bridge were prepared and approved, and work on the piers was begun under the Van Wyck administration. Then the impression became general that the capacity of the projected structure would be inadequate, and as money had not been appropriated for more than the piers, the bridge commissioner under the Low administration discarded the original plans and prepared a design for a structure of larger capacity, substituting eyebar chains for the wire cables, making many other changes, and adding a pleasing architectural embellishment. This design was approved by the Municipal Art Commission, and if carried out, would have given New York a bridge that would compare favorably with the most artistic bridges of the old world, and one that would form a remarkable contrast with the existing East River bridges. But the Board of Aldermen withheld the necessary appropriation, and charges of undue influence on the part of rival bridge-builders were openly made.

When Tammany Hall again returned to power, in January, 1904, the new bridge commissioner, in turn, rejected the design of the Low administration and revived the original plans, revising them for the sake of enlarged capacity, but retaining the general features of wire cables, steel towers, and a suspended stiffening truss. The aldermen promptly voted an appropriation of \$10,000,000, and on these revised plans the bridge will be built.

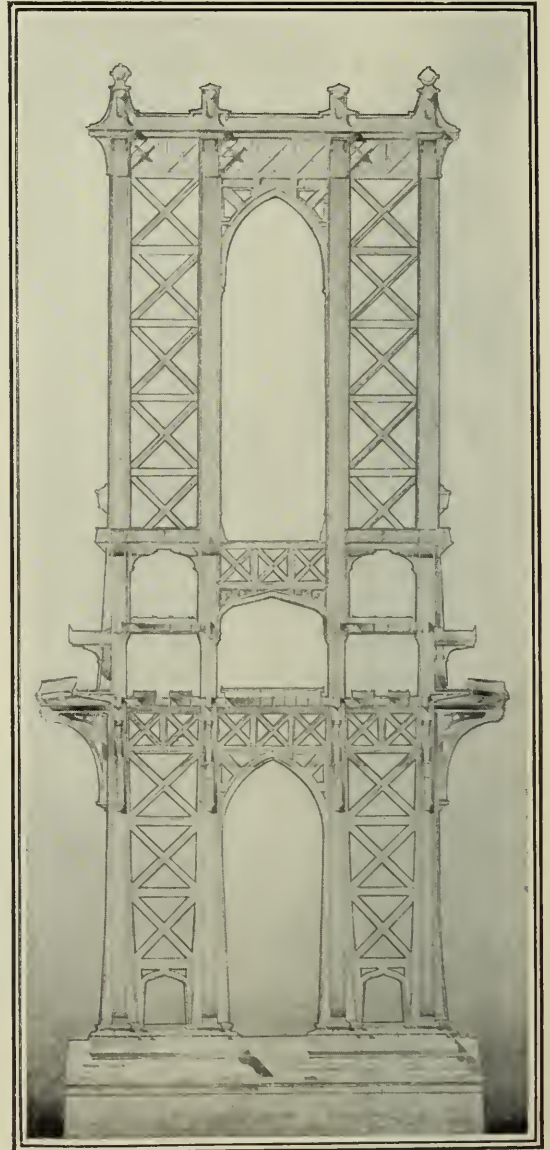
LESSONS FROM EARLIER STRUCTURES.

Now, through all this long and acrid squabble one point to the city's advantage has been gained,—conscientious effort has been made to beautify the design.

The old Brooklyn Bridge is a decidedly graceful structure. That it is such was more the result of happy accident than of special endeavor for beauty of effect. Its building was experi-

mental. There was no existing pattern to go by. Yet by the combination of its stone towers and its iron structure in felicitous proportions, it presents a pleasing and a beautiful appearance, whether viewed from the river or from its own roadway.

But when the Brooklyn Bridge had been in use a few years, and had demonstrated its incapacity for the growing traffic needs, bridge engineers began to realize that it is a practical mistake to build the main towers of such a bridge



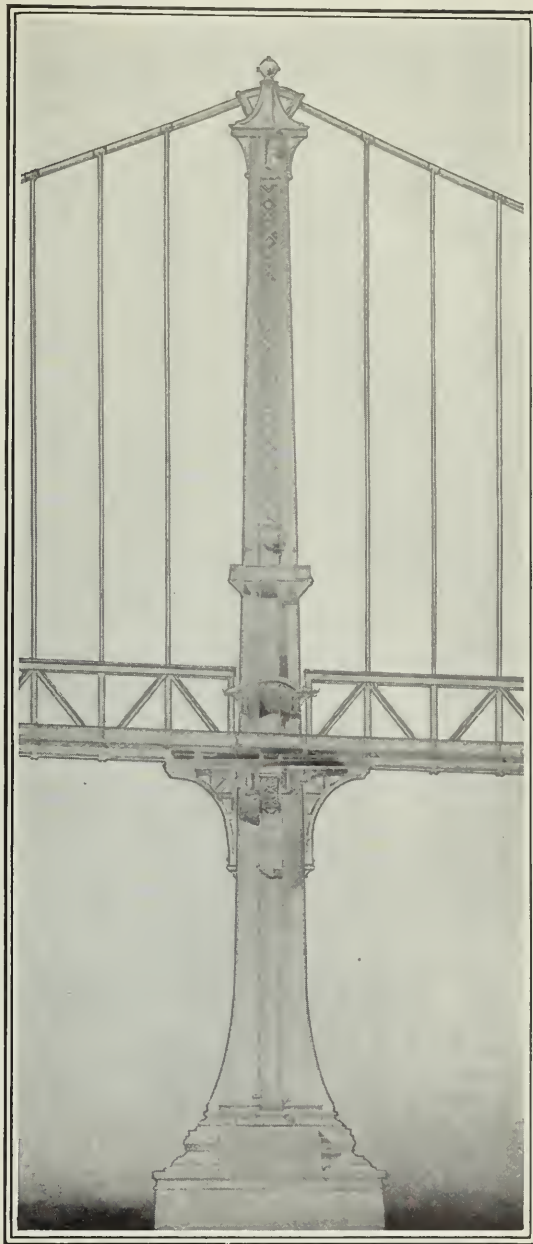
THE FRONT ELEVATION OF THE TOWERS.

of stone, because the openings in the towers built of masonry must necessarily be so small as to curtail materially the volume of traffic over the bridge. Accordingly, when the Williamsburgh Bridge was built, its towers were made of steel instead of stone. This bridge was designed by a corps of engineers purely for utilitarian purposes, without any thought of æsthetic needs. The result is hideous. This is not to disparage the engineers or their work. The bridge will carry the load required of it. As a piece of engineering and from the utilitarian point of view, it is successful. But it is just about the ugliest structure in New York,—a great, towering, threatening mass of iron, unrelieved by any adornment. Viewed from the river, it is an eyesore; from its own approaches, an ugly monstrosity.

Popular recognition of the ugliness of this bridge and the resultant feeling, crystallizing into indignation in certain public-spirited organizations, have done more than anything else in recent years to arouse the city government to realize that its "business may sometimes best be served by beauty." It has been brought to understand that the city can afford to pay something for a handsome appearance. The demand that the lines of the new Manhattan Bridge should be made as beautiful as possible, consistent with strength, efficiency, economy, and speed of construction, has been so insistent that not even a Tammany commissioner has dared to disregard it. When his engineers had completed their figuring and planning, the design was submitted to Messrs. Carrère & Hastings for architectural treatment. The result, it is believed, has been eminently successful. The work has received the approval of the Municipal Art Commission.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF THE NEW BRIDGE.

Manhattan Bridge, which will cross the East River at a point a short distance above Brooklyn Bridge, will complete the extension of Flatbush Avenue, Brooklyn, joining that highway to Canal Street, Manhattan, at a point near the Bowery, and will thus form part of a fine wide thoroughfare from the North River to Prospect Park,—and, indeed, to Coney Island,—really providing the first such thoroughfare from the Hudson to the ocean. It will have a total length, including approaches, of 6,500 feet, a central span 1,470 feet long, and two end spans each 725 feet long (Brooklyn Bridge is 6,000 feet long, with a central span of 1,595 feet; Williamsburgh Bridge, 7,200 feet long, with a central span of 1,600 feet). The new bridge will be 120 feet wide (the width of the Brook-



THE SIDE ELEVATION OF THE TOWERS.

lyn Bridge is 84 feet), and it will carry a vehicular roadway 34 feet wide, two footwalks, and eight railway tracks,—four for trolley cars, and four, on a second deck, for elevated trains. It will be like the old Brooklyn Bridge in that the shore spans of its cables will be "loaded,"—that is, they will carry the roadway. This is not so in the Williamsburgh Bridge, in which

the slightly lessened cost of the structure does not compensate for its hideousness.

The steel towers, although containing about 33 per cent. more material than the Williamsburgh towers, will be much lighter in general appearance. This effect will be secured by treating the central part of the tower as a great open arch. Cutting down through this central arch, it would be possible to take either half of the complete bridge away and leave the other half intact, which would still form a perfect and practicable bridge in itself. Thus, if it should become necessary at some future time to rebuild the bridge, one half of it could be rebuilt at once without impairing the usefulness of the other half. The towers will be constructed on the masonry foundations which are now in place just inside the pierhead line. These are about 70 feet high, and sink 92 feet below high water. The towers will rise 330 feet above the mean high water level.

The cables are to be made of straight wires laid parallel, and will measure 21 inches in diameter. The anchorages will be built of granite, with brownstone and concrete backing. Each will contain more than 60,000 cubic yards of masonry. The structure between the anchorages, including cables, will require about 40,000 tons of steel. The bridge is calculated to sustain a regular load of 8,000 pounds to the running foot, and an emergency load of 16,000 pounds.

BEAUTIFICATION OF ANCHORAGES AND TOWERS.

When the plans incorporating the above provisions were submitted to the architects they found that while the needs of traffic precluded the use of stone towers, and made it impossible by that means to obtain any effect of masonry above the roadbed, it was yet necessary, for the sake of harmony, that there should be some expression in stone above the roadbed of the immense amount of masonry required under the roadbed for the construction of the anchorage. The lines of the towers they considered beautiful in themselves as the expression of an economic and mathematical construction, and the main lines of the cables and suspended truss as given by the engineers were pronounced beautiful because expressing the rational and simple solution of the problem from the engineering point of view.

Therefore the architects made the stonework over the anchorages the most important feature of their design. Their endeavor was to utilize the necessary masonry supports for the anchorage saddles in making them a part of the architectural scheme of a colonnade on each side on

top of the anchorage. One of the pavilions of the colonnade on either side is devoted to staircases connecting with the interior of the anchorage, and which will be finally connected with the street. The anchorage is about 225 feet long and 175 feet wide, and the court treatment, 120 feet above the water level, will undoubtedly be impressive. This treatment of the anchorage also makes it possible to obtain extra width at that part of the bridge, and to provide places aside from the stream of traffic where people may stop to rest and get a view of the city and the river. As seen from the street the anchorage itself will be handsome in its simplicity. Only structural decoration has been used. All of the enrichment has been concentrated on that part of the anchorage which comes under the colonnade and which expresses an interior void. That part which carries the real load has been kept simple and massive, in contrast with the other.

Such decoration as has been given to the towers has been concentrated to accentuate the lines of construction. Covered resting-places have been designed here, and their iron and copper hoods will enrich the lines and give a shadow at that point. The towers are crowned with a simple cornice effect, which is kept under the lines of the cable, like the cap of a column under an architrave. This cornice has been made of heavy iron, with a large projection, and all the decorative features have been concentrated in a gallery effect the whole width of the tower.

Thus Manhattan Bridge will be built. With its approaches it will cost the city, it is estimated, about \$20,000,000. The Department of Bridges hopes to have it completed by the end of 1907. While it may be doubted whether the bridge will be the "epoch-making" structure that would have resulted if the plans of the Low administration could have been carried out, there is ample assurance in the design finally adopted that it will be a work of considerable beauty. It has already been said that this will be a great gain to the city,—for aside from its value as a factor for culture and education, as a stimulating and ennobling influence on the city's inhabitants, civic beauty pays directly in monetary return. But the gain is not alone New York's. This metropolis is the gateway to the new world. Every beautiful and imposing public monument erected here is an example in civic pride to all the other cities in the land. More and more, as New York is improved and beautified, it must become the pride and glory of America, as Paris is the crown of France. The gain of a beautiful structure here is the nation's gain also.

GENERAL STOESSEL, RUSSIAN DEFENDER OF PORT ARTHUR.

PERHAPS the only Russian reputation which has stood the test of the war with the Japanese, in the estimation of the outside world, is that of General Stoessel, the heroic defender of Port Arthur. Now that the defense of the famous fortress has passed into history, the commander of the gallant garrison has become a national hero, whose name will be handed down, in song and story, to future generations.

Anatoli Mikhailovich Stoessel is the subject of conflicting biographies. He is called a Russian, a Swede, a Swiss, a German, a Jew. There is not much to be said of him. Born, July 10, 1848, in St. Petersburg, of a family of Swedish origin,—so much may be said to be known,—he was educated in the Pavlov Military School, in the Russian capital, in the same class with General Kuropatkin, and entered the army in 1864. He served with distinction in the Russo-Turkish War, 1877-78. He was made a colonel in 1889, and a major-general in 1899. The next year he became commander of the Ninth East Siberian Sharpshooters' Brigade. For his service in the campaign against the Boxers, in 1900, he was made a lieutenant-general. In February, 1904, when the war with Japan broke out, Stoessel was appointed commander at Port Arthur, and soon afterward was made commander of the entire army corps ordered to the defense of that fortress. General Stoessel is really a military scientist. He knows thoroughly the engineer's work, as well as chemistry, fortification methods, and sanitary improvements. Russia could not find any better defender for a be-

sieged city. In recognition of his gallant defense, Emperor Nicholas has conferred upon him the title of aide-de-camp to the Czar, and the German Emperor has given him the German order of "Pour le Mérite."

General Stoessel owes his success to his personal qualifications of untiring energy, of thoroughness, and of devotion to duty. His talent for administration is pronounced exceptional. While not a favorite in the social circles of St. Petersburg, he has gained the respect of every military critic and war correspondent who has come in personal contact with him. Mr. Hector Fuller, the American correspondent who succeeded in getting safely into Port Arthur (and out again), declares that, the world over, no one man impressed him with "such a sense of dignity and power, of sheer ability and dogged determination, as did General Stoessel." The general's square jaw and grizzled, close-cropped beard strongly suggest General Grant to this correspondent. "His eyes were steely-gray, but they could twinkle



GENERAL STOESSEL.

merrily. He stood firmly on his feet, and his voice, like that of most of the big men of earth, was gentle and kindly—but he wasted it in no unnecessary words."

Stoessel himself, despite his origin, is a thorough Russian. According to a statement made by the general's sister, his grandfather came to Russia from Sweden during the reign of the Emperor Paul. His two sons, Ivan and Michael, became Russian subjects, and were brought up in the orthodox faith, although their father always remained Lutheran. The present Stoessel is the son of Michael,

THEODORE THOMAS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN MUSIC.

BY W. J. HENDERSON.

THE death of Theodore Thomas removes from musical life in the United States a personality which at one time had a large significance, and which never ceased to have importance. Mr. Thomas, who was born in Essens, East Friesland, on October 11, 1835, came to this country while a child. He had already been taught by his father to play the violin, and had made some concert appearances as an infant prodigy. In 1845, he played on several occasions in New York as a solo violinist, and then settled down to the routine of orchestral performance. He became one of the violinists in the opera orchestra of which the well-known *Arditi* was for a time conductor.

Under the Italian director, Mr. Thomas rose to the post of concert master, and as such helped to accompany Sontag, Grisi, Mario, and other celebrated artists. In 1854, together with Dr. William Mason, the pianist; Frederick Bergner, a 'cellist,—both of whom survive him; Joseph Mosenthal, a violinist, afterward conductor of the Mendelssohn Glee Club; Carl Bergmann, and George Matzka, also a violinist, he began a series of chamber-music concerts. These entertainments were the first of many in which Mr. Thomas figured, and which were of great influence upon the growth of a taste for good music in New York. It was in 1854 that Mason, Thomas' lifelong friend, finished his studies with Liszt and returned to this country, bringing with him some new chamber music by Brahms. Thomas was quick to perceive the high artistic importance of the new works, and from that time forward he was an ardent advocate of the great German symphonist.

AS A CHAMBER-MUSIC DIRECTOR.

Dr. Mason has said that in these chamber-music concerts Thomas at once took the lead and demonstrated his fitness for musical direction. Hence, in the season of 1864-65 he came to venture upon his first series of symphony concerts. These were carried on for five seasons with unequal success. In 1866 began the famous summer concerts. Mr. Thomas gave them at first in Terrace Garden, but in 1868 the need of a larger auditorium caused their removal to Central Park Garden. Old music-lovers still talk with enthusiasm of Thomas' Central Park Garden concerts. His fame as a conductor now

began to spread abroad, and he was praised especially for his admirable skill as a programmer.

In 1869, he made his first concert tour through the West, with an orchestra of forty musicians. Later, he increased the number to seventy-five, and in 1883 went Westward on a festival tour, which ended in San Francisco. The symphony concerts in New York, discontinued in 1869, were resumed in 1872, at Steinway Hall, and continued there till Mr. Thomas left New York for Cincinnati, where he had been appointed president of the new school of music, in 1878. In the season of 1877-78, he was conductor of the Philharmonic Society of New York, and in April, 1879, he was reelected to the same post, and that brought him back to the metropolis. In 1863, he became conductor of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society, and retained the position almost without interruption till he left New York, in 1888, at which time he gave up also the conductorship of the New York Philharmonic.

THE MOVE TO CHICAGO.

For some time previous to his departure, Mr. Thomas had been battling against odds. Others were beginning to reap the benefits of his labor in developing a taste for good music. New conductors appeared on the scene, and patronage had to be divided. Finally the Boston Symphony Orchestra began its visits to New York, and a new standard of finish was set up. The Thomas concerts lost money, and when a number of Chicago gentlemen associated themselves for the purpose of founding a local orchestra and offered the place of conductor to Mr. Thomas, he accepted. He had a hard struggle, at first, in the Western city, and maintained his high musical standard in the face of opposition, complaint, and pecuniary discouragement. His backers were faithful to him, however, and just before he died had erected for the orchestra a handsome new music hall.

The truth is that when Mr. Thomas died he had completed the labors which signified. In New York, he had planted the idea of the orchestra as a musical entity. The "Thomas Orchestra" was the forerunner of the Boston Orchestra, the Chicago Orchestra, and the other



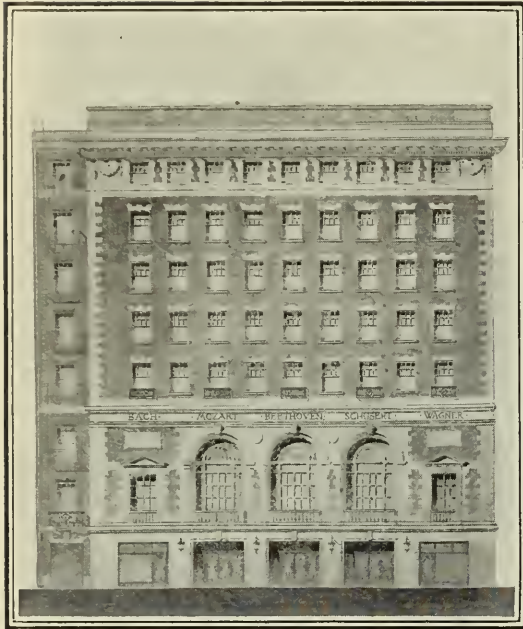
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THE LATE THEODORE THOMAS.

city orchestras which are now part and parcel of the musical life of the United States. As conductor of his orchestra he set up a high standard of refinement, finish, and tonal beauty of performance. In earlier days, it was regarded as sufficient for an orchestra to present the music. If it was played with spirit and plenty of sound, that was enough. Mr. Thomas offered artistic polish in his concerts, and with it he combined individuality of interpretation. He was the first concert conductor in this country to

specialize the personal reading of the works in hand. Others had given readings, of course, but Mr. Thomas invited attention to his, challenged criticism, and sometimes provoked controversy.

There is an erroneous belief that he was the first advocate of Wagner in this country. Whatever credit belongs to that place must be awarded to Carl Bergmann, for it was he who played Wagner in season and out of season, and who, when some one complained that people did not



From the architect's drawing.

THE NEW HALL OF THE CHICAGO ORCHESTRA.

(Built for Theodore Thomas, out of an endowment of \$750,000, subscribed in small amounts by the citizens of Chicago. It is now proposed to call it the Theodore Thomas Hall.)

like Wagner, answered, "Then they must hear him till they do." Mr. Thomas' greatest claim as a conductor is to catholicity of taste. He was a conservator of all that was best in the older schools, and a warm friend of all that was great among the new. He saw Wagner, but not Wagner alone.

He was a persistent performer of the music of Bach, which was far less likely to appeal to general audiences than the music of Wagner. It took courage to put Bach fugues on programmes thirty-five years ago, but Mr. Thomas gave the old master a prominent place. He also made a specialty of his performances of Beethoven's symphonies, and his readings came to be accepted by the concert-going public as authoritative. He was vigorously criticised for some of his interpretations, however, and was bitterly censured for having on one occasion transposed the last movement of the ninth symphony. But it is beyond question that Mr. Thomas did much to establish the public standard of taste in the

works of Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, and Schumann. He also made known the symphonies of Brahms, and, so far as America was concerned, he discovered Tschaikowsky and the Russian school. Twenty-five years ago, he was giving Tschaikowsky's works frequently in his Steinway Hall concerts. Furthermore, he produced many new compositions every year, for his reputation was so great in Europe that composers were glad to send him their scores for introduction in America. He never conducted in Europe, but his name was synonymous there with the advance of musical intelligence in this land. The confidence of European composers did not blind Mr. Thomas to the claims of American musicians, and he produced a number of works written on this side of the Atlantic.

SPREADING THE WAGNER GOSPEL.

Although Mr. Bergmann was the first educator of the public in the Wagnerian idea, Mr. Thomas was an active agent in the further spread of the Baireuth gospel. In 1882, he conducted a music festival in the Seventh Regiment Armory, and gave, for the first time here (in concert form, of course), parts of "Das Rheingold" and "Siegfried." He brought over for that festival the famous original *Brünnhilde*, Amalia Materna. In 1884, he brought her here again, together with Hermann Winkelmann, the tenor, and Emil Scaria, the bass, and gave a great series of Wagner concerts. Christine Nilsson, Emma Juch, Emily Winant, and other prominent singers were also engaged in the festival. The programmes embraced selections from all the music-dramas of Wagner, including "Parsifal."

Furthermore, Mr. Thomas played Wagner's music at his concerts very frequently. His work in making Americans acquainted with the later music of the Baireuth master was of great value, and he contributed largely to the spread of comprehension of the purposes and methods of the composer. When Mr. Thomas left New York for Chicago he had done his work here. He repeated in the metropolis of the middle West the educational achievements of his career in the East. He has left behind him in Chicago an orchestra second only, and a close second at that, to the Boston organization, which is conceded to be one of the two or three best in the world. Some other conductor will carry forward his work in the West, as other conductors did here, but the value of his life will not be forgotten.



WHAT JUSTIFIES INTERVENTION IN WAR?

BY AMOS S. HERSHEY.

(Of the faculty of Indiana University.)

IN view of the present struggle in the far East, it is perhaps of general interest at this time to consider the grounds upon which intervention in war may be justified or defended. This war is one which involves not only the interests of Japan and Russia, but its ultimate outcome is certain to affect the material and moral welfare of the entire world. The far-Eastern question, like that of the nearer East, is made up of a group of problems which cannot be solved in isolation. This is due to the growing international solidarity of modern economic and political life, and to the fact that the great powers (including the United States) have developed interests in farther Asia and have adopted a policy in respect to these interests which cannot be abandoned without the loss of enormous present advantages as well as the sacrifice of well-nigh unlimited possibilities of future growth.

Mainly through the foresight and activity of that great statesman and diplomatist, Secretary Hay, the leading powers of the world are committed to the policy of the "open door" and the maintenance of the neutrality and integrity of China. Any serious attempt on the part either of Russia or of Japan to violate these principles needs call for intervention, if the governments of the powers concerned desire to "save face" in China or preserve a proper sense of dignity and self-respect at home. In any case, it is improbable, because of numerous precedents and the magnitude of the interests involved, that a final solution or adjustment of the political problems arising from this war shall take place without the intervention of a congress of the powers such as has been held at the close of nearly every important war or series of wars since the middle of the seventeenth century.

EVOLUTION OF THE MODERN EUROPEAN STATE.

In order to make this clear, it will be necessary to give a brief historical survey of the evolution of the modern European states-system and to cite some instances of intervention in modern times.

Soon after the periods of the Renaissance and the Reformation, the idea of a common superior or universal sovereign and arbiter, which had dominated the minds and imagination of men since the days of the Roman Empire, gradually

gave way to the modern conception of equal and sovereign states. This important change in the history of international relations was due to the rise and growth of the young and vigorous European states and nationalities of that period and to the profound and widespread influence of two great and original political thinkers,—the Florentine scholar and diplomatist, Machiavelli, and the Dutch jurist and publicist, Grotius. The former, who was at once a profound student of Roman history and contemporary Italian politics, discarded the worn-out idea of a common superior, and, in 1513, he presented the world with a portrait of the ideal modern *prince*,—a sovereign whose conduct was to be controlled exclusively by motives of national self-interest and considerations of political expediency. Machiavelli taught that self-preservation and self-development, in the sense of material prosperity and territorial expansion, were the most important objects of national policy, and he seemed ready to justify any means, however immoral, which really contributed toward the attainment of these ends. He justified, and even recommended, intervention in war on the ground of self-interest alone, and characteristically advised his *prince* never to remain neutral in any war in which his neighbors were involved, inasmuch as "it is always more advantageous to take part in the struggle."

Grotius, whose great work, entitled "De Jure Belli ac Pacis," appeared in 1625, also discarded the Roman and medieval theory of a common superior, but he dealt with the problems which confronted him by a different method and in an entirely different spirit. He formulated a new system of international law adapted to the ideal needs of humanity as well as to the actual conditions of the modern world and capable of almost indefinite expansion. For this system he claimed the sanction of the law of nature (the principles of which were then regarded as self-evident) and based his whole view of the rights and duties of states upon the theory of their absolute independence and legal equality. In opposition to Machiavelli, he set up the principle that the mere "possibility of being attacked" does not justify war and intervention, although he admitted that the aggrandizement of another state might be a legitimate *casus belli* in a war which was otherwise just.

INSTANCES OF INTERVENTION IN MODERN TIMES.

The great majority of interventions in war during modern times have been due to an effort on the part of European statesmen to maintain a balance of power or equilibrium of forces between the leading states of Europe. This system, which originated among the free city-republics of Italy at the close of the fifteenth century, was definitely established by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. Threatened by the aggressive policy of Louis XIV., it was reestablished, and indeed received its first formal recognition, by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The history of the international relations of the eighteenth century may be broadly described as an attempt on the part of the leading statesmen of Europe to maintain this balance or equilibrium of forces. This balance of power, once more threatened by the aggressions of France during the Napoleonic era, was a second time restored at the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

During the nineteenth century, the idea of maintaining a balance of power in Europe gradually gave rise to the conception of the so-called "Concert of Europe,"—a sort of loose confederacy of five or six of the leading European powers, whose members now intervene jointly or collectively as a result of diplomatic negotiations among themselves or of deliberations at a European congress. Originally formed for the purpose of maintaining the treaty arrangements of the Congress of Vienna and of putting down revolutionary movements, this European Concert of Powers extended the scope of its activity, first, to the affairs of the Ottoman Empire; and then to the far East, which is now the principal field of its labors. Thus, England, France, and Russia interposed against Turkey in favor of the "autonomy" of Greece in 1827 in order to put an end to Turkish oppression and "effusion of blood." In 1833, Russia, having aided the Sultan against Mehemet Ali of Egypt, acquired the right, by the Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi, of armed intervention in Turkish affairs. In 1840, the Quadruple Alliance intervened in a second war between Mehemet Ali and the Sultan for the purpose of maintaining the "integrity of the Ottoman Empire in the interests of the peace of Europe." In 1854, France and England felt called upon to come to the rescue of Turkey against the aggressions of Russia. This intervention led to the Crimean War. In December, 1855, Austria intervened in this struggle with an ultimatum to Russia which resulted in a congress of the powers and the Treaty of 1856, which declared that "the existence of Turkey within the limits preserved by the treaties has

become one of the conditions necessary to the European equilibrium." Again, when Russia attempted to impose her own terms upon the Sultan, after the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, in the Treaty of San Stefano, England and Austria threatened war against Russia and secured an important reduction of the terms of this treaty at the Congress of Berlin. In 1886, and again in 1897, the powers intervened, in the one case to prevent, and in the other to put an end to, a war between Greece and Turkey.

The latest instance of intervention in a war between two important states occurred in the far East at the close of the Chino-Japanese War in 1895. The terms of peace between China and Japan provided for the cession to Japan of the Liao-Tung peninsula, including Port Arthur; but Russia, Germany, and France interfered with a "friendly representation," and advised Japan not to acquire a permanent title to this territory, inasmuch as "such a permanent possession would be prejudicial to the maintenance of the peace of the Orient."

It will thus be seen that intervention in war has been very frequent in modern times, and particularly so in the nineteenth century. Indeed, in the case of the affairs of one country at least—in those of the Ottoman Empire—they have been so frequent and constant as to create, in the opinion of some publicists, a body of jurisprudence which is part of the customary law of Europe. These interventions, however, would seem to belong to the domain of international politics rather than to that of law, and the state which interferes with the rights of others in this manner performs a political rather than a legal act. But it should be noted that the whole fabric of European supremacy in Asia, as well as in portions of Europe and Africa, rests upon this power or policy of political intervention which the powers now exercise jointly or collectively instead of severally.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE AS A POLICY.

A political supremacy similar in kind, if not equal in degree, is wielded by the United States on the American continent. Though the extent and method of control is different from that exercised by the European concert of powers in Europe, Africa, and Asia, the kind of control or influence is virtually the same. It is a primacy essentially political in its nature and has no legal basis whatever, but rests upon certain well-known maxims of national policy, originally enunciated by the Fathers of the Republic and frequently applied in international politics by our leading statesmen. Based originally upon the principle of non-interference in the affairs of Europe, the

Monroe Doctrine is, in its essence, a system or policy of intervention adapted to the needs and interests of the states of America.

With the exception of the conspicuous part which we played in the collective interference of the powers in the internal affairs of China in connection with the Boxer uprising of 1900, the United States has confined its interventions to the American continent. The two most famous instances of intervention in our history have been that against the unjustifiable interference of Napoleon III. in the affairs of Mexico, in 1861-65, and that in behalf of Cuba against Spain, on the grounds of humanity and our national interests, in 1898. But the fact should not be overlooked that our government has also threatened intervention in several other instances,—*e.g.*, in 1881, in the war between Chile and Peru, to avert the threatened destruction by Chile of Peruvian nationality (not to prevent the cession of Peruvian territory to Chile, as is often asserted), and, in 1895, in the territorial dispute between England and Venezuela, when President Cleveland insisted upon arbitration. The most recent instance is that of President Roosevelt's interference in the internal affairs of the United States of Colombia by a premature recognition of the independence of Panama,—an act which may be justified on the grounds that it appears to have been necessary in order to advance and safeguard the essential and permanent interests of the "collective civilization" of the world as well as our own "national interests and safety."

OPINIONS OF WRITERS ON INTERNATIONAL LAW.

Publicists have always differed widely as to what are legal or justifiable grounds for intervention in international law, or whether, indeed, there be any such at all. The present tendency is certainly toward the acceptance of the principle of non-intervention as the correct rule, but to admit intervention in rare and exceptional cases on high moral and political rather than on legal grounds. Nearly all authorities concede the legitimacy of intervention on the ground of self-preservation,—*i.e.*, to prevent hostile acts or to ward off imminent danger, but at this point any approach to unanimity ceases. Perhaps also the majority of publicists justify it if necessary to prevent or to terminate an unjustifiable intervention or to enforce treaty rights and obligations, more especially in the execution of treaties of guarantee. Some authorities favor and others condemn intervention on the following grounds: to preserve the balance of power; to put an end to violent oppression, religious

persecution, or to great crimes and slaughter when these constitute an international nuisance or a grave public scandal; to protect the rights, financial or otherwise, of the citizens or subjects of a state while in foreign lands; to prevent or terminate a war which menaces the security of other states, or which, by its undue prolongation, or for other reasons, threatens to become an international nuisance or public scandal; to enforce respect for fundamental principles of international law; and interference in a civil war at the request of either or both of the parties involved, more particularly when the rules of warfare are being seriously violated or ignored. Some writers are disposed to look upon joint intervention, or intervention by the powers acting in their collective capacity, with more favor than in other cases, and there appears to be a growing tendency in this direction.

It is becoming the generally accepted opinion that the correct rule of international law is that of non-interference in the external or internal affairs of other nations. Although history teems with instances of intervention on various grounds and under divers pretexts, the principle of non-intervention is a necessary corollary of the modern Grotian doctrine of the independence and equality of sovereign states. Intervention, whether in war or in peace (and there is no difference in principle between the two cases), should be regarded as an altogether abnormal and exceptional procedure which can only be justified on high moral or political grounds. It should never be resorted to except in those rare and exceptional cases where,—*e.g.*, great crimes against humanity are being perpetrated (as was the case in Greece, Armenia, and Cuba), or where essential and permanent national or international interests of far-reaching importance are at stake (as in the case of the Ottoman Empire, Mexico, and Panama). It is on the latter ground that intervention in the present war in the far East must be justified, if at all justifiable. If Japan is victorious, and uses her victory with moderation, there may be no occasion for intervention, although it is probable that the powers (including the United States) will in any case insist upon being kept informed of the progress of negotiations, in the meantime offering suggestions and advice. If, on the other hand, Japan fails to observe the moderation which is expected of her in the event of victory, or if Russia is ultimately victorious and makes exorbitant or insidious demands, it will in all probability lead to a joint or collective intervention of those powers whose interests are threatened by such aggression. The United States is one of these.

THE JAPANESE ART OF JIU-JITSU.*

BY H. IRVING HANCOCK.

(Author of "Japanese Physical Training," "Jiu-Jitsu Combat Tricks," etc.)

IT would be difficult indeed to convey to an American any adequate notion of how essential a part of Japanese life and character jiu-jitsu is. Many students of Dai Nippon would feel inclined to state the case conversely,—that the Japanese people, with their habits of thought and action, could hardly be expected to avoid discovering this strange and bewildering art of personal combat.

The question most commonly asked by the uninitiated is, "What is jiu-jitsu?" The reply is that it is the perfect art of self-defense in personal encounter. Boxing and wrestling, as we know them to-day, are vanquished by jiu-jitsu as easily as the wind sends the chaff on about its unimportant business. It is difficult for the Anglo-Saxon, proud of his strength and of his skill in boxing or wrestling, to believe that he is the most insignificant sort of an opponent as against what he regards as an "undersized" Japanese.

Much wonder was excited, recently, by the swift and utter defeat that my friend Higashi administered to "Ajax," the champion strong man of the New York Police Department. Higashi is twenty-three years of age, and weighs one hundred and ten pounds. "Ajax" is of powerful build, and can lift a piano without assistance. Higashi, on the other hand, makes no pretension to such strength as this. Each of the three bouts was won in an instant by the Japanese, and the metropolis marveled for a day or two before it forgot the incident. The joke of it was that Higashi did not regard the herculean policeman as a capable opponent, and used against him only the simplest feats known to adepts.

Your jiu-jitsu man does not train for an encounter. He does not go through any form of practice that he may better fit himself for the meeting. When the event comes on, he is ready for it—that is all. After he has won his victory, he goes calmly about his other business. And herein one sees something of the vast influence that jiu-jitsu exerts upon the Japanese national character. Jiu-jitsu teaches the little brown man to be brave, because it convinces him that there is nothing of which to be afraid. He knows in advance that his opponent, no matter

how strong, or how skillful in other methods of fighting, will be defeated. Hence, your Japanese is calmly confident in advance of the meeting with his opponent.

Jiu-jitsu is not taught to bullies; hence, your adept has learned to be patient and to bide his time. Many times, while he is learning the art, he is "killed" and is brought back to life by his teacher. Hence, it is schooled into him to be indifferent about such a petty detail as death. If a big fellow blusters at a little Japanese adept, the adept knows that he will be victor as soon as trouble really starts. It is amusing to him to hear the big fellow vaunt about what he is going to do. Hence the inscrutable "Japanese smile." When the Japanese finds himself racked with pain under the torments necessarily inflicted by his teacher, he knows only



A simple feat. Higashi's opponent has struck out with his left fist. Higashi, with his right hand, has struck assailant's left arm upward; at the same instant, Higashi has thrown his left arm around his assailant's neck. Higashi now darts behind his opponent, hoists him over his back, and so throws him.

* The illustrations in this article are from photographs posed and taken especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.



Higashi's assailant has seized Higashi's lapel with right hand. In a twinkling Higashi has taken off the assaulting hand by the thumb-breaking trick. Holding the assailant's captured hand with both hands, Higashi forcibly flexes opponent's metacarpal bones over on wrist. Assailant finds it impossible to "reach" with his left. Higashi completes victory by planting his heel in his opponent's abdomen, his toe landing where it will give heart "knock-out." (A feat with which to kill an opponent.)

that he must suffer many more such agonies before he can hope to become really expert in jiu-jitsu. This makes for stoicism, and the Japanese soldier marvels when he hears the big wounded Russian prisoner groan under the surgeon's merciful implements. In a jiu-jitsu school, whether it be patience that is called for, or smiling endurance of agony, or the meeting again with death, the Japanese is taught unquestioning obedience to his teacher. This is grand training for unwavering loyalty to and utter self-abnegation before the Emperor, whom the subject is taught to regard as being of divine origin.

The significance of the introduction of jiu-jitsu into this country cannot be overestimated. It is meeting with favor everywhere that it has been taken up by young men of grit. There are several American women, already, who are very fair adepts—quite capable of defeating any uninitiated man. There is every indication that jiu-jitsu, after a year or two more, will be as widespread and as popular in this country as it is in the land of its birth. And the importance of this to the American nation cannot be stated in terms that will be excessive. Apart from mere skill in self-defense, it is worth much to a nation like ours to learn the thing that will bring

with it the acme of discipline and self-restraint, and the spirit of courtesy even to a deadly enemy.

Jiu-jitsu has its most distinguished American exponent in the President. And he has expressed his opinion that the art is worth more, in every way, than all of our athletic sports combined. He has emphasized his opinion by securing Yamashita as instructor in the art for the Naval Academy. After a while, the same work is to be taught at the Military Academy. The heads of several municipal police departments stand ready to introduce the work among the policemen under them. The present difficulty is the scarcity of qualified instructors in this country.

If Americans are to reap the utmost benefit from the introduction of jiu-jitsu here, the start must be made in the right way. In Japan, there are many methods of jiu-jitsu. There is only



Assailant has led with his left for Higashi's jaw. Higashi catches the wrist with his right hand and darts around sideways at assailant's left. Assailant follows with his right hand, but Higashi guards by striking assailant's captured left wrist under assailant's right wrist as it arrives. Now, seizing both fists, and with a dextrous twist of his body, Higashi throws his opponent over his shoulder. (It is at the jiu-jitsu man's option to break his opponent's neck in this feat.)

one, however, that is recognized as official. That is the eclectic system devised in recent years by Prof. Jiguro Kano, principal of the High Normal School of Tokio. Jiu-jitsu, in Japan, is the art of the gentleman; it is not intrusted to the class of subjects who would correspond to our prize-fighters. Hence, it is appropriate that the recognized authority on jiu-jitsu is also one of the leading educators of his country.

It is the Kano system that the President has mastered; it is this system which is to be taught at Annapolis and at West Point. The Kano is the official system of Japan, which is taught to every officer and enlisted man of the Japanese army, navy, and police departments. All of the other schools of jiu-jitsu, while providing methods that seem clever to the uninitiated American, are helplessly inferior before the Kano methods. Some of these inferior systems contain as many as three hundred feats each; the Kano has but one hundred and sixty feats, yet the Kano provides a wholly adequate defense, not only against the Anglo-Saxon boxer or wrestler, but against the adept of any one of the inferior, old-style Japanese schools.

Included in the one hundred and sixty feats of the Kano system are the "serious tricks," by which death may be caused at the will of the adept. Included also in these one hundred and sixty feats are the processes of *kuatsu*, or revivification, by which an opponent who has been apparently killed is brought back to the full possession of his functional powers. It would be out of the question to attempt a description of *kuatsu* in this paper. It can be said only that resuscitation is effected by means of prods, blows, or other shocks applied to various portions of the body, notably against certain vertebrae of the spine, and by a species of massage at the abdomen. It would be a revelation in anatomy to the American surgeon if he were initiated in *kuatsu*. This art of restoration is not widely taught, even in Japan, for the reason that the student must first of all become wholly proficient in the preliminary feats of the system.

Kuatsu is potent to restore many a victim of sunstroke who would be given up by our physicians. A Japanese policeman, who must be a master of the Kano methods, does not summon an ambulance surgeon when he has a drowning man to restore to life. He employs *kuatsu*, which is far more effective than the battery and other methods known to the medical fraternity.

The question has often been asked, "To what extent is jiu-jitsu understood in Japan?" It would be far from the truth to claim that every adult Japanese male is an adept. Nearly every

Japanese understands more or less of jiu-jitsu, just as most American boys pick up something of boxing. There are undoubtedly more real adepts at jiu-jitsu in Japan than there are thoroughly expert boxers in this country; the proportion of Japanese males who are reasonably proficient in jiu-jitsu is much higher than the proportion of American males who are fairly well versed in boxing. Some of the simpler feats of *kuatsu* are almost common property in Japan. These statements, of course, refer to the industrial population, every man in the armed



Assailant strikes with left fist and follows with right. The jiu-jitsu man catches assailant's left and right wrists as they are sent at him, and twists around the assailant's right, at the same time twisting assailant's right hand and arm back of assailant, and easily throws him backward.

forces of the government being required to be an adept in the Kano, or official, jiu-jitsu.

In our press, lately, much reference has been made to the fact that the Annapolis cadets are to be taught *jiudo*—something vastly superior to jiu-jitsu. It would be a trifle more accurate to refer to *jiudo* as highly scientific, or more advanced, jiu-jitsu. Professor Kano called his new system *jiudo* before its adoption by his government as the official system.



Assailant leads with left for jaw and follows with right for abdomen. Jiu-jitsu man guards by throwing his right arm up under his opponent's left in such position that assailant's face is exposed to attack. Then assailant's right is caught by both of Higashi's hands and twisted up over his shoulder preliminary to a throw backward.

In this country, there are at present but three real adepts in the Kano jiu-jitsu, or *jiudo*. One is Yamashita, who taught the President; who afterward gave instruction to a limited class at Harvard University, and who is now instructor at Annapolis. The second is Higashi, of New York, who is the peer of the first named. Isogai, who spends much of his time in Washington, is the third.

In the illustrations which accompany this paper, Mr. Higashi has posed, at the writer's request, in feats which provide for the discomfiture of the boxer. Each defensive movement in a trick is performed with the utmost speed. No attempt is made to overcome the boxer's strength; he is allowed to use his full muscular powers. Jiu-jitsu has been defined as the art of conquering by yielding. It would be more exact to say that the jiu-jitsian on the defensive accommodates himself to the movements of his opponent. It is sought to divert a boxer's strength, speed, and momentum so that he will

employ them for his own defeat. Once the idea is grasped, this is such a simple thing to do that the jiu-jitsu defense seems almost elemental.

Never once does the boxer's blow land. Its direction is always diverted; the seizure of an assailant's wrist or arm is not made until the boxer's fist has all but landed. Often the boxer's momentum has been so great that when its direction is diverted he is easily sent off his balance. It is admitted, even among American boxers, that a defensive move can be made more



When assailant leads with left, his wrist is caught by Higashi's left hand, and in the swift body-swing that follows, Higashi's right hand lands in a grip on assailant's left shoulder, and Higashi's right knee is pressing the back of assailant's left arm. (The arm may be broken in an instant with this feat.)

rapidly than an assaulting one. With this initial advantage on his side, and with his wonderful art at command, the jiu-jitsian finds it child's-play to defeat the boxer signally and invariably. It is not always possible to stop a clever and hard-hitting boxer without knocking him out,—“killing him,” the Japanese say,—yet it is much easier to defeat the boxer with jiu-jitsu than it is to overcome the clever wrestler. But the exponent of either boxing or wrestling meets with speedy defeat at the hands of his Japanese opponent.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN SCANDINAVIA.

THE constitutional liberty enjoyed by the Danes, the Norwegians, and the Swedes is the result of a free and outspoken press. Conversely put, this freedom of speech, as expressed through the numerous Scandinavian newspapers and periodicals, is the logical outcome where the people of the respective countries share completely in the affairs of their government. As a matter of fact, it required not a few hard-fought battles with pen on paper against the powers that were before Northern journalism attained to its present high estate. More than one editor of the radical school found the prison cell his sole reward for championing the cause of liberty during the period of "reconstruction." But as in Scandinavia legislative halls were compelled to open to farmer, burgher, and aristocrat on equal terms censorial restriction became a dead letter, until to-day the press of no nation in the world is freer from pernicious interference than that of Denmark and Sweden-Norway. As promoters of education among the masses, the Scandinavian newspapers can teach their European contemporaries more than one lesson.

THE DANISH PRESS.

That the Danes are great readers, the publication of more than twenty daily papers in Copenhagen alone bears testimony. The monthly magazines, the illustrated weeklies, and the many technical journals are evidence that this reading is not confined to the newspapers.

Foremost among the progressive newspapers of Copenhagen, which means, of course, of Denmark, is the *Politiken* (Politics). That it is the organ of the Liberals may be assumed from its aggressive title. Established by the late Viggo Lauritz Hørup, in his day the most brilliant among a conspicuous group of journalists, the *Politiken* was born, so to speak, during the most strenuous political period the country ever witnessed. It was Hørup's virile pen that fought relentlessly against the fogysm of the ultra-Conservatives, and instrumental in bringing about the great political reform of 1901, this champion of equal rights became a member of the Deuntzer cabinet. The present editor of the *Politiken* is Edvard Brandes, a brother of the famous critic, Georg Brandes, and himself an author and dramatist of fame. The associate editor is Henrik Cavling, who has been a frequent visitor to the

United States. His descriptive articles are remarkable for their picturesqueness, and Cavling is essentially the Danish journalist with American tendencies.

The *Dannebrog* (literally, the Banner of Denmark) is likewise a newspaper with decidedly



HENRIK CAVLING.
(Managing editor of the *Politiken*,
of Copenhagen.)

Liberal inclinations. Yet there is a difference between its Liberalism and that of the *Politiken*. The *Dannebrog* is the organ of the minister of justice, Alberti, but the policy of this astute statesman does not always agree with the other members of the Danish cabinet. Consequently, there are many heated arguments

in the columns of both the *Dannebrog* and its numerous opponents, and the *Politiken* is one of the first to pick flaws in what the *Dannebrog* asserts.

It was given to the *Berlingske Tidende* (Berling's Times) to treat the Danish reading public to one of the greatest surprises the capital ever experienced. This, the oldest Danish newspaper, and the official organ since the publication of its first number (January 3, 1749), caused consternation at hundreds of breakfast-tables, a few years ago, when its readers discovered that it had suddenly deserted the Conservative ranks and had gone over body and soul to its one-time enemy, the Liberals. If any evidence was needed that the Liberal party had come to stay, this action of the "old reliable" was proof conclusive. Aside from its political creed, there has been little change in the columns of the *Berlingske Tidende*. It is still moderate in its views of the literary and educational needs of the country. It is decidedly the paper read by the class in authority. Its columns are dignified to the point of severity.

The *National Tidende* (National Times) is a journal of absolute aristocratic tendencies, and it is now, as ever, relentlessly pro-monarchical. The *National Tidende* is one of a syndicate of news-



SOME REPRESENTATIVE DANISH PERIODICALS.

papers that includes the *Dagstelegrafen* (Daily Telegraph), the *Dagbladet* (Daily Journal), the *Dagens Nyheder* (Daily News), and the *Aftenposten* (Evening Post). There is, however, a vast difference as regards the kind of reading matter served up by these various publications.

The actual rival of the Liberal journals of Denmark is the *Vort Land* (Our Country). In view of the fact that the country is now represented by a Liberal Congress, the title of *Vort Land* sounds rather peculiar. Nevertheless, in justice to its policy it must be said that no less than the most radical newspaper does it fight for its country's welfare,—from its own point of view. The articles in *Vort Land* are very brightly written, even though they do not always convince. Its circulation extends throughout the country, and is very large.

The title of the *Social-Demokraten* (Social Democrat) is self-explanatory. Its standing motto is, Liberty—Equality—Fraternity. It has, perhaps, the largest circulation of any Danish daily newspaper.

The *København* (Copenhagen) is the *Petit Journal* of the Danish capital. It is the spiciest of the dailies, and appears at noon. Its editor is H. Witzansky. It sells for two öre (about one-quarter cent), which is one-half what the majority of the other newspapers cost on the street.

Of the remaining Danish dailies, the most noteworthy are the *Samfundet* (Society, in its

fullest sense), *Folkets Avis* (People's Paper), and *Børsen* (Bourse).

The Danish illustrated weeklies play a considerable part in the intellectual affairs of the country. First to mention is the *Illustreret Tidende* (Illustrated Times). This is a really first-class publication, comparing easily with the best of those of any other country. From the standpoint of circulation, however, the *Illustreret Familie Journal* (Illustrated Family Journal) is the weekly which leads them all. It has the (for Europe) enormous circulation of more than half a million copies, and while it sells for but ten öre, is well gotten up, both as regards text and illustration.

Of the other weekly publications, the *Hver 8 Dag* (Every 8th Day) has as its chief editor

Georg Kalkar. It is a popular paper, and belongs in the same class with the *Verdens Spejlet* (World's Mirror), the editors of which are A. W. Holm and Carl Bratti. Although the youngest among the weeklies, this is easily one of the brightest, and its birth was auspicious in that it came into existence as the organ of the Danish Journalist Society during the Press Exposition held in Copenhagen a couple of years ago.

Denmark has a number of excellent humorous papers, the leading ones being the *Klods-Hans* (Clumsy Hans) and *Ravnen* (Raven). In *Klods-Hans* especially, satire runs rampant, and the best talent in the country has here a field for fun and fancy. Christian Flor is the editor of this weekly humorist.

Among the weekly publications popular in the Danish home circle, *Frem* (Forward) caters to the intellectual readers. *Hjemmet* (the Home), *Husmoderens Blad* (the Housemother's Journal), and *Nordisk Mønster Tidende* (Northern Fashion Times) are useful in their respective spheres.

There are at least half-a-dozen monthly periodicals which exploit every phase of culture and knowledge. In the *Tilskueren* (Spectator), of which Valdemar Vedel is the editor, Denmark has a magazine than which none better is published anywhere. Contributors like Georg Brandes, Professor Høfding, and Emil Hanover lend to it a variety that never for one moment departs from actual literature. The same may

be said of *Dansk Tidsskrift* (Danish Periodical), which is edited by Dr. I. Mortensen. The *Det Ny Aarhundrede* (New Century) is published twice a month, and frequently contains illustrations.

PERIODICALS OF NORWAY.

The fact that the two languages of Denmark and Norway are almost identical is instrumental in providing a double fount, in that the newspapers of the one country are intelligible to the readers of either. Christiania, however, need not look to Copenhagen for its mental pabulum. The chief city of Norway is well provided with newspapers, and they are all prosperous.

Catholicity is the predominant feature of Norwegian newspaper readers. To be a subscriber to half-a-dozen dailies is a rather common performance of the average well-to-do burgher of Christiania.

Heading the list of Norwegian dailies, the *Verdens Gang* (World's Course) is, perhaps, the most liberal paper published in Norway. Even a country so liberally constituted through and through as is Norway has to have its parties diametrically opposed to each other in policy. The *Verdens Gang* is an up-to-date newspaper. The most famous writers of the country have been its contributors. Its present editor, Hr. Thomessen, worked a revolution in the mechanical departments of the newspapers of Christiania when he took charge of *Verdens Gang*, and he set the pace for the rest of the enterprising dailies of the Norwegian capital.

Almost equal in importance with the *Verdens Gang* is the *Aftenposten* (Evening Post). It was in the columns of this paper that the first letters of Nansen found their way to the eagerly waiting reading public after his return from the far North, and the fact that these letters were to appear drew a large *clientèle* to *Aftenposten* long before the actual event. *Aftenposten* is sedate in every respect.

The *Norske Intelligenssedler* (Norwegian Intelligence Notes) was long a government organ, to the extent that it gazetted events coming under the head of affairs of state. It was established in 1763. The present editor-in-chief, Hjalmar Löken, has succeeded in completely modernizing the paper since he took charge, about a dozen years ago. Moderation is likewise a feature of the *Morgen Bladet* (Morning Journal), of which Nils Vogt is editor. This paper has an evening edition as well, and its circulation is considerable. An even larger circulation is, however, enjoyed by the *Dagbladet* (Daily Journal), which under the editorial leadership of A. T. Omholdt has succeeded in commanding the writings of the first authors in the land. Among the remaining dailies of Christiania, *Örebladet* (Penny Paper) is considered one of the best mediums for the advertiser who wishes to reach the masses. Its make-up bears evidence that American journalism has been its teacher. *Kristiania Dagsavis* (Christiania Daily Journal) and the *Social-Demokraten* (Social Democrat) are both live publications, with a following distinctly their own.

In the domain of illustrated publications, Norway is not quite as well provided as its neighbor across the water. There are, however, a few of exceptional merit and characteristic of the country. *Norsk Familie Journal* (Norwegian Family Journal) is a very entertaining weekly, excellently illustrated and well written. *Urd* (Forward) is the organ of the modern Norwegian woman, is edited by a woman, Anna Bøe, and the publishers are Cecilie and Anna Bøe. *Folkebladet* (People's Journal) is the especial favorite of the large population of the countryside and in the mountainous districts.

The technical and scientific journals of Norway



A FEW PROMINENT NORWEGIAN PUBLICATIONS.



SOME OF THE BEST-KNOWN SWEDISH JOURNALS.

are numerous. The extensive mining and lumber industries have been the means of creating a literature devoted to metallurgy and the care of the forests. So, too, the fishery industry has a number of journals looking to its interests. The *Farmand* (Seafarer) is the trade journal *de facto* of the business men of the country. The *Kringsjaa* (Circle) is an entertaining semi-monthly publication. The *Samtiden* (Present Age) is an attractively gotten up monthly magazine.

THE SWEDISH PRESS.

The reading of the Swedes is a trifle more academic than is the case with either Norway or Denmark. Nevertheless, the newspapers of Sweden are very numerous, and are universally progressive. International politics occupies considerable space in the Swedish papers, and the present war in the East has brought to the fore the intense anti-Russian sentiment that has remained partly dormant for many years.

The *Aftonbladet* (Evening Journal), of Stockholm, has a circulation of several hundred thousand. American affairs is a favorite department of this paper, and its liberal tendencies make it welcome in the United States, where so many communities have been settled entirely by Swedish immigrants. In direct contrast to the liberal views of *Aftonbladet*, the *Nya Dagligt Allehanda* (New Daily All-Sorts-of-Things) is very conservative, notwithstanding its elaborate title. This is the organ of the aristocracy, is edited

by Dr. J. A. Björklund, and is the most expensive newspaper published in Sweden. On the other hand, the cheapest paper is the *Stockholms-Tidningen* (Stockholm Times), published by Anders Jeurling, who is also the publisher of the *Hvad Nytt I Dag* (News To-Day). As an advertising medium, the *Dagens Nyheter* (Daily News) stands in the forefront of its contemporaries, and it voices the sentiments of the Liberal party. The *Svenska Dagbladet* (Swedish Daily) has illustrations, after the manner of its American colleagues. It is the champion of woman. As in Denmark, the Socialist party carries considerable weight in Sweden. The organ is the *Social-Demokraten* (Social Democrat).

Among the other Swedish newspapers whose influence is far-reaching, the *Stockholms-Bladet* (Stockholm Journal), the *Vårt Land* (Our Country), the *Aftonbladet* (Evening Journal), and the *Post- och Inrikes Tidningar* (Post and Interior Times) are all established firmly in the estimation of the nation. The last-named publication is undoubtedly one of the oldest newspapers in the world. The first number made its appearance in 1645. Under the direct control of the government, it voices the sentiment prevailing at court and in the official departments.

A number of weekly publications are issued in Stockholm. The serious reviews are well edited, and appealing to a popular reading class is the *Varia* (Varied), which prints many translations.

JULIUS MORITZEN.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE OPEN VERSUS THE CLOSED SHOP.

A TEMPERATE and helpful discussion of the "open-shop" question, from the point of view of an enlightened unionism, is contained in an article contributed to the *North American Review* for January by Mr. Henry White, the founder and for many years secretary of the United Garment Workers of America. Mr. White resigned his office in the union last year because of his opposition to the strikes begun in New York against the open-shop attitude of the employers' association in his trade. In his *North American* article, Mr. White shows clearly that he understands, and to a certain extent sympathizes with, the position taken by many representative unionists in favor of the closed shop. He believes, in fact, that the workmen's right to organize and to refuse to work with non-unionists does not, in a broad sense, conflict with the employer's right to engage non-union workmen if he chooses. "Conflict occurs only where one side, in pursuing its own rights, encroaches upon the rights of the other,"—for Mr. White denies that the mere possession of a right justifies the fullest exercise of it under all conditions. Indeed, he draws a sharp distinction between being forced to give up a right and deciding to suspend its exercise for practical reasons. Applying this principle to the matter at issue, Mr. White argues :

Many an employer will readily accommodate himself to a situation and employ only union men, but he will strongly protest against being bound by contract to do so. Even should he employ union men exclusively, he may reserve the right to employ others if he so desires. And so with the union workmen. When unable to help themselves, they will work with non-members; but they will resist an attempt to make them agree to do so at all times. The method by which the open or closed shop is upheld is the real question. There is no difficulty as to principle, if the acknowledged rights of either side are respected. The one condition that the union can justly insist upon is, that there shall be no discrimination against its members, and that the employees shall be treated with through their representatives. The natural disadvantage of the laborer entitles him to that consideration, and public opinion sustains him to that extent. Because, however, the closed shop would strengthen the union and enable the members to secure fair terms, it does not follow that it rests with the employer to uphold it. It is manifestly absurd to expect the employer to force the organization of his employees against himself.



MR. HENRY WHITE.

Even if he were to do so, it would prove destructive to the spirit of unionism. The ability of workmen to organize independently is what gives unionism significance, and it is the resistance offered to the union that checks arbitrary tendencies. Unions, like individuals, seek to gain the benefits of struggle without the effort; hence the denunciations of employers for not granting what can come only through sustained effort.

The strongest argument urged against the open shop is that if the employer were permitted to hire non-union workmen the union workmen would soon be displaced and the union standards broken down. Undoubtedly, the employer would be inclined to discriminate, but that is a situation the union must meet by better organization. The employer could allege also, on the same grounds, that by employing union men he would lose control of his shop and workmanship would deteriorate. The task of each side is to prevent the other from making unfair use of its power, not to seek to protect itself from oppression by curtailing the liberty of the other. The existence of such extensive and efficient unions as the railroad brotherhoods, which deal with a most powerful set of employers and never raise the question of the closed shop, shows conclusively that the recognition of the closed shop is not vital to the union's existence. There is, besides,

the example of the successful British unions, which pursue a similar policy.

IS THE SOCIAL WELFARE THREATENED?

Holding that the welfare of society must be the final arbiter of all conduct, Mr. White concludes that the unions have not yet developed the self-restraint which would be needed if the closed shop were to prevail generally. Judging by the unions as now constituted, he declares that the closed shop would prove as injurious to unionism itself as it would to society. There would not be, within the union, the power to keep it from going to excess.

Organized workmen, because of their position, are unable to grasp as readily as others what the closed shop fully implies. They see the opportunity it offers

them to improve their position. The employers and a considerable number of the public see the possibilities for evil. The unionist, like others, believes that he can be trusted with unlimited power, and he cannot understand why there should be this unwillingness to grant him more. It is not probable that public opinion will favor the closed shop as defined usually by the union, because of the coercion it implies, or that the employing class will concede it without a struggle.

Believing that the untenableness of the closed shop as an issue has been demonstrated by the recent strikes, Mr. White urges the unions to abandon it as an issue, "while not relaxing their efforts to establish it by means which cannot be assailed." Unions, he says, in coping with the modern employer, must depend upon the inherent strength of their cause and build upon the rock of voluntary organization.

SOUTHERN REPRESENTATION IN CONGRESS.

THE manner and tone in which the proposition now before Congress for reducing the representation of certain Southern States because of the alleged disfranchisement of negroes is discussed in the periodicals would indicate that both Southern and Northern writers are generally disposed to view the matter philosophically and to seek a common basis on which an effective remedy for the admitted evils of the present situation may be worked out. In the *Outlook* (New York) for January 7 there is an editorial discussion of the question based upon broad ethical considerations and opposing the proposed reduction on four distinct grounds: (1) that the basis of representation assumed in such a reduction, — *i.e.*, the number of voters rather than the total of population, — is a false basis; (2) that it is unjust to condition the Congressional representation of Southern States upon the number of votes cast and of Northern States upon the size of the population, — the basis should be the same for all the States; (3) that it would be unjust to the negro to concede to certain States the right to disfranchise him, even though the representation of those States should be proportionately reduced; and (4) that the national government can remedy any injustice by dealing with each Congressional district by itself.

The writer of this editorial article refuses to admit that the negro has been disfranchised by the constitution of any Southern State; but even if this charge were true, he holds that it would not be right for Congress to reduce the representation and permit the disfranchisement of the negro, as such, to continue. It is held by cer-

tain Southern journals that if the South's representation is reduced on such a ground the North can no longer demand negro suffrage, since the negro's disfranchisement is accepted by all parties as the basis of such reduction. The *Outlook* adopts this view of the case and holds that to reduce the representation would be to concede that the negro might be denied all his constitutional rights, provided the North could get, in return, a larger relative representation in Congress. The editor's conclusion, on ethical grounds, is that Congress has no moral right to say to any State, You may deprive some of your citizens of the suffrage provided you lessen your representation in Congress. It should, on the other hand, say to the election district which deprives its citizens of their constitutional right to vote, You shall not have any representation in Congress until you act in your elections according to the Constitution of the United States.

A Southerner's View-Point.

Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy, the executive secretary of the Southern Education Board, has for years made a special study of the franchise question in the Southern States. His article in the *North American Review* for January answers in the negative the question, "Shall the Fourteenth Amendment Be Enforced?" Mr. Murphy points out practical difficulties in the way of enforcing the amendment, and also shows that enforcement, even if practicable, could work no benefit to the negro.

In the first place, how is the number of voters prevented by law from voting to be determined by the federal authorities? The number of votes

east varies from election to election, according to the popular interest in the issues to be passed upon. Speaking of the effect of attempted enforcement upon the negro voter, Mr. Murphy says :

The attempt to establish any principle of true democracy by a process of penalties is likely to be futile ; it is not unlikely to be self-destructive. The setting of class against class,—where one class is essentially stronger than the other,—may alter the form of class ascendancy ; it cannot change its inherent and inevitable basis. In such a case, a futile penalty is more than a futility,—it is a crime against both the strong and the weak ; against the strong, because it is the aggravation of unnatural and abnormal hatreds, breaks down the sense of stewardship, increases the sense of indifference and alienation, developing the passions of constraint by imposing a policy of constraint. It is a crime against the weak because it involves a like alienation and a like distrust of moral forces. The North may punish the white man, but the retort of the white man falls too

often upon the negro. The negro is upon the line of the cross-fire between the sections. The federal government may be solicitous as to his vote, but the negro needs the daily and neighborly solicitude of those who offer opportunities of labor—possibilities of bread. The North, especially the negro of the North, may wish to strike at the South, but the Southern negro, knowing that he must live with the Southern white man, rightly feels no cowardice in the confession that a privilege accorded voluntarily by the South is worth more than any conceivable privilege that might be imposed externally by the North. The latter may be but a temporary and exotic bauble. The former is a fact to rest in. What it is, it is. Because its basis lies rooted in the common consent of the whole people, it is a social and political reality. It is of a piece with nature. It is an achievement of democracy.

“The deeper mind of the South,” according to Mr. Murphy, appeals from the penalties of the Fourteenth Amendment “to its principles and its anticipations.”

THE CHRISTIAN ARGUMENT AGAINST DIVORCE.

SINCE neither Church nor State has achieved a modicum of success in dealing with the divorce problem through legislation, there is an influential part of the Christian Church which appeals from laws temporal to laws spiritual for a settlement of the question, Is divorce right or wrong ? Mrs. Katrina Trask, writing in the January *Arena*, applies to the discussion the teachings of Christ, which she declares are distinctly against divorce,—conditions being as they now are,—and, consequently, against remarriage.

This is true, not canonically, but philosophically ; not on prohibitory, but on inherent, grounds ; not because of any special command of His against it, but because of His continued command for that which is a better solution of the problem.

We find but few utterances on which to build a dogma, but we find a multitude of utterances, and also His own example, to be used as a working principle, the outcome of which principle would lead straight away from divorce—for any cause, on any ground.

We find, “Forgive your enemies ;” no exception is made of husbands and wives. We find, “Do unto others as you would have others do unto you ;” “Do good to them which spitefully use you ;” no exception of this obligation is made to those bound together in temporal unions, even though those unions were mistaken ones.

“Resist not evil, but overcome evil with good,”—this is not merely an utterance ; it was the power of Christ’s life exemplified. That may not be a command against divorce,—but it is a command to bring good out of evil to better conditions. We find continual appeal to us to bring forth the fruits of the spirit : “Love, joy, peace, long-suffering, gentleness, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance.” Would not this fruitage in heart and home be a certain way to prevent divorce ?

Christ’s teaching,—from the Sermon on the Mount, when he said, “Blessed are the peacemakers,” to the final death upon the cross, when he said, “Father, forgive them ; they know not what they do,”—is, in effect, a distinct protest against divorce.

SELF-DEVELOPMENT AND UNCONGENIAL MARRIAGE.

In answer to the argument based on the obligation of self-development as the righteous warrant for divorce, in cases of uncongenial marriage, Mrs. Trask continues :

Can any man or woman, with strong, awakened soul, who is eager for evolution and development—who holds the spiritual ideal by which even the pagans claimed man could mount to the eternal—dare put a finality upon a situation—dare sever a relationship with one’s nearest neighbor, and run away from the responsibility of helping that neighbor, and of triumphantly changing that situation ? Above all, dare they do this when the situation, however bad it be, has been brought about by the mistake of that man and woman, acting either in haste, passion, ignorance, or desire for benefits which have been proved too scanty for the price ?

Is it not too tremendous a responsibility to take, that of seeking a divorce, when one thereby also divorces the soul from its supreme opportunity—the opportunity to bring light out of darkness ?

No one can deny that self-development is man’s highest obligation.

It is the law of God for man ; but how is self-development best obtained ? Is it not best obtained through discipline and endeavor ? In the name of all philosophy, practical and spiritual, what self-development is comparable to that gained in the work of changing conditions, making order out of chaos, harmony out of discord, light out of darkness ?

MARK TWAIN ON COPYRIGHT.

QUESTION. How many new American books are copyrighted *annually* in the United States?

Answer. Five or six thousand.

Q. How many have been copyrighted in the last twenty-five years?

A. More than one hundred thousand.

Q. How many altogether in the past one hundred and four years?

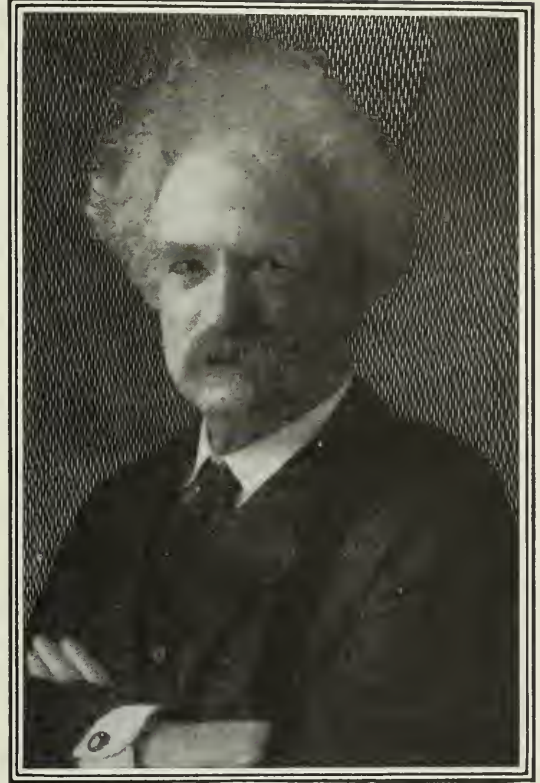
A. Doubtless two hundred and fifty thousand.

Q. How many of them have survived or will survive the forty-two-year limit?

A. An average of five per year. Make it ten, to be safe and certain.

In this unconventional way, Mark Twain opens a discussion of the American copyright laws in the form of an open letter to the register of copyrights, in the *North American Review* for January. The object of these questions and answers is to show that the forty-two-year limit of our present copyright law accomplishes no useful purpose, but, on the contrary, as Mark Twain succinctly puts it, "takes the bread out of the mouths of ten authors every year." If the copyright system be compared with our system for dealing with patents and inventions, it will be seen that the seventeen-year limit on patents is of much greater importance and value to the Government than the forty-two-year limit on copyrights. Out of the one hundred thousand new inventions a year, it may be fairly claimed that at least one thousand are worth seizing at the end of the seventeen-year limit. The really great and valuable inventions, however, like the telegraph and the telephone, the air-brake and the Pullman car, are quite beyond seizure. This, of course, is because of the enormous capital required to carry them on, which becomes their real protection from competition after the patents have perished. The revenue still goes on, and the proprietors of the patents continue to reap their profits. Not so in the case of the author of a meritorious book. At the end of the forty-two years, the Government takes all of the book's profits away from the estate of the author and gives them practically to the publishers. As Mark Twain shows, at the end of the forty-two-year term they can go on publishing and take all of the profits, both the author's and their own. Mr. Clemens cites the case of Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin," the profits on which continue to-day, while nobody but the publishers gets them. Mrs. Stowe's share ceased seven years before she died; her daughters receive nothing from the book; and Washington Irving's estate fared in the same way.

Mr. Clemens has a remedy to suggest for what



Copyright, 1904, by Gessford, New York.

A LATE PORTRAIT OF MARK TWAIN.

he considers a "strange and dishonorable" condition of things. He assumes that in making a forty-two-year limit it was the Government's intention that all authors should enjoy the profit of their labors for a fair and reasonable time, and that then, after the extinguishment of the copyright, cheap editions should be secured for the public. It is hardly necessary to say that this intention has been repeatedly defeated, for in some instances the publishers have not lowered the price, and in other cases publishers have issued so many editions of the unprotected book that they have clogged the market and really killed the book. Mr. Clemens suggests, therefore, that during the forty-two years of the copyright limitation the owner of the copyright shall be obliged to issue an edition of the book at the rate of twenty-five cents for each one hundred thousand words or less of its contents, and that the owner of the copyright shall be required to keep such an edition on sale thereafter, year after year, indefinitely. If in any year he shall fail to keep such an edition on sale during a space of

three months, the copyright shall perish. Such provision would meet the Government's sole purpose to secure a cheap edition for the public.

As to the question of how the proposed rate would apply in the case of well-known books of the present day, Mr. Clemens cites his own books as illustrations. "Huckleberry Finn," for instance, contains 70,000 words; its present price is \$1.50. An edition of it would have to be kept permanently on sale at 25 cents. The same would be true in regard to "Tom Sawyer." Several of Mr. Clemens' two-volume books contain a trifle more than 100,000 words per volume, and the present price is \$1.75 per volume.

The cheap-edition price would be 75 cents per volume. All his works together, being twenty-three volumes, are now selling for \$36.50. They might be comprised in ten volumes of something more than 200,000 words each. Mr. Clemens estimates that the printer and binder would get their usual percentage of profit, the middleman would get his usual commission on sales, while the profit to the author and publisher would be very small. Still, it would be to the advantage of the holder of the copyright to print his cheap editions first, because the books would remain in the hands of the author's estate, and, second, because the cheap edition would advertise the higher-priced editions.

THE NEGLECTED AUTHOR OF "DIXIE."

A REMARKABLY checkered career, with little or nothing to show for a life of genius, with an obscure death to crown it,—such was the life of Daniel Decatur Emmett, always known as Dan Emmett, author of the famous song, "Dixie." In an article in the *Lamp*, under the title "Does It Pay to Be Famous?" Mr. William D. Hall sketches the life of Dan Emmett, and tells how one of the most famous songs in American history was written. In Emmett's own words:

The original title of my "Dixie" song was "I Wish I Was in Dixie's Land." It was written, or, rather, finished, when I was a member of Dan Bryant's minstrels, then located at Mechanics' Hall, 470 Broadway, New York City. I went with Bryant in '59, and "Dixie"

was written a year later, but not on a rainy Sunday, as is generally supposed and certain Boswells have seen fit to put it. The idea for "Dixie" was conceived long before my joining Bryant. "I wish I was in Dixie" was a circus expression that I had heard up North while traveling with canvas shows. In those days, all below the Mason and Dixon line was considered South, and it was a common occurrence, of a cold day, when traveling through the North, to hear a shivering circus man remark, "I wish I was in Dixie's land." "Dixie" never impressed me as being as good a song as "Old Dan Tucker," which was one of my first compositions, but "Dixie" caught on from the first, and before I knew it, it had taken the country by storm. We kept "Dixie" on for six seasons. I always look upon the song as an accident. One Saturday night, Dan Bryant requested me to write a walk-around for the following week. The time allotted me was unreasonably short, but, not-

Dixie's Land.

Composed by Daniel D. Emmett in N. York. 1859.

Song

Allegro.

I wish I was in de land ob cotton, Ole times dar am

Chorus

not for-got-ten, look-a-way! Look-a-way! Look-a-way! Dix-ie

withstanding, I went to my hotel and tried to think out something suitable, but my thinking apparatus was dormant; then, rather than disappoint Bryant, I searched through my trunk and resurrected the manuscript of "I Wish I Was in Dixie's Land," which I had written years before. I changed the tempo and rewrote some of the verses, and in all likelihood, if Dan Bryant had not made that hurry-up request "Dixie" never would have been brought out.

The song never brought any income or fame to Mr. Emmett while he lived, and yet, says Mr. Hall, in these few words we have the true history of a song that is as sacred to a Southerner as the Holy Bible. "It is the history of a composition that holds the same footing in the musical firmament that 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' does in that of literature."

HAS THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP REALLY BEEN RELAXED?

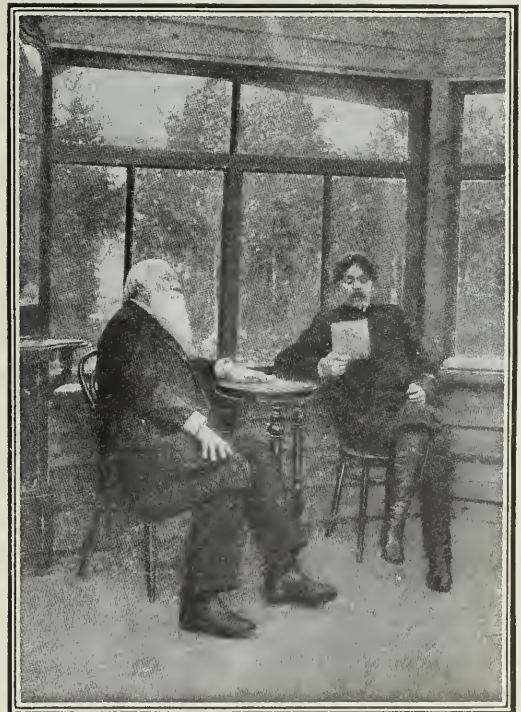
THE undefined and uncertain position of the Russian press is made the subject of two editorials in recent numbers of the *Russkiya Vyedomosti* (Moscow). The writer notes the subtle change that has taken place within the past few weeks in the subject-matter as well as in the tone of the newspaper articles. More remarkable still is the comparative freedom with which certain national problems are now discussed, problems that the periodical press dared not even allude to in the very recent past. There is no doubt that with the assumption of authority by the new minister of the interior the condition of the Russian press was changed for the better. This will not be denied. Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski has loosened the vise that had kept Russian periodicals under pressure for so many years.

This is unquestionably an important service rendered by the present minister of the interior; nevertheless, the legal status of the press has undergone no change. As formerly, everything is governed by the personal attitude of the officials, with this difference, that formerly this attitude was hostile, while now it is friendly. Yet what assurance have we that the latter may not again be changed to the former? Our press legislation has endowed the administration with great arbitrary power. Our press is tolerated only so far as it is convenient for the persons who at any given time happen to be at the head of affairs. Even the best-intentioned minister of the interior cannot secure for the Russian press a stable position under the existing laws. He is unable to do this, not alone because of his ignorance of his successor and of his successor's views on the subject, but also because the administrative punitive mechanism created by press-censorship regulations is not confined to the jurisdiction of the ministry of the interior. While the latter alone is charged with the execution of the law, any other ministry or department may decide that the publication of certain articles would be inconvenient. Moreover, any minister may propose the suspension of a periodical which in his opinion may prove detrimental to the interests of the administration. Since such suspension is usually discussed at the council of ministers, instances may occur where the suspension is decided upon contrary to the wishes of the minister of the interior. While the latter has the power to suppress any periodical, or even to suppress completely

the publication of all periodicals, he has not the power to resist the pressure brought to bear by the other ministries.

The writer concludes, therefore, that it is not possible to establish for the Russian press a position of permanence and authority as based merely on the good-will of one or another of the ministers. Security from the changing tendencies may be secured only by guaranties founded on basic law.

In another editorial, the writer refers to the necessity of replacing administrative punishment by the responsibility of the press before



MAXIM GORKY READING THE MANUSCRIPT OF HIS LATEST WORK (WHICH HAS BEEN BANNED BY THE CENSOR) TO THE RUSSIAN ART CRITIC, W. STASOFF.

the courts alone. This has been pointed out repeatedly by various periodicals, among them the *Russkiya Vydmosti*. "A new occasion for the emphasis of this thought is offered by two recent incidents, wherein two periodical publications were meted out administrative punishment. Even

here there is no clear statement as to what really constitutes a dangerous tendency, what thoughts and opinions are considered deserving of punishment or warning." The *Vydmosti* has been one of the strongest advocates of more liberal press laws.

KATHERINE BERESHKOVSKA,—A RUSSIAN REVOLUTIONIST.

AN embodiment of the entire Russian revolutionary movement, in one heroic figure, is offered by the life and work of Katherine Bereshkovska, who recently arrived in this country to lecture on the present internal condition of Russia and the socialistic revolutionary movement there. In an interview and character sketch by Mr. Ernest Poole which appears in the *Outlook*, her personality is summed up thus :

Daughter of a nobleman and earnest philanthropist ; then revolutionist, hard-labor convict, and exile for twenty-three years in Siberia ; and now an heroic old

Russia shall be free. See"—she showed me bulletins that had followed her to New York. "Day and night they work. In place of sleep, a dream of freedom ; in place of warmth and food and drink, the same dream. This dream is old in American breasts."

Few women have suffered and experienced the horrors, the anguish, and the hardships which have been crowded into this one life. Her study of the Russian peasant, gained in a life of devotion, which included years of exile in Siberia, shows him to be a most abject creature. After liberation from serfdom, he was bewildered, and, unable to meet the new conditions, almost begged to be put back into dependency upon a master. Madame Bereshkovska never spared herself in her campaign of education and organization. She dressed as a peasant, and did her organizing by night. She assisted in the birth of the Russian People's party. She gives this picture of a meeting in a peasant's hut :

"A low room, with mud floor and walls. Rafters just over your head, and still higher, thatch. The room was packed with men, women, and children. Two big fellows sat up on the high brick stove, with their dangling feet knocking occasional applause. These people had been gathered by my host—a brave peasant whom I picked out—and he in turn had chosen only those whom Siberia could not terrify. When I recalled their floggings ; when I pointed to those who were crippled for life ; to women whose husbands died under the lash,—then men would cry out so fiercely that the three or four cattle in the next room would bellow and have to be quieted. Then I told them they themselves were to blame. They had only the most wretched strips of land. To be free and live, the people must own the land ! From my cloak I would bring a book of fables written to teach our principles and stir the love of freedom. And then far into the night the firelight showed a circle of great broad faces and dilated eyes, staring with all the reverence every peasant has for that mysterious thing—a book."

HOW THE REVOLUTIONISTS WORK.

The programme and prospects of the Socialist-Revolutionist party, of which she is a member, she gives in these sentences :

"To the peasant we teach the old lesson. To reach freedom—first, the land must be owned by the people ; second, the System of the Czar must be swept away. There is not a province in Russia where our literature does not go. The underground mails run smoothly



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MADAME KATHERINE BERESHKOVSKA AS SHE IS TO-DAY.

woman of sixty-one, she has plunged again into the dangerous struggle for freedom. The Russian revolutionary movement is embodied in this one heroic figure

"Babushka"—little grandmother—as she is known among her fellow-workers, believes that in a few months Russia's oppressed subjects will rise by millions. The time has almost come, she told Mr. Poole.

"We shall sweep away the System of the Czar, and

now. Scores of presses work ceaselessly in Switzerland, safe from capture. Not to take useless risks, our central committee is scattered all through Russia; it rarely meets, but it constantly plans through cipher letters and directs the local committees, which in turn guide the small local committees, and so down to the little peasant and laborer groups that meet to-night by thousands in huts and city tenements. . . . Few believe in assassination. Revolution by the whole people is our one object, and for this the time is near. The Japanese war has caused the deepest bitterness ever felt in Russia; to the six hundred and sixty-four thousand lives lost in a century of useless wars, now over a hundred thousand will be added, and every hamlet will mourn its dead. Then will our four hundred thousand workers call on the millions around them to rise for freedom. Arms? There are plenty. Why in recent riots have soldiers refused to fire on the crowd? Because all through the army are soldiers, and even officers, working secretly for the cause. Arms—yes, and brains—for in the universities and in every profession are wise, resolute men to guide the wild passions of revolt. In the zemstvos are hundreds of officials straining to hasten our struggle. So in this last year the movement has suddenly swelled. Already four hundred thousand strong! Day and night they work. In place of sleep and food and drink—the dream of freedom. Freedom to think and speak! Freedom to work! Justice to all!”

The Dawn of a Brighter Day.

In an article which she contributes to the *Independent*, Madame Bereshkovska speaks of the hopeful signs of the future in Russia, and says:

Our great hopes are coming true. Twenty years passed and Russia is unrecognizable. Her entire complexion is changed. The blood shed by her best children, drop by drop, entered the veins of the Russian people, inciting them to a struggle for their rights. In Siberia, one can see the nucleus of educated men and women surrounded by hundreds, thousands, of people, laborers and peasants, of all nationalities within the boundaries of the empire. . . . In spite of the Autocrat's rule, the Russians have the opportunity, thanks to the proximity of European nations, to study, to observe, to compare their conditions with those of Europe. High was the price paid by Russia for her awakening and development. Now we Russians proudly and rejoicingly take the hand of the cultured and free, and solemnly guarantee our ability to fill an honorable place among civilized nations. The hour has struck. The thick cloud of gloom dispersed and Russia beheld the light. Through the whizz of bullets slaying our brothers in the far East, through the haze of the Orthodox incense burned before the Orthodox ikons, the people hear the call to progress and note the stages to be passed on the way to honor and freedom.

WHOLESALE DESERTIONS FROM THE RUSSIAN ARMY.

THE issuance of the mobilization order in the kingdom of Poland,—or, rather, in the Warsaw military district,—has occasioned an extraordinary influx of deserters to Austrian Poland, especially to Cracow. There has, indeed, been an influx of deserters to Austrian Poland since the beginning of the war, and this influx increased considerably about four months ago, when the mobilization order was issued in the Odessa district. In the course of a short while following the issuance of that order, there came to Galicia and Bukovina about four thousand deserters. Now the desertion has assumed enormous proportions. To Cracow there come daily a hundred or more deserters. According to the Cracow police, there have been days when there traveled by the railroad through that city from six hundred to one thousand deserters. A considerable number of these fugitives are going to America. The reservists are fleeing, not only from the kingdom of Poland, but also from Volhynia, Podolia, Ukraina, New Russia (the Odessa district), and even from the governments of central Russia. Most of the fugitives are Jews; but from the kingdom of Poland there have fled many Polish reservists, a considerable percentage of whom belong to the intelligent classes. Besides these, there are fleeing Ruthenians, and even native Muscovites.

More and more frequently there appear deserters from the troops stationed near the frontier, at the rumor, generally unfounded, that the divisions to which they belong are to be sent to Manchuria.

The reservists from the kingdom of Poland flee, not only to Austrian Poland, but also to Prussian Poland. The Prussian authorities, however, seize and deliver to Russia deserters, especially those who do not have tickets for passage on the German steamers to America, or at least the sum of money needed for such passage. A recent dispatch from Thorn to a Vienna journal stated that at Gollub, in West Prussia, there were two thousand deserters from the governments of Plock and Warsaw. This figure, in conjunction with those presented above, gives a notion of the dimensions of the movement. The *London Times'* Russian correspondents informed that journal, in the early part of November, that competent opinion puts the number of reservists that have escaped so far at not less than twenty thousand. Deserters generally steal across the frontier with the aid of smugglers, or they cross the frontier at certain points where the Russian officials treat the passing of deserters, at a fee decided on in advance, as a profitable business. The Russian Government is taking extraordinary measures against this desertion.

In some places, as at Sosnowise and at Dombrowka, it has provided the frontier guards with dogs specially trained for the tracking of fugitives. According to reports, up to the present about a score of men crossing the frontier have been killed, while several hundred have been captured. This multitudinous desertion is a very significant and politically important phenomenon, observes a writer in the Cracow *Przeгляд Wszepolski* (Pan-Polish Review).

In no state in analogical circumstances has there been heretofore the case of a considerable part of the population evading military service, fleeing abroad, and abandoning families, occupations, positions,—frequently very good ones,—renouncing the right to return to their country. It is true that the desertion prevails chiefly in the borderlands of the Russian Empire. But those borderlands,—the kingdoms of Poland, Lithuania, Volhynia, Podolia, Ukrania, the Baltic governments, Finland, Bessarabia, New Russia,—constitute almost one-half of European Russia in point of population. Naturally, the desertion must prevail chiefly in the border provinces, since from the interior governments a multitudinous flight of reservists abroad is clearly impossible. There, however, the reservists protest, or even revolt or become tramps. A considerable number of native Muscovites flee from the regiments stationed on the frontier, however. And the desertions of officers, occurring quite frequently, are not single cases, but rather characteristic symptoms of the governmental and moral disorganization of Russia. Admitting, however, that it is only in the borderlands that the population is evading military service in the bulk, this fact indicates that the borderlands,—and these are principally the Polish districts,—have no solidarity with the Russian state in its tendencies and interests; that they are, in fact, hostilely disposed toward Russia. This hostile disposition must be very forcible, since it drives men to risk their whole future, to sacrifice their personal interests. And it must also not be forgotten that, omitting the Jews, this desertion prevails chiefly among the Polish population (in some degree, among the Ruthenian and Lithuanian populations), furnishing

hitherto to the state the best soldiers, of a character rather inclined to display their valor than to avoid the hardships and perils of military service. It is certainly impossible that in such a short period of time there could have altered so radically the character of the nation which, in the conviction of Russian, Austrian, and Prussian specialists, gives to-day excellent military material. Indeed, even in the war which is at present being waged in Manchuria, the Poles have proved the best soldiers in the Russian army. Even those who fled to the Japanese from the Russian army in Manchuria became indignant at the supposition that fear could have driven them to that step, for, as it turned out, they fled to the Japanese just in the hope that under the Japanese colors they would have a chance to fight the Muscovites.

If the general desertion in Russia is a symptom of governmental disorganization and weak national feeling, says the Polish writer, in conclusion, "the multitudinous desertion of the Polish reservists proves, on the contrary, the increase of the national feeling among our peasants and such an augmentation of political intelligence that its dictates find obedience even when they stand in opposition to the national instincts, inbred or acquired by warlike tradition.

For a true Pole by blood, by instincts, by historical tradition, in whose individuality there are impressed strongly all the characteristic features of the national character and temperament,—all the characteristic features, favorable and unfavorable as well,—must be converted inwardly, must alter his nature, in order to become a deserter, and it is more difficult for him to decide on this inward alteration than on the change—frequently very radical—of the external conditions of his existence as a result of his desertion,—the forfeiture of position, the breaking off of family ties, etc. The political motives,—intellectual and sentimental as well,—which cause this inward conversion must, therefore, be immensely forcible. He must understand,—not only understand, but also believe and feel,—that in the present situation it is a crime for a Pole to fight for Russia and aid her to victory.

ORIENTAL IDEALS AS AFFECTED BY THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

WHETHER Japan be victorious or defeated in her great struggle with her mighty foe, the moral victory of the Japanese people "seems already to be absolutely complete, and it is impossible to overestimate the value of it." This is the verdict of *New India*, the "twice-a-week journal of civilization," published in Calcutta. By proving her moral superiority to "all the color-proud civilizations of the Western world, Japan has already rendered a service to modern humanity the full value and significance of which history and human evolution in the

centuries alone can reveal." This Indian journal believes that the contact of Europe with Asia up to the present has always had a demoralizing effect on both continents.

The vulture-sweep with which Europe did suddenly come down and pounce upon Asia has had a most demoralizing effect on her. But if Europe has demoralized Asia by her very physical powers and skill, Asia, too, has no less demoralized Europe by even her very feebleness and incapacity. In God's world, every wrong inevitably rebounds on its own agent, and brings its own retribution with itself. The physical and moral emasculation that has resulted from the impact of

Europe on Asia is shared equally by both the parties, and a demonstration of the innate moral excellences of the Asiatic character and Asiatic civilization was absolutely needed to save the present situation. Japan's moral victory over Russia will have, therefore, an elevating influence over the entire modern world.

Europe has always admitted the high physical and spiritual ideals of Asiatic civilizations, but has always asked, "How is it that, claiming such superior moral and spiritual ideals, you Asiatics are so low in the councils of nations?"

The political weakness and servitude of the Asiatic peoples whenever they have come in contact with European nations, their patent inability to withstand the onslaughts of modern civilizations, have hitherto been regarded, all over Europe and America, as an unerring proof of their inherent moral inferiority. For Europe has not as yet lost her conceit that her physical powers and capabilities are due to her moral superiority, and as long as Asia does not prove her equality to Europe in mere physical strength and military prowess there is absolutely no chance of her higher ethical, artistic, or spiritual ideals ever adequately influencing the character and culture of the European peoples.

The present war has been of immense value, declares the editor of *New India*, to the cause of modern humanity, because of the proof it has given of the physical and military capabilities of at least one Asiatic people. These capabilities, the writer believes, are latent in other Asiatic peoples, notably those of British India. The real secret of Japanese success, however, this editor claims (and quotes from European journals in support of his contention), lies not so much in their superior physical as in their superior moral qualities. "Japan has proved the reality of her own physical and spiritual ideals." The old attitude of Europe toward the ideals of the East is therefore changing, and as a result of the present war, concludes *New India*, "modern humanity will be bound to enter upon a new phase of culture and evolution which is evidently so pregnant with almost infinite possibilities for good."

A Defensive Oriental Alliance.

Buddhism, the quarterly review published in Rangoon, Burma, in commenting on the far-Eastern war, remarks that a defensive Oriental alliance is one of the probabilities of the future. This would really be a desirable consummation, asserts the review in question, which says:

The victory of Japan might well result in a great advantage to the peace and prosperity and true religiousness of the world. A long course of unjustifiable aggressions has brought China to a state of fatalistic acquiescence in its own helplessness, a view which will, without doubt, terminate when the knowledge of Japanese success spreads through the vast empire of China. It would, we think, be no great wonder if a few years after the conclusion of this war saw the completion of a defensive alliance between Japan, China,

and not impossibly Siam,—the formulation of a new Monroe Doctrine for the far East, guaranteeing the integrity of existing states against further aggression from the West. When we consider how much, once Occidental methods were forced by stress of circumstances upon them, Japan's forty millions have been able to accomplish in so short a time, there can be but little doubt that once the reform party get the upper hand in China the four hundred millions of that enormous empire will be able to accomplish no less. And such a new dual or triple alliance of the Buddhist powers of the East as we have suggested would be one of the surest and speediest methods of bringing about universal peace. Not only would many possible causes of war between Western nations (in quarrels over their respective "spheres of influence," etc.) be abolished, but the mere formation of an alliance of such tremendous power as this would ere long become of itself a menace so great in the eyes of Western politicians that these would at last be compelled to carry out that obvious remedy for international strife, partial disarmament and arbitration, which reason seems powerless to induce them to effect. For the Western nations,—at least the Continental powers,—have already a greater burden in their colossal armaments and compulsory military service than they can well support.

As to the "Yellow Peril," *Buddhism* declares the idea "arrant nonsense." Besides, it is unphilosophical.

The West has justified,—perhaps with some reason,—every aggression on weaker races by the doctrine of the Survival of the Fittest; on the ground that it is best for future humanity that the unfit should be eliminated and give place to the most able race. That doctrine applies equally well to any possible struggle between Aryan and Mongolian,—whichever survives, should it ever come to a struggle between the two for world-mastery, will, on our own doctrine, be the one most fit to do so, and if the survivor be the Mongolian, then is the Mongolian no "peril" to humanity, but the better part of it. Truly, the world is wide enough for both these two great branches of the human family, and whatsoever is great and noble in these two races will survive in their respective spheres long after war and all its foolishness and weakness has ended in the Universal Brotherhood of Man.

Suicide and the New Japan.

A number of the Japanese reviews are publishing articles calling attention to the fact that the old ideal of suicide in the event of unsuccessful military operations must be replaced by a new ideal which places a higher value on life, when it could be honorably supported, than on death for a mere punctilio. Two of the reviews, the *Kirisutokyo Sekai* and the *Nichiyo Soshi*, express indignation and alarm over the recklessness with which the Japanese run to death and take their own lives. This, says a writer in the first-named magazine, is really a mental aberration,—we mean the idea which makes a Japanese commit suicide rather than fall into the hands of the Russians. Such a death is almost

a crime against the fatherland, which has the need for men to live and to succeed. It is good and honorable, says the *Nichiyo Soshi*, to fight even until death, but it is criminal to take away one's life and thus deprive the state of services which are its due. The courage to live under

certain circumstances is greatly superior to that which is required in committing suicide. The ancient samurai conception, concludes this Japanese magazine, was a false one. It will not do to hold to it in these days. It has already cost Japan too many valuable lives.

THE CLEVER, UNFORTUNATE EMPEROR OF KOREA.

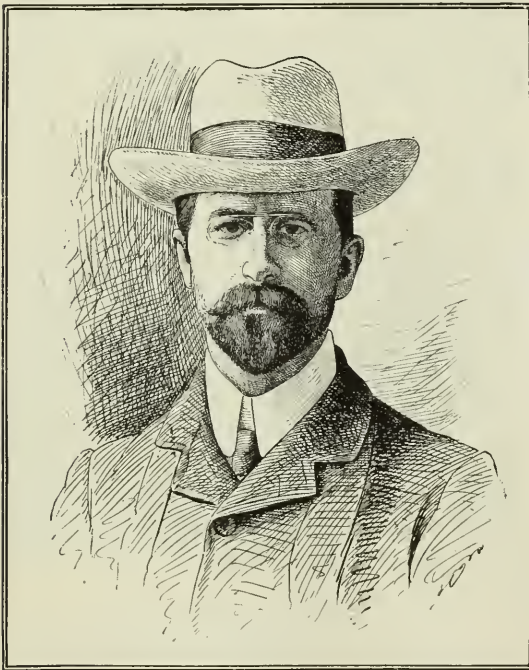
A VIVID pen picture of the present ruler of the Hermit Empire has been published by an anonymous writer in the latest issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio). The author refers to the Korean sovereign as "our Emperor," and to the Korean Empire as "my country," but it is hard-

that elicits the sympathy of those who come in contact with him. He has graceful manners, fluency of speech, a dignified yet obliging air, all of which, coupled with his deliberative but charming appearance, constitute a character that impresses one as that of an approachable private individual rather than as that of the ruler of an empire. He does not indorse the blind anti-foreign spirit, but is willing to receive foreigners at his court, many of whom have no official rank or degree of honor.

A CREATION OF ANOMALOUS POLITICAL CONDITIONS.

In spite of such apparently admirable qualities, the writer believes the Emperor to be a creation of unfortunate circumstances. He acts so inconsistently that at one time he shows an extraordinary power of judgment and foresight, while at another he seems as though utterly devoid of wisdom and intelligence. He is essentially secretive, and schemes and contrives in the dark. Like a detective, he conceals his suspicious nature under a mask of polite manners and amiable appearance. He is ever trying to entangle in his toils not only foreign representatives at Seoul, but his own ministers as well. According to this writer, the reason for such unhappy moods and conducts of the Emperor can be sought for in the fact that his interest is thoroughly absorbed in the effort to maintain the safety and welfare of the present dynasty.

To him, every means is justifiable that would accrue to the strength and stability of his court. In his opinion, the safety of his royal throne should have precedence even over the welfare of his subjects and the very independence of his country. When Japan declared war against China for the avowed purpose of preserving the independence of the Hermit Empire, the Emperor was an indifferent onlooker, because in his eyes the safety of his royal family was more precious than his country itself. To him, the formal independence of his country is valueless unless it guarantee the stability of the reigning dynasty. He would not mind the interference of the powers, provided such an interference would tend to strengthen his royal family against the aggressive cliques and nepotists into which his court has been divided, causing unceasing disturbances and strife within the walls of the royal palace. Some of these factions stand by Japan, some favor Russian influence, while some cherish the old idea of a Chinese-Korean union, each with the view to utilizing the assistance of outside powers in its efforts to enthronate a puppet prince under its influence. Why should the Em-



DR. HOMER B. HULBERT, PRINCIPAL OF THE ROYAL NORMAL COLLEGE, AT SEOUL, EDITOR OF THE "KOREA REVIEW," ADVISER TO THE EMPEROR OF KOREA.

ly believed that he is a subject of the peninsular empire. He opens his description by declaring the Emperor to be the cleverest of all the rulers belonging to the present dynasty of Korea, and the most sagacious in the entire court of Seoul. "Our Emperor is the actual leader in political activities in the Korean capital. He personally supervises and attends to internal and foreign affairs, great or small, without asking the opinion of his ministers."

The Emperor possesses a certain magnetic power

peror rejoice over the declaration of independence of his country when his throne is not made a straw safer by it? Such anomalous political conditions all conspired to pervert the character of the Emperor, who has been made the most secretive, and even deceitful, of rulers.

HOW JAPAN SHOULD DEAL WITH THE EMPEROR.

Four hundred and sixty years have elapsed since the inauguration of the present Korean dynasty. During this period, only two or three of the sovereigns assumed the real reins of state, the rest being mere figureheads behind the powerful cliques of nobility; consequently, the royal family has been always on the verge of poverty.

Prior to his ascension to the throne, the present Emperor had been leading a miserably lowly life among the lower classes of people. His father, though a royal personage, had been obliged to support his family by dealing in curios. Thus, the Emperor had thoroughly experienced the woe and weal of the common life.

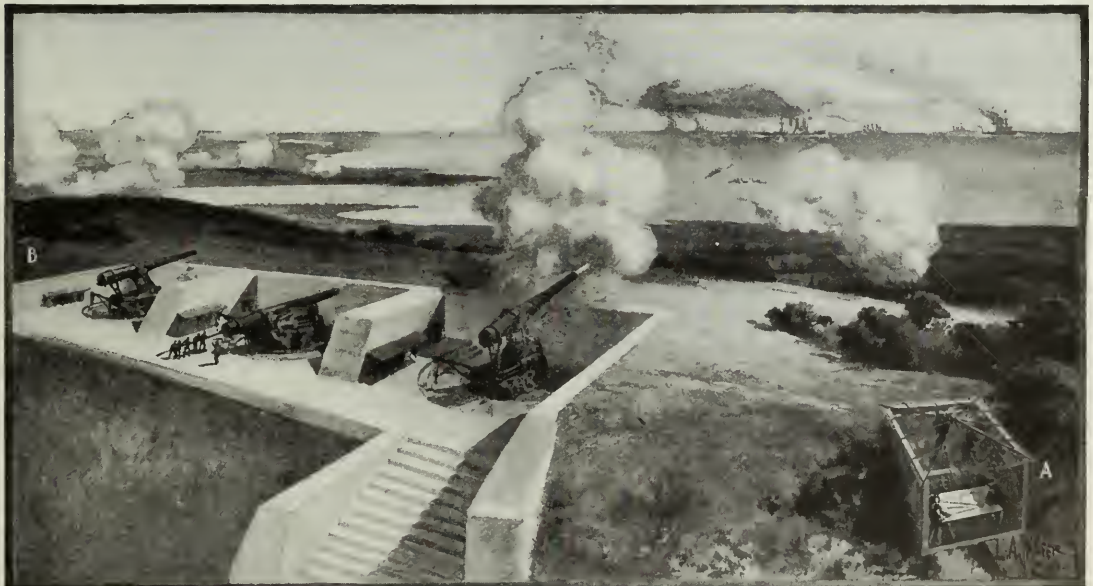
That he was not by nature an ambitious intriguer is evidenced by the fact that he entreated his supporters, with tears and supplications, to let him remain a private person when one of the court factions slated him for the throne. Having entered the court, however, his natural sincerity has been overshadowed by the merciless intrigues of court officials and ladies.

To win the confidence and fidelity of the Emperor, Japan must demonstrate enough strength and power to convince him. As the means of accomplishing this, the writer recommends these four measures: (1) abolition of the privileges of nobility, which will lead to the termination of cliques and nepotism; (2) Korean representatives at foreign governments should be recalled; (3) the Korean army and navy should be replaced by the Japanese army and navy; (4) Japan should assume the police power throughout Korea.

ELECTRICITY IN SEACOAST DEFENSE.

SINCE the defensive powers of modern seacoast fortifications have been made possible almost exclusively by the application of electricity, the present and future position of the military electrical engineer may be said to be as important as that of his brother engineer in industrial life. With this as his text, Mr. M. C. Sullivan contributes an article under the above title to the *Electrical Age*.

The present permanent seacoast defenses of the chief ports of the United States, Mr. Sullivan tells us, on both oceans, as now equipped for repelling naval attack, are "unrivaled by any in the world in design, construction, and equipment." Mr. Sullivan quotes figures of the expense connected with the equipment and maintenance of this defense, and says, by way of comment, "Do away with electricity and you



From the *New York Herald*.

FIRE CONTROL OF A MODERN FORTRESS.



From the *New York Herald*.

A TELEPHONE "CENTRAL" IN A MODERN FORTRESS.

make impossible the effective handling of the great guns and the ammunition that supplies them." It was not until 1898, however, he reminds us, that the military electrician, as such, was recognized in the United States army.

At the outbreak of the Spanish War, the United States Congress enacted a law requiring that two-thirds of the Volunteer Signal Corps membership should consist of electricians or telegraph operators. In 1890, an enactment by Congress, applying to the regular army, establishing the rank of electrician-sergeant, became a law. Subsequently, in the same year, the War Department established at Fortress Monroe, Va., a school for training electricians for service in our sea-coast defenses. Graduates of this school, on being assigned to regular duty, have the rank of electrician-sergeant. This school, greatly enlarged, has since been transferred to Fort Totten, on the north shore of Long Island, N. Y. In 1903, further enactment by Congress relating to the regular army augmented the force of electrician-sergeants, and also provided for the establishment of a body of twenty-five electrical experts to be known as master electricians.

The disposition of the new force in the regular army, he tells us, is like this :

One or more electrician-sergeants, as the case may require, are assigned to each fort, and a master electrician is detailed to each artillery district, which in most cases includes several forts. Following the initiative of the national government, the State of New York, in 1904, by an act of the Assembly, created the

rank of electrician-sergeant in the National Guard, and provided that four such experts shall be attached to each regiment of heavy artillery in the State. Thus, it will be seen that the national and State governments have accorded the electrician a permanent place in the national defensive forces. There are schools at Fort Myers, near Washington, D. C., and at Fort Wood, New York Harbor, which are officially designated by the War Department as signal schools. But these in reality are electrical schools, the instruction given at them being almost wholly electrical.

The great guns of a fortification, says Mr. Sullivan, are to-day manipulated by electricity. They are raised, lowered, moved to the right or left, supplied with ammunition, sighted and fired, all by means of this agent. Each large gun is controlled by means of two levers. One of these controls the motor which raises or depresses the gun, and the other controls the motor which directs the gun's horizontal movements. The ammunition hoists for bringing up charges of powder and shell also are operated easily and quickly by means of electric motors. To the artillerist, the determination of wind-velocity is of supreme importance. With the aid of the electric anemometer he is enabled to know to a nicety what the velocity of the wind is. Following a rather technical description of the actual operation of the effective power of electricity in illuminating fortifications and in furnishing the power for the working of the great guns, Mr. Sullivan concludes :

A sea-coast fortification to-day is, then, dominated in almost every particular by electricity. From this it is readily seen that in order to operate a fort skilled electricians are a necessary part of the force. Indeed, the personnel should be superior to that engaged in similar work in civil life, for, while the work is practically the same, the conditions under which it is carried out in the army are, of necessity, more exacting and difficult. Unfortunately for the efficiency of the service, the electrical corps of the United States army is entirely too small for the amount of work it is called upon to do. Earnest efforts, however, are being made to correct this condition.

It seems to the ordinary mind that the ever-increasing deadliness and scientific precision of war, which is rapidly diminishing the value of the personal equation, must make for universal peace, for the war spirit of all time has been fostered by the hope of glory to be won through individual achievement and not through a superior knowledge of electrical science and the best methods of applying it. A certain imaginative writer has in a thrilling romance prophesied that the day was not far distant when the result of a war would hinge altogether upon the pressing of an electric button. Wild as this statement may appear, it is not as far removed from the present state of facts as existing conditions are from those of considerably less than a generation ago. Indeed, it is not at all beyond the realms of probability that war may before long be placed on a strictly and literal push-button basis.

UP VESUVIUS BY TROLLEY.

RECENT visitors to Mount Vesuvius speak with enthusiasm of the ease with which the trip to the summit is now taken by the aid of electric power. A writer in the *Technical World*, of Chicago, Mr. Frank C. Perkins, describes the experience of the traveler in riding from Naples to the crater of the volcano by trolley and cable road.

Several forms of traction are employed in making this journey. As far as Pugliano, the ordinary electric cars or trams used generally in Italian cities are used; from this point to the top of Vesuvius, one portion of the track is

and the electric cars carry the traveler by their own power past the Royal Observatory to the foot of the cone, where the funicular railway station is located. The scene has changed, as the mount is ascended, from beautiful gardens to a barren desert; and in the few minutes required for passing up the cable road to within a few hundred feet of the crater—which is finally reached by foot—dark-brown lava is noted on every side, frequently colored pink and green by the rays of the sun. The great cone of ashes is seen above the mountain of lava, over which rises a black column of smoke. The fields of petrified lava spread out in most curious and fantastic formations.

The highest section of the Mount Vesuvius



ELECTRIC CAR AND STATION ON ADHESION SECTION OF MOUNT VESUVIUS RAILWAY.

of rack-and-pinion construction, another is of ordinary adhesion traction, while the last section, which passes up the steep side of lava deposit to a point 3,875.5 feet above sea level, is a cable road.

The Vesuvius electric railway begins at the northern quarter of Resina, at Pugliano, and passes through a most interesting cultivated section, with vineyards, orchards, and gardens on every side, to the Royal Observatory, which is 595.75 meters (1,954.5 feet) above sea level. On the last portion of this section, where the train ascends the slope of Monte Cateroni, an electric locomotive is required for pushing the electric cars up the rack railway from the generating station at the foot of Monte Cateroni. This portion of the trip is most thrilling and interesting, as deep ravines, with intervening stretches of chestnut and acacia woods, are seen, while excellent views may be had of the Bay of Naples.

After reaching the "Hermitage," the electric locomotive is removed, as this is the end of the cog section,

railway is a cable road which was constructed many years ago. It was purchased in 1888 by the Cook tourist agency, and that corporation has lately completed the connecting electric road, nearly five miles in length, at a total cost of about \$250,000. Unusual provisions have been made for the safety of passengers. It is possible for the motorman on the front of each car to operate the brakes of the locomotive in the rear and to signal the engineer when necessary. Telephone communication is provided between all stations of the line and the power-house.

The electric locomotive on the rack railway is provided with emergency brakes as well as hand brakes, together with automatic brakes which are so arranged that the current is shut off when the speed of the locomotive exceeds the limit that has been decided upon.

THE ITALIAN ELECTIONS AND DEAR BREAD.

COMMENT on the recent Italian elections occupies all the political departments of the Italian reviews. The composition of the new Chamber, subject to some changes from the revision of returns, is given by the *Italia Moderna* (Rome), as follows: Ministerialists, 343; constitutional opposition, 39; Radicals, 37; Republicans, 21; Socialists, 27; Clerical Conservatives, 2; uncertain, 14. This would make a reduction of the Extreme Left from 105 seats to 85, the Socialists losing 6, the Republicans 5, and the Radicals 9. The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) figures that the Extreme Left has lost 13 seats, distributed as follows: Socialists, 2; Republicans, 2; Radicals, 9. It considers this loss still more significant of defeat for the Left because it has been in cities like Florence, Turin, Genoa, Milan, and Naples, places regarded by the three parties as their special citadels, and also districts that have more to do with shaping political tendencies than the rural constituencies. This review considers that it is especially a Socialist defeat, although the seats lost to that party are so few and the total number of votes cast for Socialist candidates was increased. The fundamental cause of reaction against socialism is stated to be disgust at the general strike due to Socialist tactics, and the violence and rioting arising from it. This reaction is quite largely among the poorer classes, that had been counted on chiefly by the Socialists. Interference with the liberty of commerce and of labor had shown even the workingmen that such tactics meant diminution of wealth and the lessening of work and wages.

The constitutional victory being thus rather fortuitous, the government and the constitutional party have now the work of carrying through a successful campaign, of which only the first battle has been won. The ministry must present a definite programme, and show itself active in carrying it out. "The first duty of the majority is to initiate a serious and effective parliamentary régime in Italy, with a truly representative government." As for the Republicans, the writer considers this group of little use in Italian politics. The impression is general that both rich and poor would be worse off under a republic. The Radicals, he considers, have an important mission, having often been the means of broadening institutions for the benefit of the people, and the suspicion that they are lukewarm friends of the present form of government the writer deems unjustified.

The increase of Socialist votes in the rural districts, even where the condition of the peas-

ants is best, shows the progress made by the propaganda of discontent, and points to the necessity of a vigorous agrarian policy. Finally, all parties are recommended to work together for civic education that will raise the standards of political action and prevent the regrettable disorder at the polls that required the intervention of the military. The partial participation of the Clericals at this election, this review thinks, will mean the organization of the Clericals as a constitutional party separate from the others, a more numerous registration of Clerical voters, and, finally, Clerical candidates. In this it sees no danger.

VARIABLE TARIFF AS A REMEDY FOR DEAR BREAD.

In Italy, the price of bread is intimately connected with social rest or unrest, and every rise is considered and debated as a question of public policy, since it may result in disorder of serious nature. The bakeries of Rome, in November last, raised the price of bread three centesimi a kilogram, or about three mills a pound. Deputy Maggiorino Ferraris discusses the rise in relation to the political situation in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), as he did the same question in 1897 and 1898, when rioting came of it. Signor Ferraris finds that the price of bread varies from city to city in Italy, and, of course, even in the same city, and at the same bakery, according to quality and form of loaf. In Rome, there are two standards of prices,—one fixed by the Bakers' Association, the other by the Employees' Coöperative Society. The first runs from 33 centesimi for fourth quality to 48 centesimi for first quality, and the latter from 27 centesimi for fifth quality and 30 for fourth to 42 for the best, the latter not having, at this writing, raised its prices. The writer, and also Augusto Poggi, have urged the adoption in Italy of the Paris plan of fixing the price of bread.

There, the municipality every fortnight adjusts the price by adding to the price per quintal (220.46 pounds) of B quality flour the fixed number 13.179, which represents the cost of manufacture and sale, and the profit. The sum is divided by 128, the number of kilograms of bread supposed to be obtained from a quintal of flour, and the result is the official price per kilo of bread. Figuring the cost in Rome on this basis would give, at the maximum, 27 centesimi per kilo at current prices of flour, and actually that was the price fixed in Paris for the second half of October. Comparison is not quite fair, the Paris loaf being larger, and, on the other hand, Paris wages being higher. Part of the difference is due to the backward state of the industry and the small bakeries in Rome. . . . Taking the country as a whole, Signor Ferraris thinks there is urgent need to revise the tariff on grain and flour and adopt a

sliding scale according to price, so that the price of bread to the consumer may not fluctuate.

Italy does not produce enough grain for home consumption, but must import from 6,000,000 to 11,000,000 quintals (2,150,000 bushels to 4,000,000 bushels), which pays a duty of 7.50 lire a quintal, while flour pays a duty of 12.30 lire a quintal. Owing to the combination of the flouring mills, the importation of flour has been reduced to about 11,000 quintals (1,212 tons), and the cost of bread depends on the price of flour, and is affected by both duties. The writer does not believe it feasible to abolish this duty, as it would cause too great an agricultural revolution to throw present grain fields into meadows and vineyards, and would complicate city and country labor problems. It would also remove a revenue of sixty million

lire from the treasury that has served to allow the abolition of various onerous duties and taxes.

In such circumstances, the ministry hesitates to reduce the duty, knowing the perturbation of commerce that will ensue, and the uncertain durability of the price of grain makes hesitation more natural. The variable duty would provide for all these difficulties, make the grain trade stable, and in the long run the treasury would lose nothing, as in the years of low prices a reserve would accumulate to compensate for the reduction of duty in times like the present. According to this system, the duty would consist in the difference between the actual market price and a fixed rate of twenty-five lire a quintal. A variable-tariff bill was introduced in the Chamber in 1901, but not passed.

THE TELEPHONE IN JAPAN.

JAPAN was not far behind this part of the world in the introduction of the telephone, but public exchanges were not opened until 1889. Prior to that time, the telephone had

Cassier's for January, it is stated that an executive office was opened in Tokio, and that letters and circulars were sent out to business men, to the nobility, to government officials, to manufacturers, and, in fact, to persons of prominence generally. A switchboard and telephones were installed in the building of the Tokio Chamber of Commerce, and in the exchanges, and people were invited to try the instruments in order to be convinced of their utility. Popular lectures were delivered, also, to give the public an idea of the commercial and social uses of the telephone.

Notwithstanding these unusual efforts, only about seventy contracts for telephones had been obtained in Tokio, and twenty in Yokohama, when the construction of the lines was begun.

The service was started in Tokio and Yokohama in December of 1890, the number of subscribers at that time being about two hundred in Tokio and forty in Yokohama. However, the actual opening of the exchanges and establishment of communication between the subscribers spoke far more eloquently to the public than any letters, newspapers, or lectures, and before long the facilities were far behind the demand. At the present time, 46 telephone exchanges are in operation, with 36,700 sub-stations. The seven largest exchanges, worked with multiple switchboards, are in the towns of Tokio, Osaka, Kioto, Yokohama, Kobé, Nagoya, and Nagasaki, serving over 28,000 subscribers in a population of 3,920,000. The automatic telephone has come into use since 1899. In the towns named, 117 automatic call offices are in use,



AUTOMATIC TELEPHONE CALL-BOX IN A STREET OF TOKIO.

been used in auxiliary police service only. The work of establishing exchanges was finally undertaken as a government monopoly. In a paper by Saitoro Oi, read before the International Electrical Congress at St. Louis and quoted in

THE ROMANCE OF THE FRENCH RACE.

THE leading article in *La Revue* for its two November numbers is by the editor himself, M. Jean Finot. It is entitled "The Romance of the French Race," and is an impassioned study of the origin and development of the French people and the French intellect. Next year, M. Finot is going to publish a book on race prejudice, from the anthropological and psychological point of view, and the present article would seem to be a sort of epitome of the volume.

For more than a century, M. Finot says, the civilized world has been under the influence of an idea which reacts strangely on its destinies,—namely, the race idea, which has become almost a sacred dogma. Every kind of stupidity is committed in the name of race, and philosophers, writers, politicians, sociologists, are all the conscious or unconscious victims of the idea. Yet the word is nothing more than an abstract term. The names Celtic, or Gallic, Germanic, Aryan, are words without sense, and their importance lies only in what we choose to attribute to them.

THE ARYAN MYTH.

Coming to the French nation in particular, M. Finot begins with the Aryan myth. That the French are descended in direct line from the Aryans has become quite an axiom. In consequence, modern sociologists, historians, and politicians have never ceased to contrast the Aryan with other Semitic and Mongol nations, and the Aryan origin has been made the benevolent source of the great mental superiority and the virtues of Europeans compared with other peoples and civilizations. But when we look more closely at the Aryan dogma, we soon perceive that it is only a phantom. Quite recently, K. Hartmann and others have informed us that the so-called Aryans never existed as a primitive people, except in the imagination of arm-chair scholars. Nevertheless, it is strange that scientific writers, otherwise so prudent, should have adopted a thesis which nothing could justify, and that the authenticity of the myth should have been believed in by nine hundred and ninety-nine out of every thousand educated persons. M. Finot goes on to show that even the Aryan language idea is based on a misunderstanding.

CAN THE FRENCH BE CALLED GAULS?

The French and the Gauls are terms identified together. The French are proud of the Gallo-Celtic blood in their veins, and the Germans on the other side of the Rhine hate the French be-

cause of their Celtic blood. Have the French and the Germans not been taught from time immemorial that the Gauls and the Germanic race had virtues and customs diametrically opposed? And have they not ended by believing these facts, the authenticity of which has never been suspected? To-day, it seems sacrilege to express the smallest doubt as to the French being direct descendants of the Gauls. But M. Finot proceeds forthwith to commit this act of sacrilege. He is convinced that there were other races in France before the Gauls made their appearance on French soil.

What was this Gaul which La Tour d'Auvergne described as the cradle of humanity, and what was her language, the mother-language of so many other languages? M. Finot asks. According to this scientist and his partisans, Gaul was responsible for all that historians and linguists have wrongly attributed to the mysterious Asiatic Aryan. The Gauls gradually spread themselves over the greater part of ancient Europe, and even founded settlements in Galatia. Reflecting, then, on the great ramifications in Europe of this race, it is, to say the least, paradoxical to state that Gaul is France, and that the Gauls were the French.

In the third century B.C., the power of the Gauls was attacked on all sides. The Germanic race, the Romans, Greeks, Carthaginians, by a series of invasions, sought to break the power of Gaul and reduce the people to slavery. And as the Celtic era in Gaul gave place to Roman sway, the Roman dominion had to give way before the double Germanic invasion consequent on the great migration of peoples from the second to the sixth centuries of the Christian era. Succeeding centuries brought no rest to Europe.

How, again, can we speak of Gallic blood predominating in the French when it is remembered that about the fifteenth century the Germans devastated the country and transformed it into a desert, at the same time taking the inhabitants into captivity? And besides the Teutons, there were other irruptions. France, in fact, has been the grave of men of all sorts of races,—Russian Mongols, Semitic Arabs, Germans, Normans, Visigoths, Burgundians, Franks, etc. M. Finot gives a few details of the various invasions, and ends by giving a list of the races who may be said to have contributed to the formation of the French blood—about fifty, not counting subdivisions or certain odd races, such as the Tziganes, of whose origin as little is known as is known of the negro race, whose early existence has also been traced in France!

When we remember that for centuries the Germanic race gave shelter to numerous Gallic tribes, we are indeed tempted to say that in Germany to-day there is probably more Gallic blood than in France, while the conquests of the Burgundians, the Visigoths, the Franks, and the Normans have, perhaps, inoculated France with more German blood than there is in Germany to-day. Two points are clear: France does not owe her dominating qualities to the Gauls, and if Gallic descent must absolutely be attributed to a European nation, that nation is certainly Germany. Thus, we have a nice imbroglío. The French have become Germanic, and the Germanic race Gauls.

THE LATIN FIGMENT.

In the second installment, M. Finot begins with the Latin doctrine. The French, in proclaiming themselves a Latin people, give us occasion to admire their evangelical humility. At a time when so many of the small Latin republics are startling the world by the incoherence of their social and political life, to wish to belong to the Latin family savors of the heroic. The French-Latins have been contrasted with the insular Anglo-Saxons, the former having all the vices and the latter all the virtues. A whole French pessimistic literature has come into existence, full of distrust of France and discouragement for her future. There has been a constant vociferation as to the inferiority of France, and how detrimental it was has been shown by the moral torpor into which France had fallen for a time.

Happily, however, France has begun to take courage again. The sudden awakening of Italy gives the lie to Latin decadence; the South African war has shown up the serious weaknesses of the British; the discovery of corruption in

Germany has opened French eyes with regard to her; and the present Russo-Japanese war shows that the pretended youth of the Russian people does not mean moral and material health. France breathes more freely, and is reconsidering her rôle of a great people who, while commanding universal respect, guides humanity to noble ends. She has at last come to understand that her past, her present, and her great moral future is not to be limited to ethnic origins. In considering her destiny, she realizes that her genealogy is widely human rather than narrowly Latin.

From the intellectual point of view, however, France may be characterized as a Latin country—an important difference. As England was influenced by the Norman Conquest, but in time emancipated herself and followed her own course, while preserving the language and some ideas from the other side of the Channel, France, after having been under Latin influence, returned later to an intellectuality more in keeping with her position in the world and the aptitude of her people.

WHAT IS THE FRENCH NATION ?

The psychology of the French, concludes M. Finot, is most complex, the nation being the result of a supreme comprehension and adaptation of the intellectual conquests of all civilized countries enriched by its own essential mental qualities. As in philosophy and the arts, France gradually freed herself from Latin influence, the movement of liberation has taken place in other domains of her literary, political, and moral life. Mixed up with many other factors, the Latin element has lost its preponderance, for all nations are amalgamated in her intellectual as well as in her ethnic life, and being a mixture of so many races, the French is endowed with an innate sympathy toward other races.

THE RESULTS OF MALTHUSIANISM IN FRANCE.

THE question of the depopulation of France has long been an anxious one, and now, in *La Revue*, Charles Duffart discusses the problem, contending that the cause of the evil is due to Malthusianism, and suggesting certain reforms which France ought to adopt to be saved.

From the time of Louis XIV. to the Revolution, France, says the writer, was more densely populated than any other European country. Her population equaled that of England and Germany together, and notwithstanding the misery of the people under Louis XV., it still counted twenty-five millions in 1789. In this fact lay

the secret of the triumphs of the French against the foreign coalition in 1792, when the population of Germany numbered only fourteen millions, and England, including hostile Ireland, twelve millions. At the end of the eighteenth century, France alone contained 28 per cent. of the total population of the great European powers. In 1826,—after the wars of the Revolution, after the Empire and the Restoration,—however, Germany had twenty-eight millions of inhabitants, and England twenty-three millions, so that, united, these nations were therefore able to show against France a menacing economic and

belligerent vitality just double her own. This perilous situation continued, and after the disasters of 1872, Malthusian France, with only thirty-six millions of inhabitants remaining to her, found herself face to face with prolific England and Germany,—the former with thirty-two millions and the latter with forty-one millions.

In 1881, the population of France amounted to only thirty-seven and a half millions, while Germany had reached forty-five millions, and England thirty-five millions. By the year 1896, when the French population barely reached thirty-eight and a half millions, the German had become fifty-two millions, and the English thirty-eight and a half millions, and it was still worse after the census-takings of 1901, when the French people numbered less than thirty-nine millions, against fifty-six millions of Germans and forty-one and a half millions of English.

Unfortunately for France, Germany and England,—the latter, notwithstanding a falling off in the population of Ireland from eight millions to four and a half millions in sixty years,—are not the only countries where the population has increased at such a rapid rate. Not only has Germany quadrupled her population, and England more than tripled hers, in the course of a century, but Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and the United States, without counting the smaller states of northern Europe, are in the same position. A century ago, the population of the Russian Empire was twenty-five millions; according to the census of 1897, it was one hundred and twenty-nine millions. The population of the United States in 1789 was only three millions; in 1903, it had reached seventy-nine millions. In 1901, Italy had nearly thirty-two and a half millions of inhabitants, showing an increase of nearly four millions since 1892; while the population of Austria-Hungary showed an increase of over four millions in ten years.

Many writers proclaim that if France has not quantity, she has, at least, quality, but figures are irrefutable. In England, unproductive soil

no longer exists, and it is fast decreasing in Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia, whereas in France one-ninth of the soil is still uncultivated. A desert equal in size to ten departments, or to Brittany and Normandy together, or to Holland and Belgium together, remains unproductive, and is thus deprived of twelve millions of people to cultivate it! If the soil were rationally cultivated in the southwest of France alone, the fine climate and the rich soil would enable it to equal England in the production of cereals. But it is just in these departments where the greatest depopulation has been going on for the last seventy-five years, and where, owing to the inertia of the people and their indifference to the disaster which threatens France, a fourth part of the soil remains waste. If this region were only improved and cultivated, it would make an admirable colony for several millions.

The cause of the evil has been sought in the apparent decrease in the number of marriages; but this does not appear to be borne out by facts. Infant mortality is stated to be another cause; but, curiously enough, it is less in urban than in rural districts. But the real cause is not the small decrease in the number of marriages, or the number of illegitimate children, or infant mortality, or alcoholism, or tuberculosis, or the rural exodus, or foreign emigration.

The evil must be diagnosed and called by its proper name; it must be treated for what it is, and the remedies must be applied energetically. Under present conditions, the miseries of the working classes have increased the evil. It is unjust, the writer concludes, that the father of the large family should pay the most taxes, for indirect taxation of the necessaries of life presses hardest on the father of a large family. Direct taxation, or relief in various taxes for the fathers of large families, and a tax on the unmarried or the married people who have no families, are among the reforms suggested to remedy the evil.

SOUTHERN OPINION OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

UNFRIENDLY expressions regarding President Roosevelt in Southern newspapers have largely given place, since the election, to praise and commendation. Prominent Southern men have written to Northern newspapers in cordial support of the administration. One of the latest evidences of this change of sentiment in the South is afforded by an article contributed to the *South Atlantic Quarterly* (Durham, N. C.) by Prof. Edwin Mims, of Trinity College.

After an appreciative and sympathetic review of Mr. Roosevelt's relation to various public questions, this writer proceeds to analyze his

attitude toward the negro, classing him with those men in the North who are doing constructive work in removing prejudices and in creating a national spirit,—men who hold essentially the same position on the race question as that held by the liberal Southerner.

They know the silent forces that are at work now that will mean vastly significant results for the next generation. Some of them would not hesitate to maintain certain social relations with the very best negroes, but they realize that for the Southern people "*segregation in school, church, and society is in the interest of racial integrity and racial progress.*" They hold that

it was a ruinous policy to bestow the right of suffrage upon all negroes, and they are in sympathy with the recent amendments, but they do not feel that it is right to take the position that no negro under any circumstances should be appointed to office. These Northerners whose words have been quoted by Southern newspapers as expressing the best sentiment on the negro question have indorsed President Roosevelt in his nomination of certain worthy negroes for political office, and have resented the criticism passed upon him for inviting Booker Washington to lunch with him.

In regard to the social recognition of the negro and the appointment of Southern negroes to office, Professor Mims continues :

We shall save ourselves a great deal of excitement if in the future we make up our minds to let Northern men act on that question as it seems best to them, reserving the inalienable right to act as we think best. Nor should we resent President Roosevelt's honest attempt to appoint, instead of an indiscriminate number of negroes, a select few whom he considers worthy. His whole policy of breaking the Republican machines in

the South, of appointing good Southern men to office, and of actually cutting down the number of negro appointees is a distinct advance on the record of any Republican President since the war. He is as much opposed to negro domination as any Southerner. He has simply maintained that he cannot, as President of the whole country, take the position that "the door of hope—the door of opportunity—is to be shut upon any man, no matter how worthy, purely upon the ground of race or color." Is it anything but natural that a man with the training and the personality of Mr. Roosevelt should take this position?

The South has a right to insist, in turn, that he shall not repeat the Indianola incident,—provoking as the circumstances were,—that he shall use the utmost endeavor to understand the delicate situation that confronts the Southern people, that his appointments shall be made, as a rule, from the better class of whites, and only under extraordinary circumstances from "the upper fraction" of the negro population. With this mutual understanding, and better appreciation each of the other's point of view, there is no reason why Mr. Roosevelt's administration should not mean to the South all that he and his friends have prophesied.

THE FUTURE OF "PUBLIC-HOUSE TRUSTS" IN ENGLAND.

SINCE the opening of the Subway Tavern in New York City, the English movement headed by Lord Grey, and having for its object the control of liquor-selling by a disinterested "trust," has attracted a good deal of attention in this country. Writing in the *National Review* on "Constructive Temperance Reform," the Earl of Lytton sums up the "public-house trust" movement thus :

On the whole, the prospects of the trust companies obtaining a large proportion of new licenses may be considered favorable. Their policy is clearly in accordance with the spirit of section 4 of the new act, and should entitle them to favorable consideration at the hands of the authorities. On the other hand, their prospect of obtaining existing licenses is only slightly improved by the act. No machinery has been established for the extinction of the present system, and, except where their number is excessive and liable to reduction with compensation, existing licenses have been established more firmly than ever.

The only help which the trust receives from the act in respect of acquiring existing licenses is to be found in the words of sub-section 4 of section 3, which allow the compensation fund to be augmented from "other sources" than the charges on licenses. Under this section, it would be possible for a trust company to appear before a licensing bench and ask on public grounds that a license at present granted to the trade should be transferred to themselves on payment by them of the necessary compensation.

On the second reading of the bill in the House of Lords, Lord Grey held that by this means, if the sanction of the licensing judges could be obtained, many houses would be transferred from the trade to the trust, and his opinion was supported by Lord Salisbury and

other members of the government. To carry out this process on any considerable scale would require much larger funds than are at present at the disposal of the trust, and as its surplus profits will in future be allocated to the relief of the rates, it seems hardly possible that any extensive use will be made of this method. At the same time, it may be found extremely useful in certain cases, where, for instance, the possession of the few existing trade houses would give the trust a monopoly in a particular village or town.

It has often been asserted that a trust house can do no good so long as it is in competition with the trade. This is not true, for in almost every case the introduction of a single trust house into a district hitherto served only by tied houses has had the effect of raising the standard in the latter with regard to both the quality of the liquor sold and to the general conduct of the business. It is, however, undeniable that the trust experiment could be carried out with greater thoroughness and effect in a district in which all the houses were under trust management.

In the same review, Col. H. J. Crawford thus sums up the trust experiment :

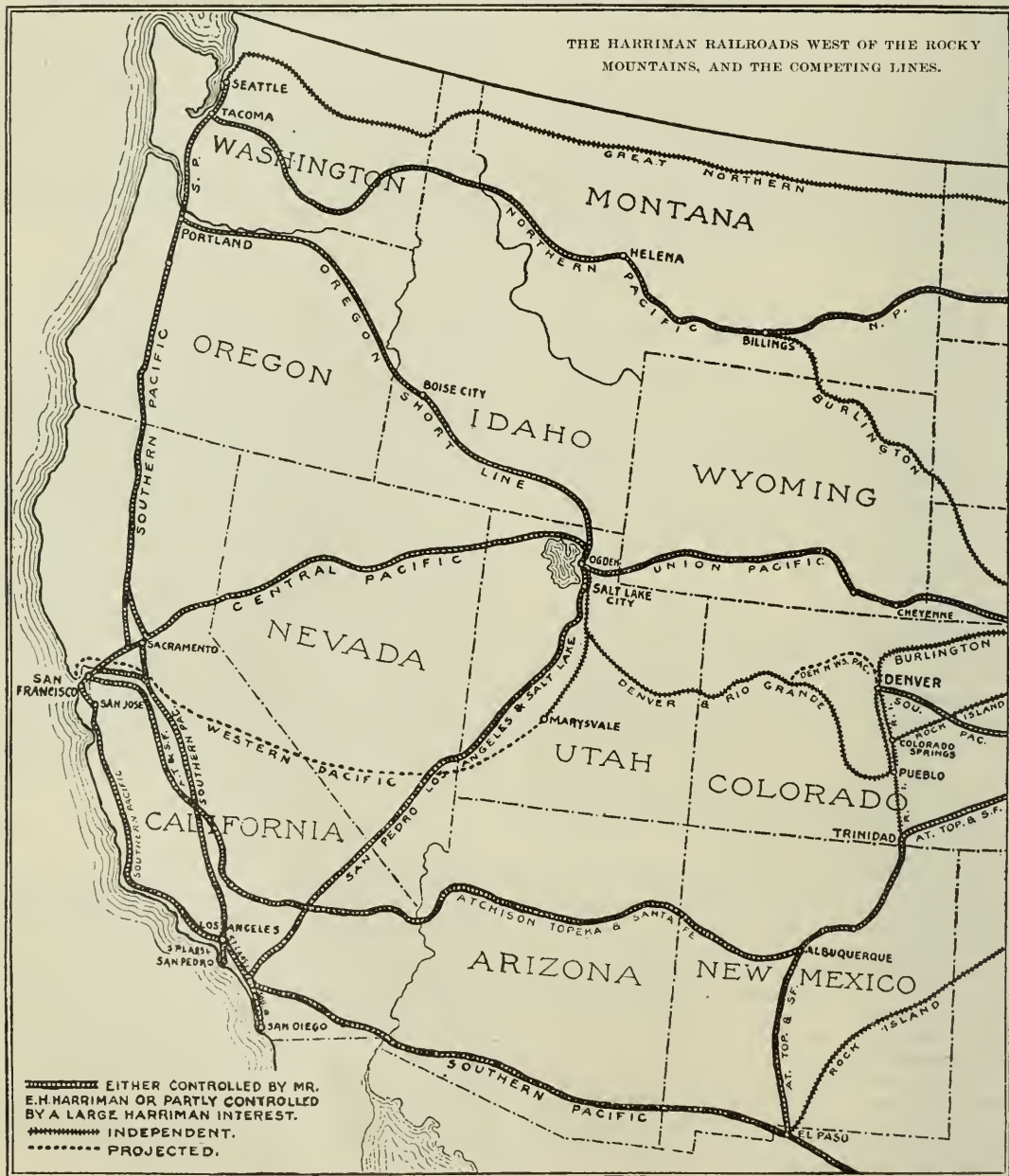
It must be admitted that the experiment at this stage is an incomplete one; the reason being that it has not yet been possible to apply disinterested management on a large enough scale to be convincing. In the surroundings in which most of the trust houses find themselves, it is impossible fully to test their system of management in its effect on drinking, because when a man is refused drink at a trust house he is able, in nine cases out of ten, to get what he wants by going to the tied house a few hundred yards along the road. In this way, the tied houses everywhere undo most of the good effected by trust management. Nevertheless, good is being done, and we believe any candid person who looks into the reports will admit it.

CONTROL OF THE PACIFIC RAILROADS.

THE story of the dramatic rise of Mr. Edward H. Harriman from a place of comparative obscurity in the railroad world to the virtual primacy of the transcontinental lines culminated, a few months ago, in the announcement that Mr. Harriman had acquired the largest individual interest in the Atchison, Topeka &

Santa Fé Railway. This action puts Mr. Harriman in full or partial control of all the lines save one between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, and makes pertinent the article by Mr. C. M. Keys in the February *World's Work*, entitled "A 'Corner' in Pacific Railroads."

Mr. Harriman became known to the public in



1897 as a member of the syndicate which purchased the Government's share in the Union Pacific Railroad. He did not become president of the reorganized Union Pacific until 1904, but from the first his was the directing mind in the plan to make the Union Pacific the center of a great system. To this end, the old Kansas Pacific and the Oregon Short Line were absorbed in the first few months of the new company's existence.

Mr. Keys describes the remarkable increase in Western railroad earnings in the later '90's. The Union Pacific prospered beyond the hopes of the syndicate. By the end of 1900, Mr. Harriman had become a financial power. He set himself to master the detail of his railroads. It is said that he imitated the methods of President Hill, of the Great Northern, in adjusting rates on Western traffic.

Quiet, persistent, aggressive, subtle, he spread his empire into the north, pushing in the outposts of the Burlington, the Northern Pacific, and the Great Northern. Gradually the business of Wyoming, even the business of Montana and of Washington, paid toll more and more to the Harriman lines. Butte and Spokane, important feeders of the Hill roads, welcomed his lines and gave them business. He gathered traffic from all fields, competitive and non-competitive; made mar-

kets where no markets had been before; helped the Great Desert develop; nursed Portland and San Francisco into greater power. He made the Union Pacific; and the Union Pacific made him.

The net result of Mr. Harriman's eight years' campaign is summarized by Mr. Keys in the following table, showing in concise form the mileage of the Pacific roads operated, directly or indirectly, under his influence, and the entire capitalization, stock and bonds, of the companies that own the mileage:

Railroad.	Miles.	Capital.
Union Pacific*.....	6,105	\$487,639,687
Southern Pacific†.....	9,621	596,393,673
San Pedro Route.....	1,100	65,000,000
Atchison, T. & S. F.....	8,004	458,039,780
Northern Pacific.....	5,976	338,689,178
Total.....	30,706	\$1,945,762,323

* Including the Oregon Short Line and the Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company lines, which give the Union Pacific the Portland route.

† Including the Central Pacific, which furnishes the present overland route from Salt Lake City to San Francisco.

The list does not include any lines east of Omaha either owned or controlled by the Harriman interests. Nor does it note his ownership of more than 50 per cent. of the stock of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company.

AN ALTERNATIVE OF STATE SOCIALISM.

THE gradual decline of individual opportunity in this country is a favorite theme of the Socialist writer, who seeks to deduce therefrom the futility of the old reliance on the institution of private property. Taking up the Socialist argument at this point, Judge Peter S. Grosscup, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, undertakes to show, in the February *McClure's*, that the hope of the country lies in the extension of individual participation in the proprietorship of capital and industry. In other words, instead of intrusting the ownership of the agencies of production to the Government itself, he would increase the private citizen's opportunity to become a proprietor. "The paramount problem," says Judge Grosscup, "is not how to crush, or hawk at, or hamper the corporation, merely because it is a corporation, but how to make this new form of property-ownership a workable agent toward repeopleizing the proprietorship of the country's industries."

The first step in the solution of the problem advocated by Judge Grosscup is the assumption by the national government of corporation control and regulation.

The second step, the step for which the first is taken,

is to take care upon what kind of corporate proposal the Government's great seal is set—to cut out the stock-jobbing corporation; the waterlogged corporation; the mere vision of visionaries; the labyrinthian corporation whose stock and bond issues are so purposely tangled that no mind not an expert's can follow their sinuities. In short, to regenerate the corporation.

The third step is to open to the wage-earner of the country the road to proprietorship. The basis of every successful enterprise is the command: Go forth, increase, and multiply; and to no enterprise can rightfully be denied the fruits of that command. But capital is not the sole thing that enters into enterprise. The skill that puts the ship together, or that subsequently pilots her, is not the sole thing. The men who drive the bolts, and feed the fires, contribute; and to them, as to the capitalist, and to the captains and the lieutenants of industry, should go a part of the increment; not as gratuity, but as their proper allotment out of the combined forces that have made the enterprise successful.

Judge Grosscup directs attention to the fact that while the growth of wealth *per capita* during the twenty years from 1880 to 1900 was about 10 per cent., the amounts invested in bank deposits by people of small means in the same period increased over 500 per cent. A large part of this great savings fund undoubtedly represents money withheld or withdrawn from active business.

RUSSIA'S "GREATEST, MOST PROGRESSIVE SCHOLAR."

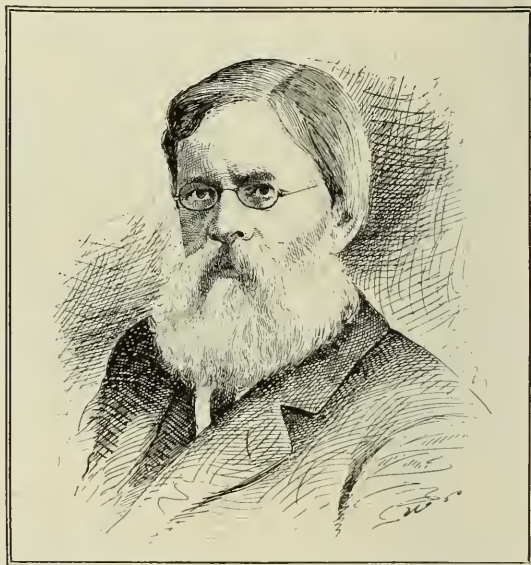
ON December 9, 1904, there died in St. Petersburg one of Russia's foremost scholars and writers, A. N. Pypin, whose name was known beyond the limits of his fatherland. In a literary career extending over a period of fifty years, Pypin has shown a remarkable versatility and thoroughness as an historian of Russian and other Slavonic literatures. He was one of the few great Russian scholars and writers who stood consistently for progressive development of Russian life along the lines of European civilization. Apart from his historical researches and special studies, he devoted much time to the translation into Russian of valuable foreign works, and to the writing and editing of journalistic articles.

Born at Taratov, in 1833, Pypin obtained his academic education at the University of St. Petersburg, where he was appointed to a professorship in 1860. Two years later he found himself obliged to tender his resignation, on account of the student disturbances which had occurred at that time. Pypin then turned to the literary field, and became a contributor to the *Sovremennik* (Contemporary). With the suspension of the latter, in 1866, he joined the circle of able collaborators on the *Vyestnik Yevropy* (European Messenger). From that time until the end of his life, Pypin had one or more articles in almost every number of the *Vyestnik*.

In 1859, he published his first work, a comparative study of Russian, Byzantine, and Roman folk-lore, the comparative texts of the two last named appearing in 1862. Following this there appeared his "History of Slavonic Literatures," which was published in St. Petersburg in 1865. The portion of this work dealing with Polish literature was written by W. Spasowicz. This fine work was very favorably received by foreign scholars, and was translated into German, French, and Bohemian. Subsequent to this, Pypin published "The Intellectual Movements in Russia in the First Half of the Nineteenth Century," the first volume of which, treating of Russian society under Alexander I., has been translated into German.

Mention should also be made here of his valuable four-volume work, "The History of Russian Ethnography" (1892-94), as well as of his "History of Russian Literature," also in four volumes (1898-99). Pypin points out in his memoirs that he owed all his intellectual development to his cousin, the famous critic, M. G. Chernyshevski, who for nineteen years (1864-83) was an exile in Siberia. Thanks to Chernyshevski, Pypin became intimate with the mem-

bers of the circle that collaborated on the *Sovremennik*. The policy of this publication was still guided by the literary traditions of the renowned critic, Byelinski, a masterly biography of whom Pypin published, in two volumes, in 1876. This circle of *littérateurs* included such talented men as Turgenev, Gondranov, Leo



THE LATE A. N. PYPIN, RUSSIAN SCHOLAR, HISTORIAN, AUTHOR.

Tolstoi, and Nekrasov. A biography of the latter was published by Pypin shortly before his death.

Notwithstanding his advanced age, says the *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, "Pypin was distinguished for his prodigious industry. He was even more distinguished for his warm interest in science, and his intense conviction." "The mainspring of his endeavors was his desire to promote progress and enlightenment." "For all his attempts to popularize historical knowledge, he was yet careful to maintain in his writings a high standard of scholarship." Professor Jagic, who wrote a warm eulogy on Pypin's life and works, says:

I know of no other man who could have grasped as Pypin did the main features of Russian intellectual life, who could have given it a critical illumination, and directed the life thus illumined in harmony with the needs of mental progress. In all his researches and studies on literary history he retained a clear conception of the bond between literature and the needs of national life. He emphasized the significance of that literature which reflects the real interests and aspirations of the Russian people.

As the *Novoye Vremya* points out, Pypin began his career under the thunder of the Crimean War and ended it under the thunder of the present conflict in the far East. Since 1897, Pypin was a member of the Academy of Sci-

ences of St. Petersburg. He was elected a member of that institution as early as 1871, but his election was not sanctioned by the government, because of his liberal views. He published, for the academy, the works of Catherine II.

A BUDDHIST PRIEST ON THE WAR.

THE Rt. Rev. Shaku Soyen, Lord Abbot of Egakuji, Kamakura, one of the most prominent Buddhist prelates of Japan, the Buddhist delegate to the Parliament of Religions at Chicago, in 1893, has been with the Japanese army in the field. He was present at the battle of Nanshan Hill, and has just published his impressions of that memorable struggle. His opinion on war is interesting, as that of a representative of the Zen sect, one of the strictest and most orthodox of Japan. The *Open Court* (Chicago) publishes a translation of his opinion, from which we quote the following :

War is an evil, and a great one, indeed. But war against evils must be unflinchingly prosecuted till we

taking. But the firm conviction of the justice of her cause has endowed her with an indomitable courage, and she is determined to carry the struggle to the bitter end. Here is the price we must pay for our ideals—a price paid in streams of blood and by the sacrifice of many thousands of living bodies. However determined may be our resolution to crush evils, our hearts tremble at the sight of this appalling scene.

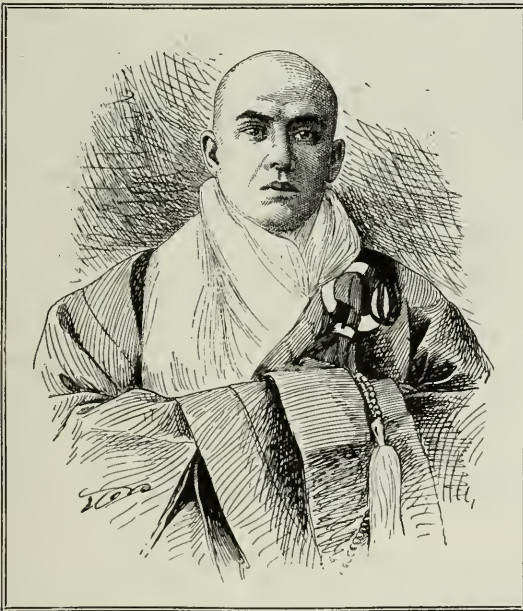
“How much dearer is the price still going to be?” he asks.

What enormous losses are we going to suffer through the evil thoughts of our enemy, not to speak of the many injuries which our poor enemy himself will have to endure! All these miserable soldiers, individually harmless and innocent of the present war, are doomed to a death not only unnatural, but even inhuman! Indeed, were it not for the doctrine of love taught by the Buddha, which should elevate every individual creature to the realm of a pure spirituality, we would, in the face of the terrible calamities that now befall us, be left to utter destruction and without any consolation whatever. Were it not for the belief that the bloom of truly spiritual light will, out of these mutilated, disfigured, and decomposing corpses, return with renewed splendor, we would not be able to stand these heartrending tribulations even for a moment. Were it not for the consolation that these sacrifices are not brought for an egotistic purpose, but are an inevitable step toward the final realization of enlightenment, how could I, poor mortal, bear these experiences of a hell let loose on earth? The body is but a vessel for something greater than itself. Individuality is but a husk containing something more permanent. Let us, then, though not without losing tenderness of heart, bravely confront our ordeal.

As to his purpose in going through the campaign at the front, the Rt. Rev. Shaku Soyen says :

I came here with a double purpose. I wished to have my faith tested by going through the greatest horrors of my life, but I also wished to inspire, if I could, our valiant soldiers with the ennobling thoughts of the Buddha, so as to enable them to die on the battlefield with the confidence that the task in which they are engaged is great and noble. I wished to convince them of the truths that this war is not a mere slaughter of their fellow-beings, but that they are combating an evil, and that at the same time, corporeal annihilation rarely means a rebirth of soul, not in heaven, indeed, but here among ourselves. I believe I did my best to impress these ideas upon the soldiers' hearts.

As to the actual fighting, the prelate says : “It beggars description! Verily, it is the acme of brutality and recklessness conceived in this world.”



THE RT. REV. SHAKHU SOYEN, A LEADER OF JAPANESE BUDDHIST THOUGHT.

(Who has been with the Japanese army before Port Arthur.)

attain the final aim. In the present hostilities in which Japan has entered with great reluctance, she pursues no egotistic purpose, but seeks the subjugation of evils hostile to civilization, peace, and enlightenment. She deliberated long before she took up arms, as she was well aware of the magnitude and gravity of the under-

THE CHANGE IN GERMAN MILITARY TACTICS.

ONE of the high-rank officers of the Norwegian army who attended the annual maneuvers of the German army last autumn contributes to the illustrated review, *Kringsjaa* (Christiania), an article describing and analyzing German war tactics. War tactics in general, he begins by saying, are no abstract thing; they rest upon the character of the people and the territory occupied by that people. The present German war tactics were created in Lorraine during the first battles of 1870, and "are written in the blood of twenty-five thousand men." Following on a detailed description of the maneuvers of 1904, this officer says, by way of comment: "The Germans have won all their battles by their artillery. The A, B, C of German military science has been, Attack; and the strategy of the German army can be summed up in the one word, Drill. "Keep your troops in hand, and make good use of your cartridges,— the rest does not matter."

The German tactics, developed during the Franco-Prussian War, continues this writer, prevailed in Europe for thirty years. They were also adopted by the Americans, the Japanese, and the Turks.

Then came the Boer war, and the English tried these tactics upon a people who lived by the chase. The British placed their artillery well, and fired long and with accuracy. Then they sent their infantry forward in large masses; and yet at from seven hundred to eight hundred yards everything stopped. They did not dare to go forward, and they could not retreat. It developed that the Boers were using another method. They lined up in groups, and came slowly upon their enemy, steadily firing all the while. This method seriously crippled the English infantry, and large numbers of them were taken prisoners. Here was something new,—no sudden blow, no terrific artillery fire. As a result, the English now discard their old ideas, and

have actually taken up new tactics. In the latter part of the war they mastered the new idea. Immediately the Americans followed.

In Germany, continues this writer, the new idea also made a great impression. Germany must stand in the front rank of military nations; so she must change her tactics to suit the times. The frontal attack must be abolished as soon as possible, and the Body Guard in Berlin began by practising the Boer attack more zealously than they did their own. Some nations, however, hesitated to adopt this new method. In Norway, it had advocates and opponents. The Swedes were more radical, and introduced new regulations. The Danes and other nations hesitated. Then came the Russo-Japanese war.

The Japanese fought in the German way, and to Europe soon came reports that their artillery fire was annihilating the Russians; moreover, the Japanese made the most beautiful German "normal attack," with drums and music. They stormed and took the heights. With amazement, the rest of the world heard that the first tactical principle of the Japanese was, "Happy the man who dies with his fame surviving him." Yet the Japanese did not seem to suffer the heavy losses expected. In Germany, the observers said: "What foolishness these Englishmen have taught us! It was all simply because they could not use our attack. Their soldiers were not schooled like ours; their soldiers were actually cowardly. They had very small losses compared with the number of prisoners. See how well the Japanese are doing it. The Germans have taught them everything." The Germans were convinced that the Boer attack does not suit the national popular temper.

In conclusion, this writer emphasizes and commends the German idea of drill. Constant drilling and discipline mean more to the Fatherland, he says, than the rest of the world has realized.

ENGLAND'S PROBLEM OF THE UNEMPLOYED.

THAT the problem of the unemployed is recognized as a pressing one in England is made evident in the pages of the London reviews. The *Nineteenth Century* for January contains a remarkable suggestion for the solution of the problem from the pen of Mr. Keir Hardie, M.P.

THE COMPULSORY PROVISION OF WORK.

"A Hint from the Past" is Mr. Hardie's subtitle. More than one old act of Parliament, he shows, is still in force which make local authorities responsible, under penalty of a fine, for the

finding of employment for all genuine unemployed within the limits of their jurisdiction. An act of 1601 compels "the church-wardens of every parish and four, three, or two substantial householders" to meet regularly for the purpose of "setting to work all such persons, married or unmarried, having no means to maintain them, and use no ordinary and daily trade of life to get their living by; and also to raise weekly or otherwise (by taxation of every inhabitant, parson, vicar, and other, and of every occupier of lands, houses, tithes impropriate, appropriations of

tithes, coal mines, or saleable underwoods in the said parish, in such competent sum and sums of money as they shall think fit) a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other ware and stuff to set the poor on work."

An act of 1819 orders churchwardens and overseers of the poor of such parish, . . . to purchase or to hire and take on lease, for and on account of the parish, any suitable portion or portions of land within or near to such parish, not exceeding twenty acres in the whole, and to employ and set to work in the cultivation of such land, on account of the parish, any such persons as by law they are directed to set to work, and to pay to such of the poor persons so employed as shall not be supported by the parish reasonable wages for their work; and the poor persons so employed shall have such and the like remedies for the recovery of their wages, and shall be subject to such and the like punishment for misbehavior in their employment, as other laborers in husbandry are by law entitled and subject to.

In 1831, the twenty-acre limit was increased to fifty acres. All authorities agree that these acts are still in force.

"COUNCILS OF LABOR" NEEDED.

Mr. Hardie argues, therefore, that the law of England recognizes the obligation of each district to provide employment for all its out-of-works, this obligation being quite distinct from that which compels them to support paupers. But he asks for the creation of new authorities to carry out the work, and suggests specially elected "councils of labor."

AFFORESTATION PROFITABLE.

What work would these councils provide? Afforestation Mr. Hardie thinks the most profitable. The German forests maintain a population of 400,000, and yield the national exchequer no less than \$90,000,000 annually.

Our new councils of industry, then, would be empowered to acquire land, compulsorily when necessary, and at its fair market price, to be used for any purpose necessary for setting the poor to work. Existing administrative authorities already have certain powers to acquire land for allotments, small holdings, cottages, which they may also build, and also powers to give technical instruction.

A "Labor Reservoir."

Mr. C. F. G. Masterman has an important and suggestive article in the *Independent Review* upon this subject. It is more hopeful than most of those which deal with this pressing topic. He maintains that the perpetual recurrence of periods of unemployment is a problem which is not hopeless, but can be remedied if the civilization of the country is taken in hand as a matter demanding the attention of the government and the energy of the citizen. He recognizes that

for many decades to come a competitive system will advance in rhythmical expansions and contractions. At intervals of some nine years, men will be thrown out of work whose services society will need when trade improves. He advocates, therefore, the construction of some kind of labor reservoir for the preservation in times of scarcity of the labor value of those normally engaged in remunerative work.

MINISTER OF LABOR NEEDED—

After describing what has been done in the past, and explaining the experiment that is to be tried this winter, he points out that there is great danger arising from the heterogeneous nature of the local central committees and the absence of any strong controlling executive committee. Never was more manifest the need of a minister and department of labor, whose creation should be the first work of the government having at heart the welfare of the common people. He thinks there must be a national attempt to cure a national disease, and he would link on the problem of unemployment with the even more insistent problem of repatriation.

—AND LABOR COLONIES.

The method he would follow would be that adopted by the Dutch labor colonies, especially in Frederiksoord. The initial expense of founding such colonies would be a rate combined with the treasury grant. Land would be purchased suitable for small holdings at a reasonable price. On this land the colonists would be placed, who would break it up, make roads, sink wells, build homesteads, etc., with the object of supplying a variety of work for skilled and unskilled labor. It would be expanded in times of scarcity, and reduced to a minimum in times when trade was promising. This work, Mr. Masterman thinks, might ultimately become almost self-supporting. It would be negotiated in one session of Parliament, begun on a small scale or a large, and would represent a deliberate step forward toward the creation of a civilization in England.

The second part of his paper deals with what he describes as the draining of the abyss, or the abolition of the more degrading and degraded forms of poverty. He maintains that if the new energy of reform will but advance fearlessly through the hazardous days we shall reach a time when to-day's accumulation of ugliness and pain will appear but some fantastic and disordered dream.

The English poor law has been found wanting and should be reorganized on the lines of German and Belgian experience in respect to labor colonies.

"MUNICIPAL TRADING" A DEAD LOSS.

THE vexed question of municipal ownership, —municipal trading, as they call it in England,—continues to be vigorously discussed in the English magazines and reviews. Gruesome reading for the British taxpayer is provided by Mr. John Holt Schooling in his *Windsor* article on "Local Rates and Taxes." The paper is rather difficult to read, owing to the way in which tables of formidable statistics are interspersed amid the author's own remarks. Certain totals may be reproduced. The total municipal expenditure for the year 1900-01 is over £110,000,000 sterling (\$550,000,000). Seventeen millions were spent on loans repaid and interest on loans. The percentage of expenditure paid out of the loans to total expenditure has risen from 18 per cent. in 1884-85 to 24 per cent. in 1899-1900. The outstanding debt of local spending authorities has risen in twenty-five years, 1874-1900, from £92,000,000 (\$460,000,000) to £293,000,000 (\$1,465,000,000); or from £389 (\$1,945) per hundred of population to £917 (\$4,585); or from £80 (\$400) per £100 (\$500) of the ratable value of property to £167 (\$835). The local debt is now nearly half the national debt.

"REPRODUCTIVE UNDERTAKINGS."

Two hundred and ninety-nine corporations out of 317 are responsible for reproductive undertakings. The total capital invested was £121,000,000 (\$605,000,000), of which £117,000,000 (\$585,000,000) were borrowed; and only £16,000,000 (\$80,000,000) had been paid off in 1902.

The excess of yearly income over yearly working expenses was 4.8 millions. Of this "balance," 4.2 millions were paid away in respect of borrowed capital, and 0.2 of a million was set apart for depreciation. This leaves a net profit of 0.4 of a million, or, more exactly, of £378,000 per annum upon a capital of £121,200,000.

Descending to detail, baths and washhouses are worked at a loss of £6 5s. 9d. per £100 of capital. The gas works showed the highest profit,—namely, £1 12s. 10d. per cent. Tramways owned and worked by corporations yielded a yearly profit of 19 shillings per cent., while those owned by corporations but not worked by corporations yielded a yearly profit of £1 10s. 6d. per cent., a fact which Mr. Schooling thinks points to other people understanding business better than the local spending authorities. All the reproductive undertakings were worked at a yearly alleged profit of 6s. 3d. per £100 of capital invested in them.

It is in the smallness of the amount written off for depreciation that Mr. Schooling finds the Achilles' heel of municipal trading. He exclaims

upon the fact that "3s. 2½d. is the amount of depreciation annually put aside per £100 of capital, in respect of plant, machinery, etc., which cost £121,170,000." Mr. Schooling considers that a yearly allowance for depreciation of 5 per cent. on the capital invested is a most moderate estimate. Rectifying municipal accounts by this standard, Mr. Schooling arrives at the following totals:

Capital invested, £121,170,000; 5 per cent. on this for yearly depreciation is £6,058,500; yearly allowance for depreciation by corporation is £193,274; extra for depreciation which should be set aside yearly is £5,865,226; deduct net profit stated by corporation, which now vanishes, £378,281, making the net loss yearly upon the 1,029 "reproductive undertakings" £5,486,945.

So that, instead of a nominal profit of £378,281 (\$1,891,405), we have a net yearly loss of £4 10s. 7d. per cent. per annum on these 1,029-reproductive undertakings in England and Wales, excluding London. Mr. Schooling combats the notion that the sinking-fund principle will provide for depreciation. He says that it provides for the paying off of the particular liability to which it relates, but that it does not provide for the loss by depreciation of plants. Asked what is the remedy, Mr. Schooling frankly replies, "I do not know."

England's Local Indebtedness.

In the *Contemporary Review*, Sir Robert Giffen sounds a note of warning against the vast increase of local expenditure which has taken place during the last forty years, and must now, he thinks, be stayed. Imperial expenditure has increased from £70,000,000 (\$350,000,000) to £140,900,000 (\$700,000,000), and this, Sir Robert thinks, is not unduly great. But the local expenditure, which in the sixties was only £36,000,000 (\$180,000,000) for the whole United Kingdom, had grown in 1901-02 to £144,000,000 (\$720,000,000). In the same year, the total of local indebtedness had risen to £407,000,000 (\$2,035,000,000), equal to half the national debt. Sir Robert admits that local expenditure is to a great extent an index of civilization, and not, as is often national expenditure, an index of waste; but he thinks that the time has come to put a stop to wholesale borrowings.

Taking the question as a whole, England's expenditure, imperial and local, has increased as follows:

	Forty Years Ago.	Present Time.
Imperial	£70,000,000	£140,000,000
Local.....	36,000,000	144,000,000
Total.....	£106,000,000	£284,000,000

If, however, the figures of local revenue only be taken, which Sir Robert Giffen regards as a safer guide for the present purpose, it appears that there has been an aggregate growth of £145,000,000, or £45,000,000 more than double the amount of forty years ago. Sir Robert Giffen assumes, therefore, that the English people are spending at the present time on imperial and local objects together about £45,000,000 more than they should be spending if they were keeping

the exact proportion to their resources of the expenditure of forty years ago.

Sir Robert Giffen points out two special evils in the British system of taxation,—(1) the excessive strain upon the real property which is the main source of the income of local authorities, and is also part of the source from which the imperial income tax is derived, and (2) the collection of revenue by imperial authorities on account of local authorities.

LONDON, OLD AND NEW.

SUCH is the title of a strong, fresh article by Mr. John Burns, in the *Pall Mall Magazine* for January, dealing with the changes constantly taking place, chiefly in the name of improvements, in the metropolis. Speaking of the Strand district, Mr. Burns says :

Time and the unfolding of its work will prove that the County Council has tried to give artistic expression and architectural harmony to a district which, through past neglect, personal greed, civic niggardliness, and state indifference, had become an area of squalid tenements, fetid slums, boozy taverns, shabby playhouses, and vulgar shops in slatternly streets.

The Strand has alternately possessed the prison of kings, the palaces of dukes, the promenade for poets, the rendezvous of wits, players, rebels, and beauties. Here the great, the glorious, and the good have lodged, strolled, or played their part, had their entrances and their exits, fascinated, instructed, and amused the generations that began by adoring their favorites and ended by starving or beheading them.

"MY YOUTHFUL DREAM."

Opposite the Gaiety, near by where Nell Gwynne in olden days bewitched the ancient Cavaliers, close by where Nellie Farren charmed the modern gallants, grim Puritan Cromwell's body lay in somber state at Somerset House. Close by, Inigo Jones died, the illustrious Froissart, the gentle Chaucer, the wise Wycliffe, wrote their chronicles, corrected their sermons, or penned their missals and obeyed the muse.

It was my youthful dream as a London apprentice, and later as one of its ædiles, to try to revert to the ideal Strand, and from Northumberland Avenue to Somerset House have a one-hundred-and-fifty-foot Strand, with nothing between the north side and the Embankment; terrace gardens in three tiers dropping to the river, with Somerset House and Waterloo Bridge on the eastern side, and on its west the eastern side of Northumberland Avenue. But it was only a dream, that fifty years ago could have been realized for no greater cost than is now being expended on the Holborn-to-Strand improvement.

THE STRAND IMPROVEMENTS.

Speaking of the modern Strand improvements, Mr. Burns regrets the disappearance of Clifford's Inn, though for that the County Council have

no responsibility; the new Savoy, he thinks, would have been handsomer if built entirely of natural stone, and the same may be said of the Cecil. But, he regretfully says, "over these buildings the London County Council have no power or control whatever."

Taking the whole scheme of the Strand improvement, it is going to be artistically as good a scheme as physically it will be a benefit to vehicular and pedestrian traffic and subterranean tramway traction.

But there is a danger ahead,—serious, ugly, deforming, monstrous. It has been suggested, fortunately by journals that have little influence and less soul, that an elevated railway should be erected in the center of Kingsway or over the two pavements on either side—some vagrant, sprawling, iron Behemoth, dragging in red-oxide color its tawdry and ugly length along.

But London will never tolerate this, the most recent but least decent of transatlantic innovations.

HOW BEST TO BEAUTIFY LONDON.

The architectural beauty and harmony of London, he remarks, depend at present almost entirely on individual taste, the vagaries of ground landlords, and the capacity of architects, and of these three Mr. Burns thinks the architects deserve least blame. And one of the greatest safeguards for the beautifying of London would be, he thinks, more power to the County Council's elbow.

The council, for historical, artistic, and educational reasons, should be vested with power, not only to determine line and height, but to select or suggest material for its buildings, and above all to deal with contumacious Philistines who, disregarding what time, spirit, and tradition have evolved, should violate the artistic *milieu* and outrage neighborly amenities.

No one is likely to dispute his statement that "what London badly needs is more power to put down or regulate street advertisements." Add to this unrestricted power to the County Council to improve and substitute electrical for horse traction and Mr. Burns would be satisfied—for the time.

IS GERMANY ENGLAND'S ENEMY?

EVIDENCES are not wanting of a widespread and deep-laid anti-German propaganda in the British press. A writer who signs himself "Julius" has been contributing a series of articles of this sort to the *Contemporary Review*. In the issue for January, he declares that he is very anxious to be on the best of terms with the Fatherland. All the blame for the present lack of cordiality in Anglo-German relations he puts on the head of the Berlin government. Germany, he persists, is bent on making mischief between Great Britain and other powers. "Bismarck might have said, 'The empire is calumny.'" The Germans, says "Julius," are still carrying out a campaign of calumny against Englishmen.

One of the symptoms by which we must judge the German Government's sentiments toward us is the attitude it assumes on the various contentious questions involving England and some other country which arise from time to time,—between England and Russia, between England and the Boers, between England and Turkey, between England and Italy, between England and France. And we know as an absolute fact that in the case of every one of these misunderstandings Germany has invariably taken the side of our adversary. German editors and newspaper men, of course, are swayed by feelings common to all humanity. Hence, some of them took the side of England at the beginning of the North Sea incident, but shortly afterward even they veered round and supported Russia. In view of those and many other irrefragable facts, am I or am I not right in drawing the conclusion that the policy of the German Government, as it stands revealed at pres-

ent, is directed to the advantage of the retrograde Eastern powers, nay, to the most retrograde part of them, and to the disadvantage of the liberal Western powers?

This is coupled with a policy of subserviency to Russia, of which "Julius" gives the following instance :

The Kaiser's government passed with difficulty a bill in the Reichstag the result of which was to raise the price of the necessaries of life. It was violently opposed by the Socialists and the Liberal friends of the people, but the chancellor was adroit, persevering, and victorious. The minimum tariff became law. The next step was to conclude treaties of commerce with foreign states upon the basis of that minimal tariff. Much,—everything, in fact,—depended upon the assent of Russia. But M. Witte absolutely refused it. Consequently, the German chancellor was at his wits' end. For if he failed to talk over the Czardom, the whole fabric so carefully constructed fell to the ground, and he would fall with it; and of Russia's consent there seemed no reasonable hope. A commercial war would be less harmful than the minimum tariff, M. Witte's press organ said. Yet all at once Russia gave her consent, and M. Witte himself went humbly to Germany to announce it. Thus again the chancellor triumphed, and the party of dear food and strong government triumphed with him. How? This time he won through the direct intervention of a foreign sovereign acting against the advice of his principal adviser, and in defiance of the interests of his suffering people. What did that foreign sovereign receive as a *quid pro quo*? Almost at the same time a trial took place at Königsberg. I think I need not recall the circumstances of that trial. The whole civilized world remembers them. They will form a special chapter in the history of human culture.

AN ITALIAN VIEW OF OUR POLICY OF "STRENUOSITY."

AN anonymous writer, reviewing world-politics under the title "Elements of Peace and War," in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), devotes some interesting paragraphs to the United States. He says that President Roosevelt's majority in the recent election would give him the right to consider himself a dictator if the Constitution did not already give him personal power greater than that granted to any constitutional sovereign of Europe.

It has demonstrated more than ever how really Theodore Roosevelt is the exponent of present-day North American spirit. All his moral and physical figure, all his ideal programme, all his effective policy, can be resumed in the title of his volume "The Strenuous Life," which may be considered the evangel of a union as different from that of Washington as the embryo of the great state founded and saved by Washington was different from the virgin land discovered and conquered by Columbus. What is the Monroe Doctrine, that al-

ready seemed excessive to old Europe, compared with this new evangel? To-day, it is no longer a question of "America for the Americans;" the question is whether the whole civilized world must become in the end tributary to North America as to politics no less than as to international economics.

After commenting on the policies for which President Roosevelt stands, this writer continues, referring to surprises that the President's own supporters may receive :

Roosevelt,—eminent, practical statesman though he be,—is, however, a man who understands the great importance of the ideal in the life of a people as in the life of an individual. He feels that the ideal of greatness proposed by him to his country would have no solid base if public honesty and public virtue did not contribute to constitute and sustain it. Sufficient to show this is his campaign in favor of the negroes, at the risk of losing all public favor, both the great parties being in all their elements hostile to the colored race, even to injustice, and to cruelty.

THE AMERICAN WOMAN FROM A SWEDISH POINT OF VIEW.

RESTLESSNESS and a hollow, artificial society, for which, the American woman is mainly responsible,—these are the characteristics of our civilization which impressed a well-known Swedish authoress on a recent visit to this country. The magazine *Varia* (Stockholm), which withholds her name but announces her eminence, gives her impressions in full. Besides remaining for several years in this country, says the editor of *Varia*, the writer has been a student of American conditions, particularly in the eastern part of the United States, for more than ten years. American society is a hollow, worthless thing, she believes. When the poor artist, coming from Paris or London, “freezes in his soul, he feels powerless in view of the lack of place into which to put his social energies. He is forced to choose between family and society life or a Bohemian existence which does not at all correspond to the companionship he enjoyed in Europe.” The most fortunate people in America, this writer believes, are the middle-aged men who have means for expensive club life. She is, however, unsparing in her criticism of the clubs for women. “The so-called lady-clubs are simply societies, with or without clubhouses, for discussion, agitation, and lecturing. A great deal of work is done ostensibly for the sake of woman, yet the whole thing makes a forced impression. On the other hand, however, there are many fine reading circles and afternoon courses of study.”

It is hard to find a real American woman in New York, this Swedish writer declares. She continues, unsurprisingly :

The women of the middle class, which is the largest in New York, are characterized by their laziness, incompetence, and vanity. They may know how to make a dress elegant, but poorly suited to their means; and yet, only very seldom do they know how to cook. Most of the dyspepsia and nervousness of their husbands is surely caused by the half-cooked meals of the women. Besides, not being practical, they waste half the food they consume. Yet they trim their nails for hours, and live half the time on the street,—that is, when they are not fortunate enough to be jammed around the bargain counter. This is not merely a European view of the matter,—it is a frequent topic of admonition on the part of many American economic writers. While these offer many explanations, they all agree that there is an incalculable danger to the country in the increasing laziness of the middle-class woman and her unfitness to be the head of a household.

Much is being done in the United States, this

lady admits, in the way of popular education and enlightenment, but most of it, she contends, is “along improper lines, and complicated by the red tape of superficial educational methods, causing a confusion which is worse than the most rigid conservatism.” American teachers, she declares, are a worthy class, but are generally “oppressed by pedagogical studies which they are unable to digest, confused by theories which they are not able to convert into practice. Alas for the American fetich worship of theories and long words!”

A class of women which especially pleased this Swedish writer was the shop girls. Many of these, she declares, by their own “gifts and cleverness, stand apart from the great mass of the people,—unsuccessful artists, half-educated teachers, pretentious girls, foolishly known as salesladies and stenographers.” When an American woman is practically inclined, however, “she is the most practical woman on earth.” This foreign observer was also very much interested in the “richly developed girl-bachelor’s life, with really genuine American systems of making a living.” As to the wives of millionaires, especially in New York, they have “no time for anything but sham society; no time even for serious reading sufficient to properly discharge the duties of membership on the women’s club committees.” The charitable work of American women comes in for much praise from this writer. Particularly sympathetic were the impressions made on her by college-settlement work. She also praises the Consumers’ League and its accomplishments.

That Americans have degenerated, especially in the East, is the final verdict. In Scandinavia, and in certain circles of English life, there is much more social dignity than in the United States, she avers. The “Four Hundred” of New York, and those who seek to imitate them, “as a rule are animated by hypocrisy or a fear of losing caste.” As to American libraries, says this writer, in conclusion, there are many of them, but they exist chiefly for the librarian or the vanity of the ones who donate them. There is only one complete library in the United States—the Boston Public Library—she declares (forgetting the existence of the Library of Congress). The others are really “gigantic cities of shelves whose chief function is to boast that they have more books than the others.”



BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

American Politics.—Mr. Edward Stanwood, writing in the *Atlantic Monthly* for February on "The Democratic Predicament," takes the ground that the logical consequence of the existing situation is that those members of the Democratic party who form the "Bryan wing," so called, should take permanent control of the organization, and should compel the withdrawal from the party of those "who call themselves Democrats, and who have no sympathy with their forward policy." These independent Democrats, it is predicted, would not become Republicans, but their situation would be akin to that of the supporters of Bell and Everett in the canvass of 1860. Most of them would probably be, and remain to the end, Independents and Mugwumps.—"Rhode Island: A State for Sale," is the title of Mr. Lincoln Steffens' arraignment of the Republican State machine in *McClure's* for February.—In *Success* for February, Mr. David Graham Phillips continues his "Confessions of a Politician."—"The Strong Man of Canada," Sir Wilfrid Laurier, is the subject of a character sketch by William Carman Roberts in the February number of *Munsey's*.—Canada's attitude toward us is set forth in the *World's Work* for February by W. S. Harwood, who has collected the opinions of three hundred representative Canadians, no one of which reveals any sentiment in favor of a political union. The laws, morals, and institutions of the people of the United States are sharply criticised by these Canadians, who are enthusiastic over the future of Canada.

National Financial Problems.—Several articles on present-day financial conditions appear in the February number of the *World's Work*. Mr. Charles M. Harvey describes "Our Growth in Wealth," indicating the immense expansion in the value of the country's property in the past half-century. Mr. S. A. Nelson contributes an article on "Wall Street as It Is," showing how the United States has become a nation of investors. "How Insurance Laws Work" is the subject of an important paper by Mr. Henry W. Lanier. This is the fifth of Mr. Lanier's papers on life insurance, and makes clear the need of federal control as a substitute for the present inconsistent and chaotic system of State regulations. Mr. Lanier shows that the enactments of no two States are alike on the subject of life insurance; that there have been cases in which decisions of the State and federal courts were exactly opposite; and that heavy taxation and inequitable laws formed the chief obstacles to the spreading of the benefits of life insurance. A promoter's account, from his own experience, of operations in his peculiar field forms one of the most interesting articles of the number.—Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's articles on "Frenzied Finance" in *Everybody's Magazine* continue to attract no small share of public attention.

American Industries.—In the *Cosmopolitan's* series on "Great Industries of the United States," the manufacture of boots and shoes is described in an illustrated article contributed to the February number by William R. Stewart.—The American automobile industry is the subject of an article contributed to *Leslie's Monthly* for February by Arthur N. Jervis.—In the same magazine, an engine designed by William Hoffman, of Buffalo, N. Y., to double the speed of railroad trains is described by Wallace Armstrong.—The ramifications of the beef trust form the theme of an article contributed to *Everybody's Magazine* for February by Charles Edward Russell.—In *Success* for February, the life-story of Robert Hoe, the famous inventor and manufacturer of printing presses, is related by Earl Mayo.—"The Advance of 'Wireless'" is the subject of an article by Eugene P. Lyle, Jr., in the *World's Work* for February. In this paper, Mr. Lyle brings up to date the story of the latest improvements in the development of wireless telegraphy.—Canada's second transcontinental railroad is described in *Success* by Lawrence J. Burpee.—"The Development of Nome" is the subject of an article in the February *Cosmopolitan* by Alfred H. Dunham.

Economics and Political Science.—Perhaps the general public is not yet fully aware that the scientific journals issued from the departments of economics and political science in several of our universities have discussions of live topics of the day, which are frequently quite as interesting as similar discussions in the more popular periodicals, and as a general rule more authoritative. As an instance of this, the article in the *Journal of Political Economy*, of the University of Chicago, for the current quarter, on "Conditions in the Cattle Industry," by William Hill, contains perhaps the clearest statement yet made anywhere relative to the facts revealed by recent investigations into the operations of the beef trust.—The same journal contains an illuminating article on foreign markets by Dr. Carl C. Plehn.—There is also a timely article on "The Present Financial and Monetary Condition of Japan," by F. Schroeder.—The subject of insurance is very fully discussed in the last number of the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (Philadelphia). There are papers on insurance investments; fire insurance expenses, profits, and problems; the true basis of fire insurance, and life insurance by fraternal orders.—American commercial organization is another topic discussed in this journal, while by way of comparison the British system of improving and administering ports and terminal facilities is described by J. Russell Smith, and an article on the relation of the government in Germany to the promotion of commerce is contributed by Solomon Huebner.—A great deal of material which has an important bearing on legislation and legislative procedure appears

in the successive issues of the *Political Science Quarterly*, of Columbia University. In the current issue there is a valuable paper on present problems of constitutional law, by Prof. J. W. Burgess.—Dr. H. R. Seager reviews the recent decisions of the courts on restrictive labor laws, and a paper on municipal corruption is contributed by Mr. Henry Jones Ford.—Dr. Georg Jellinek, of the University of Heidelberg, writes on parliamentary obstruction.—The University of Chicago convocation address by Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, on "Immigration: A Field Neglected by the Scholar," is printed in full in the January number of the *Commons*, the little magazine edited by Dr. Graham Taylor, of Chicago.—Another interesting paper in this month's *Commons* is that contributed by Paul U. Kellogg under the title "How Denver Stands by Judge Lindsey." This article describes the remarkable success of the Juvenile Court, of Denver, to which Judge Lindsey's personality has so powerfully contributed.—The January number of *Social Service* (New York) is almost wholly devoted to various proposed solutions of the drink problem, particularly the public-house trust movement in England, the Subway Tavern in New York, the South Carolina dispensary system, and the work of the Anti-Saloon League in many States.—In the *International Quarterly* for January there is a paper on "The Housing of City Masses," by Dr. E. R. L. Gould, and a defense of the famous Subway Tavern in New York, by Mr. Joseph Johnson, Jr.—In the *Arena* for January, J. Henniker Heaton, M. P., writes on "The Postal Savings-Banks of Great Britain; or, How the Government of England Fosters Saving Among the Poor."

Discussions of Social Questions.—The wonderful progress of socialism in Europe is well described by Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip in the February number of *Scribner's*. Mr. Vanderlip shows that even the most conservative of European governments have been forced to recognize, though reluctantly, the strength of the Socialist movement. Germany, for example, has accepted old-age pensions, which is nothing more or less than a part of the Socialist programme.—In his second paper on lynching, in *McClure's Magazine* for February, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker deals with the manifestations of the lynching spirit in the Northern States, especially in Ohio and Illinois. He cites two recent cases of lynchings, one in Springfield, Ohio, and the other in Danville, Ill., which illustrate diametrically opposite conceptions of public duty on the part of the local officials. The courage of the Danville sheriff in defying the mob is brought out in sharp contrast with the cowardly actions of the Ohio officials under similar circumstances.—The important question of the loss of life in accidents on American railroads is succinctly stated in a brief article contributed by Ellery Sedgwick to *Leslie's Monthly* for February.—Several articles in the current magazines offer encouragement to those communities which are endeavoring to beautify their street and park systems. Chicago's new park service is admirably described in the *Century Magazine* for February by Mr. Henry G. Foreman. Mary Bronson Hart, writing in the February number of the *World's Work*, makes many suggestions for the æsthetic improvement of such workaday utilities as shops, laundries, stables, and the back doors of dwellings.—In the same number of *World's Work* the successful development of Fresno, Cal., is described by Mr. French

Strother. Mr. Strother tells how a sandy waste has become, within a few years, a prosperous agricultural region; how the farmers of the vicinity have learned and applied scientific agricultural methods and coöperation in business; and how novel advertising methods have been employed to bring settlers into the community.—The first of Mr. Cleveland Moffett's series of articles on "The Shameful Misuse of Wealth," in *Success*, is devoted to Newport and the doings of the millionaire set there.

Travel and Adventure.—In the *Booklovers Magazine* for February there is an illustrated description of winter sports in the upper Engadine, by P. Henry.—There is also a bright paper in this number by Zaida Ben Yusuf, entitled "A Kyoto Memory."—The February *Outing* is more crowded than usual with entertaining accounts of travel and adventure far and near. "East End London at Play" is the title of a sketch by Mr. Ralph D. Paine. There is an illustrated article on boating on the Nile, by Alonzo Clark Robinson, while Edwyn Sandys describes the marshes of Manitoba; and Clifton Johnson, by means of text and photographs combined, gives us glimpses into the out-of-the-way life in the Louisiana swamps. This last-mentioned paper should be read in connection with the description of the Everglades of Florida by Edwin Asa Dix and John N. Macaigle, in the *Century*.—*McClure's* for February has one of A. W. Rolker's well-written stories about wild-animal trapping.—In the *Metropolitan Magazine*, Mr. Arthur Heming has a story and drawings to illustrate the method still employed by the Indian trappers and hunters in the wilderness of northern Canada, a region which the *Metropolitan Magazine* commissioned Mr. Heming to explore last summer.—"Making a Treaty with Menelik" is the title of an article contributed by Consul-General Skinner to the *World's Work* for February. It will be remembered that Mr. Skinner served as head of the expedition to Abyssinia which resulted in a treaty between the United States and King Menelik. The whole story of this mission is told by Mr. Skinner in his article.—In the February number of *Leslie's Monthly*, Miss Agnes C. Lant narrates the adventures of Vitus Bering, the discoverer of Alaska. This paper is the first of a series by Miss Lant which will deal with all the great discoveries of our western coast.—Prof. Henry Loomis Nelson writes in *Harper's* for February on the work of the great La Salle, the pioneer of our middle West.

Notes from the Seat of War.—Mr. John Fox, Jr., the American author and correspondent, who for obvious reasons is unable to tell very much about the actual fighting in the far East, gives in the February *Scribner's* an amusing account of the war correspondent's daily life in Manchuria. Mr. Thomas F. Millard, writing in the same magazine, discusses the future of the war correspondent, expressing the hope that, instead of being abolished, he will be formally recognized by the governments.—The only American magazine which seems to have any fresh material from the seat of war in the far East is *Leslie's Monthly*, which publishes in its February number two papers containing the personal narratives of officers in the Japanese army who participated in the siege of Port Arthur. The principal one of these narratives is that of a lieutenant of engineers, who describes the struggle which attended the taking of each one of the prominent forts. A sap-

per's story, on the other hand, describes the underground fighting and the tunneling.

Literary Papers.—The *Atlantic*, as usual, leads off among the popular magazines this month in distinctively literary articles. These include "Hans Breitmann as Romany Rye," by Elizabeth Robins Pennell; "George Herbert as a Religious Poet," by George H. Palmer; "Six Cleopatras," by William Everett; "Matthew Arnold Intime," by Peter A. Sillard; and the second installment of Thoreau's Journal.—In the *Booklovers Magazine* for February, Mr. T. M. Parrott outlines "The Beginnings of American Fiction," covering the "era of imitation."—An interesting paper by William Archer, in the *Cosmopolitan* for February, is entitled "Hendrik Ibsen, Philosopher or Poet?"—*Lippincott's Magazine* has an editorial appreciation of the late John Foster Kirk, who was for many years the editor of *Lippincott's*.—In *Munsey's* for February, Richard Le Gallienne discourses on "American Authors of Today."—Henry T. Fink writes characteristically, in *Harper's*, on "Love-Affairs of Heroines."

Religion, Theology, and Ethics in the Periodicals.—The American reading public is quite prone to pass by the "heavy" quarterlies, bimonthlies, and monthlies whose special province is the field of philosophy, and yet these special journals frequently contain much material of general interest. For example, the current number of the *Bibliotheca Sacra*, the Oberlin quarterly edited by Prof. G. F. Wright, has articles on "The Religious Life of Modern Japan," by George E. Albrecht; on "The Authority of the Hebrew Prophet," by Francis B. Denio; on "The Ecclesiastical Situation in Scotland," by James Lindsay; and on "What Is It to Be Educated?" by Charles W. Super. Dr. Edward M. Merrins contributes, from the medical point of view, the first of a series of papers discussing the question "Did Jesus Die of a Broken Heart?"—In the *Princeton Theological Review* for the current quarter, "The Multitude of Denominations" is the title of an informing paper by Dr. Meade C. Williams, while Dr. James S. Dennis writes authoritatively on "The Educational Campaign of Missions in India." Of a more abstract

character is Dr. James Lindsay's essay on "Greek Philosophy of Religion."—Among the titles appearing in the table of contents of the *Methodist Review* (New York) for January-February are "The Religious Life of Italy and Switzerland—A Contrast," by L. Oscar Kuhus; "Notes on the Book of Mormon," by E. B. T. Spencer; "Present-Day Methodist Preaching," by James Mudge; "Dante's Message to the Preacher," by R. J. Wyckoff; "Saint Paul as a Poet," by David Keppel; and "Science, and Science Falsely So Called," by William Love.—In the *Biblical World* (University of Chicago) there are studies in Old Testament prophecy, by President William R. Harper, and several interesting, brief articles on exploration and discovery in ancient ruins.—In the *Homiletic Review* (January), Dr. Charles E. Jefferson discusses "The Influence of Great Cities on the Sense of Personal Responsibility."—The *Missionary Review of the World* (January) gives a review of the past year by Robert E. Spear, and "The World's Outlook in 1905," by Dr. Arthur T. Pierson. *Association Men*, the magazine of the International Young Men's Christian Association, publishes in its January issue an editorial review of the association's progress during the past five years.—The *Catholic World* (New York) has articles on "American Education and the Mosely Commission," by J. C. Monaghan; on "The Catholic Revival in Holland," by "A Dutchman;" and on "The Present Position of Darwinism," by James J. Walsh.—In the *Open Court* (Chicago), Chauncey J. Hawkins writes on "Excavations and the Bible;" the Rev. Adolf Roeder on "Parsifal;" and Charles Kassel on "The Fall of the Temple," while "Image Worship" is discussed by Dr. Paul Carus, the editor.—In his other periodical, the *Monist* (quarterly, Chicago), Dr. Carus writes on "The Christian Doctrine of Resurrection;" A. J. Edmunds reviews "An Ancient Moslem Account of Christianity;" and William Benjamin Smith discusses "The Meaning of the Epithet Nazorean (Nazarene)."—There are papers in the *International Journal of Ethics* (Philadelphia) for the current quarter on "The Ethics of Gambling," by John A. Hobson; on "The Political and Ethical Aspects of Lynching," by Alfred P. Dennis; on "Carlyle's Ethics," by Charles J. Goodwin; and on "The Vivisection Problem," by Albert Leffingwell.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

England's Policy in Tibet.—Writing in the *Contemporary Review* for January, Mr. Alexander Ular says: "The Manchu dynasty did not want the effective suzerainty of Tibet, which they had abandoned long ago. They highly appreciated the gracious and skillful behavior of England, which strengthened their moral situation in the eyes of the Chinese and of the world. Actual superintendence or administration of Tibet would have occasioned them expense and other disagreeable consequences; mere moral prestige without any necessity for action was far better. A splendid performance of 'saving-the-face policy' was to be accomplished. The ratification of the Anglo-Tibetan treaty was not only to oblige, mutually, China and England, and to establish a community of views that was likely to be of great consequence just at this moment, but it was also to strike a great blow against the specter of Russian supremacy in the far East. More, even,—it was to bring about a community of interests that could successfully oppose any extravagant imperialist tendencies

of victorious Japan. In spite of such beautiful prospects for England and the Manchu dynasty, the enterprise has resulted in a complete failure."

Universities in India.—The Bishop of Madras gives, in the *Nineteenth Century* for January, a rather pessimistic account of "Higher Education in India." Of necessity, university education, which is purely European, has been divorced from religion, yet the native tradition has always held religion and education as one. Teaching in the English language is another drawback, as the effort to acquire knowledge and at the same time express ideas in a new language is often too much for students. "It is safe to say that not more than four thousand of those who matriculate every year at the five universities are *bona fide* university students, intending to study for a degree. This is not a large number out of a population of three hundred millions. But it is too large for real efficiency. It is no exaggeration, I think, to say that at least half, if not two-thirds,

of the students at the various colleges ought not to be studying at a university at all. My own experience would be that out of every hundred students who are reading either English literature or philosophy at the universities, about sixty are quite unfitted to study these subjects as they ought to be studied at a university. Neither their abilities nor their previous teaching in any way fit them for a university education."

A Museum of "International Peace from War."—The famous Polish writer and philanthropist, Jean de Bloch, established in Poland, some years ago, a museum in which was to be gathered a complete assortment of implements of war and relics, and representations which were intended to illustrate how terrible a great war is, and "thus further the cause of peace." In year 1900, this museum was established formally at Luzerne, Switzerland, and in the year just past (1904) it has been practically completed. In addition to implements of war and all sorts of munitions of war, the museum contains paintings and sculpture depicting scenes of war, allegorical and realistic, particularly illustrating the suffering brought about by the "international revelry." In the *Revue Universelle* (Paris), Jules Rais devotes several pages, with illustrations, to a description of this museum.

Will the War Rejuvenate the Orient?—An Italian political economist (Gino Arias), writing in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), considers the social causes of the Russo-Japanese war. He regards the attitude of Western nations in the Orient as purely mercenary, and asserts that the profits derived from "introducing civilization" are "often the result of trafficking with conscience, if not with infamy." Russia, he declares, is in the unique position of asking, not markets so much as the missing elements to enable her to utilize her latent agricultural and mineral resources through union with the population and free capital of China. The war he ascribes, not to personal ambition on the part of the Czar, but to pressure from the landed classes. For Japan, he continues, the war is a national necessity; she must expand or die. This writer sees in the competition of the rejuvenated Orient only an additional spur to our own civilization and the betterment of all conditions of labor the world over. As to the final result of the war itself, he believes that "even if victory should ultimately fall to Russia, nothing can stop the victorious march of the Japanese among Asiatic peoples, seconded as it is by them."

Kropotkin on the Russian Revolution.—The well-known Russian author, social reformer, and philosophical anarchist, Prince Peter Kropotkin, contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* an article on the present internal condition of the empire. It is too late, he insists, to settle the question by mere petty concessions. "It is said that they think at the Winter Palace to pass a few measures in favor of the peasants, but to avoid making any constitutional concessions. However, this will not help. Any improvement in the condition of the peasants will be welcome. But if they think that therefore they will be able to limit their concessions to the invitation of a few representatives of the provinces to the Council of State, where they may take part in its deliberations, this is a gross mistake. Such a measure might have pacified their minds in 1881, if Alexander III. had honestly fulfilled the last

will of his father. It might have had, perhaps, some slight effect ten years ago, if Nicholas II. had listened then to the demand of the zemstvos. But now this will do no longer. The energy of the forces set in motion is too great to be satisfied with such a trifling result. And if they do not make concessions very soon, the court party may easily learn the lesson which Louis Philippe learned in the last days of February, 1848."

What Pushkin Means to Russia.—A bright essay on the Russian poet Pushkin appears in the Dutch review *De Gids* (Haarlem). Pushkin, says the writer, "was a man of liberal views—too liberal for the authorities—who transferred him from the capital to a post in a minor town; but he was beloved of the people, and his memory is venerated in all parts of the Czar's dominions. Russia is poor in statues, and those which she does possess are not works of art, but the statue of Pushkin in Moscow, his native place, is a notable exception."

How Russia's Subjects Regard the War.—In Schwarzort, East Prussia, recently, the waves left on the seashore a corked bottle. It contained a sheet of paper on which there were written with pencil the following words in the Letish language: "We, too, are driven to the slaughter, like many others before us. Why does not our Emperor Nicholas think of those thousands of poor widows and orphans who after their husbands and fathers are dead become the prize of misery? He has already sacrificed innumerable masses to the war, and yet he wants more and more. Now we, too, have to go there, where men are murdering one another, men who never have seen one another and have no reason whatever to fight. When will this murdering cease? Is the Czar quite insatiable? Oh, fisher! if you find these words on the shore, remember us, destined to die, in your prayer, and pray God that he might give us peace soon." In commenting on this piece of news which it publishes in its columns, the Polish newspaper *Wiek Nowy* (New Age, of Lemberg, Austria) says: "The Letish language of this message, entirely unknown to the Prussian fishermen who found it, gives the best proof that there is no invention. It is a real voice of despair of a Letish marine against the cruelty of the war, and at the same time a significant sign that the war with Japan does not claim the sympathy of the Baltic provinces, and that really all the people want immediate peace."

Russia's Sea and River-Borne Commerce.—The article on "The Development of Russia's Merchant Marine" which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* recently, and portions of which were reproduced in this REVIEW for November, has been supplemented by a second article in the French review on the same general subject by the same writer, M. J. Charles-Roux. In this second article, M. Charles-Roux considers the ports which send out and receive traffic carried in the transportation lines, treated of in our article last month. Considering these sea, lake, and river ports in order, this French writer begins with the White Sea and its principal town, Archangel. The White Sea, he says, has really belonged to Russia longer than any other of her waterways. It was the only border sea that belonged to Russia at the time of Peter the Great. With its extreme northern position, however, far from the great maritime routes of the world, locked by ice for

several months of the year, inhospitable even during the summer, and bordering a poor country, the White Sea has had but very little part in the economic development of Russia. Despite the establishment and operation of the railroad through Perm to Siberia, Archangel as a port of entry and export scarcely takes fourth rank among Russian ports. If the number of vessels which enter the White Sea annually (462) is relatively large, the proportion of steam vessels (43) is comparatively very small. Next in order the Caspian Sea is considered, this body of water playing a much larger part in the economic development of Russia. On it there is a fleet of 800 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 230,000, of which 263 are steam vessels. Astrakhan, if ranked by the amount of tonnage arriving at and leaving its ports, is the greatest Russian port, surpassing Odessa by nearly 3,000,000 tons yearly. The largest factor in the commercial importance of Astrakhan, and indeed of the whole Caspian, has been the production and transportation of petroleum and naphtha. This dates from 1878, when the first line of petroleum transports was inaugurated between Baku and Astrakhan. The rôle of the Pacific in the maritime history of the Russian Empire was even more modest when the present war broke out. The story of Vladivostok and Dalny has been told many times. This brings us naturally to Russian shipping interests in the Black Sea. This has increased wonderfully during the past decade, since the opening and operation of the Trans-Siberian and Trans-Manchurian railways, practically connecting the Black Sea with the Pacific Ocean. Other ports on the Pacific, such as Nicolaievsk, are destined to feel still further the impetus of the volunteer fleet, which was born in the Black Sea. The two most important of Russia's bordering seas are, of course, the Black Sea and the Baltic. These two absorb 96 per cent. of the sea-borne commerce. Eighty-five per cent. of Russian exports, and 90 per cent. of the empire's imports, pass over the Baltic. Now Odessa has actually become the first maritime port of Russia, with a total tonnage of 5,570,536. This is the great grain port. Besides, there are the Black Sea and the Sea of Azov, the other important ports of Nicolaïew, Eupatoria, Kertch, Taganrog, Marioupol, Batum, and others. In passing, M. Charles-Roux makes the point that the commerce of the Black Sea is mostly in the hands of the Russians, while that of the Baltic remains largely under the control of foreigners,—Germans, English, Swedes, particularly,—and even the Russian bottoms are generally manned by Finnish seamen. The principal reason for the languishing of steam-vessel construction in Russia, says this French writer, is the high price of metal and the comparatively small number of expert shipbuilders.

The Baltic Fleet and the Danes.—A spirited description of the passage of the Baltic fleet through Danish waters is given a commanding place in the illustrated magazine *Hver 8 Dag* (Copenhagen). The writer, formerly an officer in the Danish navy, comments on the passage of the fleet and its bearing on a possible future war between Russia and England. His description and comment indicate that the Danish navy is stronger and better equipped than the rest of the world had imagined. He says on this point: "Ten of our best vessels did police duty while the Russians passed. If it be asked, What could our small ships do against these mighty ironclads? we reply, See how helpless they are in our narrow passages and shallow waters.

They dare not proceed until all dangerous places are indicated by chartered private steamers. This is in time of peace. But what would it be in time of war, when we extinguish our beacon lights and call in our scouting vessels? We have seen battleships of every nation go aground in these waters. We know all our coasts; our vessels are of the right type; and we know how to manage them. Our waters are our strength; in them we can defend our neutrality."

Japanese War Capacity.—Many economists, at the commencement of the Russo-Japanese war, says Prof. Ozaki Goto (writing in *La Revue*), were of opinion that Japan had neither military nor financial resources to carry on a war, but they have been deceived. The professor then endeavors to throw a little light on the economic condition of Japan. In 1893, the population of Japan was nearly forty-one millions; in 1903, it had risen to forty-six millions. Can the country feed this continually growing population? The Japanese live on rice principally, and the increase in the production of rice has kept pace with the increase in the population. The Japanese are essentially an agricultural people, but of late years they have also been actively engaged in commerce, and in various industries. In the years 1894-1903, the foreign trade of Japan has almost tripled itself, and simultaneously there has been a steady accumulation of public and private means. Nor has the peasant remained outside this movement. More sober than the most sober of European peasants, and requiring nothing but a little rice for his sustenance, the rest of his harvest forms the principal source of his revenue; that is to say, his rice and his raw silk have become two marketable commodities, increasing in value every year. Another important element in the prosperity of the country is the improved condition of the working classes. Not only have their wages risen, but there has been a good deal of legislation in their favor, and the laws affecting them are being constantly amended to their advantage. A rapid survey like this shows that for a population growing at the rate of 10 per cent. in ten years, with a foreign trade tripled, agriculturists selling their produce at double the original price, and workmen receiving double their former wages, all in the same space of time, and without speaking of the profits of the capitalists, etc., which have also increased, Japan's budget has easily tripled itself in these ten years. During the present year, exports and imports have increased at a tremendous rate; and since the superiority of the Japanese navy has been confirmed, there is more security than ever for free communication with the Japanese ports. In conclusion, says the writer, the patriotism of the forty-six million souls is incited in the highest degree; and, in the face of a national danger, it goes without saying that the people are ready to sacrifice everything for their Emperor and their country. Was not a miserable sum of one hundred and sixty-seven thousand francs all that the public treasury of a nation of thirty millions possessed when Napoleon engaged France in a long campaign? We cannot tell how many years will pass before Japan comes to her last penny.

The Italian Language in Malta.—A detailed history of the entire language question in Malta is given by Signor Nicocolo Roncola in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome). He claims that the Maltese are really Italian, and that there is no justification in arbitrarily proscribing the Italian language. He declares that after the

thirteenth century a large number of colonists from Sicily were brought from the island, and that, though not able to impose the Italian dialect on the Arab-speaking population, they did succeed in making Italian the official language. From 1530 on, although the rulers were French, Spanish, and English, Italian held its own in all printed documents, and even up to 1813 the British authorities continued to publish the official acts in Italian. After the treaty of Paris, in 1814, which gave Malta and Gozo, definitely to Great Britain, official documents began to bear English translations on their backs. Since then there have been many protests by English governors against the use of Italian, and several commissions sent to study the question of a change. When the unification of Italy began, Jesuits and Clericals waged, from Malta, a constant war against the union and against the suppression of Papal temporal power. Signor Roncola charges the English with aiding the Clericals in their campaign against the Liberals, which has resulted even in fighting. Thus, he concludes that the Italian language and culture have two enemies,—the British imperial and military interests, and militant clericalism. Both these elements, he thinks, are to be traced in the events of recent years, which have practically accomplished the British desires in ousting Italian as an official tongue, the resistance of the people having weakened.

Beginnings of the French Press.—Journalism proper began in France with the establishment of the *Gazette de France* (1631). This, however, writes Henry Bordeaux, in the *Correspondant*, was nothing but a weekly issue of official notes, with the health of the king as its chief interest. The *Journal des Savants* (1665) and the *Mercure Galant* (1672) were chiefly concerned with science and art. The first French daily was the *Journal de Paris*, which did not appear till 1777. It is remarkable that whenever journalism made any effort to emancipate itself it met with determined opposition from those in power. There were, however, few journals before the Revolution, but there was a public opinion, and a singularly powerful one, too. Whence came this public opinion? From whom did it receive its orders? How was its judgment formed? From the organization called the "Nouvelles," replies the writer, and M. Frantz Funck-Brenano is the author of a book on the subject. Their influence and their mode of propaganda are surely little known. We learn that any one might be a *nouvelliste*. The first to "assist" at a festival, an exhibition, a military review, or any other event, and give an account of it, was a *nouvelliste*. A *nouvelliste* is one who knows the latest news every day; he knows everything; follows everything; takes part in everything. As the state became centralized, people in the provinces became less satisfied with local news, while no Parisian remained satisfied with the news of his quarter. It was this curiosity which created the *nouvelles*. Soon the *nouvelliste* had his provincial and foreign correspondents, and correspondents at the court, in the ministry, and at the embassies, and the field became so large that the *nouvelliste* found it necessary to specialize. There were *nouvelles d'état*, *nouvelles du Parnasse*, *nouvelles dramatiques*, *nouvelles militaires*, *nouvelles voyageurs*, and *nouvelles turlupins* (conundrum journalists). But where did the public of Paris go to learn the news published orally? The editorial offices were the great Paris

gardens—the Luxembourg, the Tuileries, the Palais-Royal. At first the news was published in the most frequented parts, the first point being the Pont-Neuf. As time went on, the *nouvelles*, who had first sought out their public, recognized that the public, having acquired the taste for news, was ready to follow them wherever they chose to go. The Luxembourg Gardens became the center of the *Journal des Débats Littéraires*, and Voltaire, Diderot, and Rousseau honored the assembly with their presence. The Tuileries Gardens was the center of political journalism and the journalism of fashion, sport, etc. The most famous of the Paris news gardens was the Palais-Royal. In those days, existence could not be imagined possible if you could not ask news of every one you met. It was a sort of bureau of correspondence, and strangers spoke to each other as neighbors. Here it was that the *nouvelles* invented treaties, displaced ministries, made sovereigns live or die at their pleasure, for here they pretended to know the operations of courts and the secrets of cabinets. As the Revolution approached, the *nouvelliste* had gained in importance, in authority, in credit, and the public, not satisfied with meeting him in the public promenades, followed him to the café. The *nouvelliste* became the soul of the café.

The Australian Aborigines.—The Hon. J. Mildred Creed, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* for January, refutes the old belief that the Australian aborigines are the lowest of all races in the scale of intelligence. That idea originally spread owing to the lowness in the scale of intelligence of the first white settlers. The blacks learn rapidly, and the standard of success in their schools is higher than that of white schools. The girls make excellent servants. All aboriginals who have opportunities learn English thoroughly, and never use pidgin English.

Hall Caine on the Religious Novel.—The novel of the future "will be religious in the highest and best sense just in the degree in which it is permeated by the sense of life." Thus, Mr. Hall Caine thinks (in an article in the *World's Work and Play*) we shall have more and more religious novels, and that novelists will tend more and more to be those endowed with the best minds, the richest natures, the strongest souls. Nevertheless, Mr. Hall Caine does not think that a good novel can ever be "a conscious amalgam of fiction and religion, or that the novelist who has any sense of art can at any time allow himself to 'mount the pulpit.' . . . If the writer of fiction, while in the act of writing, is not wholly occupied by the human story he is telling—the joys and sorrows, the loves and hates, of his characters—the result will be a bad novel." Once, the novelist confesses, he projected and partly wrote a story based on that of Mary Magdalene, but that novel will never see the light. The religious novel, as Mr. Hall Caine conceives it, which is to dominate future fiction, deals neither with the scenes nor characters of the religious world, nor yet with religious dogmas, "but with the religious sense in man, the feeling for the supernatural, the consciousness of God's governance of the universe, and that deepest of all questions—the meaning of life." He continues: "And in order to write a religious novel of this broadest character it is first of all necessary that the novelist should be a man who has lived much, felt much, read much, and thought much, and with that equipment has set about to use his own vehicle in its

only legitimate way, not as a sermon or philosophical treatise."

A Comparison of Goethe and Beethoven.—A study of these two great Germans from a psychological point of view appears in the *Grande Revue* (Paris), by Martjal Douël. Goethe could not understand Beethoven, and Beethoven was greatly disappointed in Goethe when the two met. As Goethe became older, says the writer, "his ideal grew more restrained; and the wide and magnificent vision of the world which marks the masterpieces of his maturity gradually gave place to a narrower and more artificial conception of man and of the universe." With Beethoven, on the other hand, it was a constant expanding of his genius and his personality; and the spectacle of his obstinate struggle against misfortunes and ever-growing difficulties is both admirable and tragic. His whole life was one of "intimate" suffering; "deceived successively in his hopes, in his joys, and especially in his affections, he always returned to the only consolation left to him,—to give voice to the deep moans of his tortured soul, and thus express the inexpressible of the human heart. Hence the poignant moments of so many adagios in which weeps the infinite tenderness of his soul, and to understand them to the full in their truth and spontaneity, we should hear them in our darkest hours. Goethe's endeavor was to understand, whereas that of Beethoven was to express himself."

Woman and Music.—In *Occasional Papers* (London), Mr. J. Cuthbert Hadden, who writes on "Woman and Music," tries to explain why we have as yet had no female Bach, or Beethoven, or Wagner. He thinks it is due in a great measure to inadequate training. He writes: "As a matter of fact, granting to woman, for the moment, the possession of the heaven-sent power, she has had no real opportunity for developing it. Until quite recent times she has been altogether excluded from the field of art, while man has had hundreds of years to develop his intellect and emotions in an art direction. The construction of great works is not, it must be remembered, the outcome merely of imaginative impulse. It needs but a glance at the lives of the great composers to show us that the high gift of original creation has ever had to be fostered by active care and congenial surroundings. And it is just here that woman, either of choice or of necessity, has failed to secure the advantages and conditions necessary for her development as an artist. Take the typical illustration of Mendelssohn and his sister Fanny. The Mendelssohn biographers are unanimous in their testimony that the lady had the finer musical organization, and in her early years offered the greater musical promise. But what happened? The training of brother and sister gradually diverged—stopped short, in fact, with the girl, while the boy was encouraged and assisted by every available means. It was the old case of 'arrested development'—a probable genius being bound down by the dead weight of conventionality, social law, and unreasoning prejudice. Even now, so little chance of real, hearty encouragement has the woman who enters the field of musical composition that the very circumstance of her being a woman is made a kind of pretext for criticising her work on different lines from the work of men. 'A very good composition—for a woman' is what the critic, in effect, usually remarks."

Remedies for Alcoholism.—The ravages of alcoholism in France are causing much alarm among French thinkers, and the magazines of the republic are publishing many articles on the subject. In *La Revue*, Stéphane-Pol makes various suggestions with reference to the cure of the terrible evil. His proposals are: the abolition of the right to manufacture alcohol as food, except for pharmaceutical purposes; state monopoly in regard to industrial alcohol; in default of an injunction against the manufacture of alcohol, means to restrict the consumption of it; persuasive means to abandon the drink habit—societies, homes of rest, books, etc.; protection of the children of drunken parents; coercive measures for the cure or punishment of habitual drinkers; the exclusion from office of Deputies, judges, doctors, teachers, etc., of all persons addicted to alcoholism; energetic repression and more efficacious supervision to prevent fraud in the manufacture of fermented drinks. Capt. H. de Malleray, who writes in the *Revue de Paris* on "Alcohol in the Canteen," first describes the alcoholism of the French canteen, and then gives an account of the efforts at reform of the Dutch coöperative canteen, and is convinced that a similar system might be tried with advantage in France. The canteens in Holland are provided with papers and books, and their clients may read or write and partake of refreshments at a very cheap rate. The result is that tea and coffee, milk and cocoa, have gradually come to take the place of beer and alcohol, and though the profits are small, the canteen prospers.

The Organ of Hearing.—The important part played by the organ of hearing in the life of man is the subject of a kindly and sympathetic article in the *Deutsche Revue* by Dr. Ernst Urbantschitsch. He observes that the blind command much more sympathy than the deaf, and concedes that, for the young, at any rate, blindness may be a more serious affliction than deafness. He considers some of the typical psychological manifestations of deafness in different stages. In the early stage, the deaf seek to conceal the defect, and when they do not hear what is said to them are very shy about attracting notice to themselves by asking the speaker to repeat his words. In later stages, the deaf become irritable, then suspicious or distrustful; and, in the final stage, when the struggle against the malady has become too great, they become resigned, and accommodate themselves to a mode of life in accordance with their condition.

Has the Speed of the Gulf Stream Increased?—The report that the Gulf Stream now runs with greater speed than formerly, and its influence on the time required for the crossing of the Atlantic, furnishes the theme for an article, by Dr. W. Brennecke, in the German magazine *Umschau* (Frankfort). Dr. Brennecke analyzes the climatic and geographical reasons for the existence and continuance of the Gulf Stream, and points out how the change in the wind currents and the density of the atmosphere all affect the life and power of the famous current. This is chiefly dependent, he points out, on the location and extent of the areas of high and low pressure over the sea. A series of carefully made reports, over a long period of time, by the German Marine Observatory, would seem to indicate that the Gulf Stream now moves more rapidly than formerly.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

A FEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY.

FOR each succeeding volume of Mr. James Ford Rhodes' "History of the United States" (Macmillan) the critics have only words of praise. The fifth volume, covering the years 1864-66, has recently come from the press. In the beginning of this volume, Mr. Rhodes gives a brief recapitulation of the salient events of the Civil War, and follows this with a detailed account of Sherman's Georgia campaign. Grant's Appomattox campaign, Lee's surrender, and the assassination of Lincoln are all treated within the limits of a single chapter. A long chapter is devoted to an account of society at the North during the war, and a similar chapter to society at the South. Another chapter is assigned to the treatment of prisoners of war. The volume closes with a fair and impartial account of reconstruction. Mr. Rhodes' treatment of the war itself, and of the issues growing out of the war, is that of an unbiased historian, and will meet, we think, with the cordial approbation of Southern as well as Northern participants in that great struggle.



JAMES FORD RHODES.

The Hon. John A. Kasson's essay on "The Evolution of the Constitution of the United States of America" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), originally written by request of the Constitutional Centennial Commission, in 1887, is now published in a form convenient for general circulation. In his essay, Mr. Kasson gives a clear but condensed recital of the conditions preliminary to the original "Confederacy;" a statement of the infirmities and ineffectiveness of the Articles of Confederation; the recognition of the failure of those articles by the patriots of the Revolution; the successive steps by which they sought the consent of the States to a general convention to provide a substitute government; and, finally, the manner in which they accomplished the organization of a nation. Included in this volume is a useful history of the Monroe Doctrine, also by Mr. Kasson.

Coincident with the Hon. James Bryce's recent visit to the United States is the appearance of a new, enlarged, and revised edition of "The Holy Roman Empire" (Macmillan). This work, originally issued forty years ago, has been the standard. This latest edition has taken into account fully the results of modern historical research. A concluding chapter, sketching the constitution of the new German Empire and the forces which have given it strength and cohesion, has been appended. A chronological table and three maps

have also been added, and the book has been revised throughout. Typographically it is very satisfactory.

"Arbitration and the Hague Court" (Houghton, Mifflin), by John W. Foster, president of the National Arbitration Conference, was prepared in response to a resolution of the recent Mohonk Arbitration Conference. Mr. Foster, who has had a longer and more varied diplomatic career than perhaps any other American, gives in this volume a brief review of the facts and conditions leading up to the famous Hague Peace Conference, and also characterizes the personnel and spirit of the conference.

A useful and comprehensive volume is Mr. Charles Edmund Akers' "History of South America, 1854-1904" (Dutton). We have had works on the Spanish conquest of the southern continent, and more or less fragmentary studies of sections of South America, but this is the first comprehensive history in English of the last half-century of the South American states—since they attained independence from Spanish control. Mr. Akers has lived many years in South America, and has been a journalist in almost all portions of the continent. While we cannot vouch for the accuracy of all his history, it can be seen that he has laid under tribute all the important works of information by Spanish and Portuguese chroniclers, and authors of other nationalities.



SIMON BOLIVAR.

(From a bronze tablet. Frontispiece [reduced] from "History of South America.")

He has treated the movements, tendencies, and facts which have influenced the entire continent, and has then endeavored to show how the national character of the people of each state assumed distinctive features as a result of local conditions, modified by foreign immigration and other facts. There are some interesting and new illustrations.

Miss Agnes C. Laut asks us to readjust our notions of the early history of the western United States. Contrary to the notions imbibed at school, she says in her work "The Pathfinders of the West" (Macmillan), Marquette, Joliet, and La Salle did not discover the vast region beyond the Great Lakes.

Twelve years before these explorers ever thought of visiting the Great West, two of the most intrepid *voyageurs* that France ever produced, the *Sieur Pierre Esprit Radisson* and the *Sieur Médard Chouart Groseilliers*, fur traders of Three Rivers, Quebec, who sacrificed all their earthly possessions to the enthusiasm of discovery, explored and made known the great American West. Miss Laut is doing a work which deserves well of historians in following up to their sources the stories and traditions of the Western history of our country and retelling the stories in her characteristically clear style. This volume is excellently printed, and is illustrated with many pictures. There is an historical appendix, and an index.

One of the useful and at the same time interesting books which have been the outcome of the war fever which seems to be in the air is Charles Welsh's "Famous Battles of the Nineteenth Century" (Wessels). This is a collection of descriptions of battles in the British war with Burma, in the South American war for independence, in the Belgian war for independence, in the struggle of Texas with Mexico, in the British war with Afghanistan, in our Mexican War, in the Crimean War, and in the Indian Mutiny. These descriptions are by famous journalists, among them Archibald Forbes, George A. Henty, Maj. Arthur Griffiths, and other well-known writers. The volume is edited by Mr. Welsh, with nine full-page illustrations.

"A Short History of Ancient Egypt" (Dana Estes) has been written by Percy E. Newberry, author of "The Amherst Papyri," and John Gastrang, reader in Egyptian archæology in the University of Liverpool. The materials for this work, the authors say in their preface, have been collected for more than a generation. The intention is to outline ancient Egypt from the founding of the monarchy for three thousand years until the decadence of the empire. The volume is provided with maps.

Miss Ida M. Tarbell's two-volume "History of the Standard Oil Company" (McClure, Phillips & Co.) is an exhaustive and yet succinct presentation of the rise and development of a great American industry. The book is chiefly concerned with the methods by which the corporation whose name appears in the title arrogated to itself the control of the petroleum output in this country. Closely related to the main theme is the dramatic story of the rush to the oil fields in the '60's, and of the fortunes that were made and lost in the wild speculation that followed. There is in Miss Tarbell's treatment of the stubborn fight made by the oil producers against the encroachments of the refiners' mo-

nopoly a sympathetic note and at the same time a sureness of touch such as only a first hand acquaintance with the facts could give. Her book is in every sense a history,—not an economic dissertation. Its disclosures of the manipulations by which a few men in Cleveland in the early '70's secured virtual control of the railroad interests of the country for purposes of personal gain should add force to the popular demand for anti-rebate legislation, as voiced by President Roosevelt.

Hiram College, Ohio, has gained a national reputation through the lives of two of its presidents, one of whom, James A. Garfield, became President of the United States, while the other, Dr. Burke A. Hinsdale, achieved in the teachers' profession an eminence almost as great. The college has had a history of more than half a century, which is fittingly commemorated in a volume prepared by Dr. F. M. Green, with an introduction by Prof. E. B. Wakefield (Cleveland: O. S. Hubbell Printing Company).

BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

There is more history than biography in the attractive volume by Albert Bigelow Paine entitled "Thomas Nast, His Period and His Pictures" (Macmillan). To



MISS AGNES C. LAUT.



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THOMAS NAST.

write of Thomas Nast's period is to write of one of the most interesting epochs in our history. It was during, and for twenty years after, the Civil War that the great cartoonist did his important work, and made his pic-

tures a part of the documentary story to which all the historians must go if they are to write a satisfactory record of those times. Many of Nast's most famous cartoons are reproduced in this volume; and the whole story of his connection with the Tweed exposures, the Greeley campaign of 1872, and other important episodes in our political history is told in detail.

The new biographies of Jackson and Clay, noticed in recent numbers of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, are closely followed by the "Life of Thomas Hart Benton," by William M. Meigs (Lippincott). All these works have points in common, not only in the subject-matter, but in method of treatment as well. Each one of the three works makes use of materials lately discovered, and also of conversations with aged contemporaries of the statesmen whose lives are narrated. Benton, the great Missourian, outlived both Jackson and Clay, and many persons are now living who knew the aged Senator in his latter years. His daughter, the widow of General Frémont, died only a year or two ago, in California. To the people of the West, especially, the lives of these pioneer statesmen of their section will always have a peculiar fascination.

Mr. Peyton F. Miller, a lawyer of Hudson, N. Y., has written an entertaining series of personal sketches, entitled "A Group of Great Lawyers of Columbia County, New York" (privately printed). An unusual number of men of national reputation have at one time or another graced the bar of Columbia County, including such names as Martin Van Buren, Samuel J. Tilden, Robert Livingston, Chancellor Robert R. Livingston, Edward Livingston, and others whose careers have been hardly less noteworthy. Members of the bar of New York State will find Mr. Miller's pages crowded with interesting reminiscences of the great lawyers of the past.

Miss Geraldine Brooks, whose "Dames and Daughters of Colonial Days" has done so much to renew the acquaintance of American women with their foremothers, has written an interesting and instructive volume on "Dames and Daughters of the French Court" (Crowell). Following essentially the same method which she pursued in her sketching of American types, Miss Brooks relates the stories of some of the most interesting careers in French history. As is indicated in the title, Miss Brooks views these women in their character as members of French households; and it is from this intimate and unusual point of view that all her sketches are written. The women whose lives are treated in this volume are Madame de Sévigné, Madame de Lafayette, Madame Geoffrin, Mademoiselle de Lespinasse, Madame Roland, Madame Le Brun, Madame de Staël, Madame Récamier, Madame Valmore, and Madame Rémusat.

Gen. James Grant Wilson has written a two-volume account of Thackeray's visits to the United States in the years 1852-53 and 1855-56 (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Interspersed through the text of these volumes are numerous drawings by Thackeray, facsimiles of letters, and other interesting *memorabilia* of Thackeray's sojourn in our country. Appended to General Wilson's work is a bibliography of Thackeray in the United States by Frederick S. Dickson.

"Bravest of the Brave" is the title given to a sketch of Capt. Charles de Langlade, by Mr. Publius V. Lawson, of Menasha, Wis. Langlade was one of the French-Canadian pioneers of Michigan and Wisconsin,—a warrior who fought with the French and Indians against Braddock and Washington in the French and Indian

War, and later aided the British in our War for Independence. For these latter services he was rewarded by the British Government with the post of Indian superintendent at Green Bay. From materials in the possession of the Wisconsin Historical Society, and from other sources, Mr. Lawson has constructed a most interesting sketch of this ardent pioneer and fighter.

Quite a number of letters written by John Ruskin to Charles Eliot Norton have been gathered into chronological order and published in a two-volume work (Houghton, Mifflin), with a number of interesting and intimate portraits. Professor Norton was one of Ruskin's closest friends, and these letters make an excellent biography of the great Englishman. In his preface, Professor Norton expresses the reluctance with which he brought himself to publish these letters. Many of the most intimate portions are omitted, the omissions being indicated in the text. The English artist-philosopher in these letters expresses his opinions on American and European politics, sketches his friends, and gives glimpses of his work. The first letter is dated at Denmark, October 31, 1855, and the last at Brantwood, March 3, 1887.

The "Great Englishmen of the Sixteenth Century" whom Mr. Sidney treats under this title (Scribners) are Sir Thomas More, Sir Philip Sidney, Edmund Spenser, Francis Bacon, and William Shakespeare. He has added two other chapters to the book, entitled "The Spirit of the Sixteenth Century" and "Foreign Influences on Shakespeare." The volume is based on a series of lectures delivered before the Lowell Institute in 1903. They are, of course, developments of Mr. Lee's studies and work in his capacity of editor of "The Dictionary of National Biography." Mr. Lee, by the way, is a corresponding member of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

A complete and authoritative "Narrative of the Career of Hernando De Soto," as found in the original documents, chiefly based on the diary of Rodrigo Rangel, his private secretary, together with an account of the great expedition to the Southwest of the United States, has been translated from Oviedo's "Historia General y Natural de las Indias" by Buckingham Smith, and has been issued in two volumes by A. S. Barnes & Co. There is an historical introduction by Edward Gaylord Bourne, professor of history in Yale University. The conquest of Florida is told by a knight who was a member of the expedition. Several portraits, hitherto unpublished, of De Soto himself appear in the volume, to which is appended his life and some of his letters.

It seems quite appropriate that an enthusiastic Floridian should have written "The Story of Ponce de Leon." Mr. Florian A. Mann, author of the "Story of the Huguenots," has made a very readable little volume out of the life-story of that soldier, knight, and gentleman whose quest for the Fountain of Youth led to the discovery of Florida. The book has been printed for the author at De Land, Fla.

One of the most interesting characters in English history was Sir Walter Raleigh. To Englishmen of today he represents the genesis of British imperialism in the modern sense. To Americans he stands for that sixteenth-century daring and love of adventure to which the English colonies in the new world owed their existence. The new sketch of Raleigh, by Sir Rennell Rodd, in the "English Men of Action" series (Macmillan) is a well-written account of a career that was full of dramatic incident.

LITERATURE AND CRITICISM.

In "The Wampum Library of American Literature" (Longmans), Prof. Brander Matthews edits a volume of "American Familiar Verse," while William Morton Payne contributes selections of "American Literary Criticism." The Wampum Library, we may remind our readers, has been planned to include a series of uniform volumes, each of which shall deal with the development of a single literary species, presenting the evolution of this definite form here in the United States, and presenting, in chronological sequence, typical examples chosen from the writings of American authors. No selection has been made, however, from any living American writer whose birth has occurred since December 31, 1850. In Mr. Payne's book of literary criticism the twelve authors from whom selections have been made all belong to the nineteenth century. These are the authors chosen: Richard Henry Dana, George Ripley, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Edgar Allan Poe, Margaret Fuller Ossoli, James Russell Lowell, Walt Whitman, Edwin Percy Whipple, Edmund Clarence Stedman, William Dean Howells, Sidney Lanier, and Henry James. In each case the selection made is of a character which seems to the editor to illustrate in the most typical manner the critical ideas, methods, and interests of the author. It is believed that Professor Matthews' book is the first attempt ever made to select the best specimens of familiar verse by American authors only. Naturally, the list of verse-makers from whose productions selections were made is much longer than Mr. Payne's list of American critics. Readers will find in the group very many names made familiar by our popular magazines within past decades.

A helpful volume of literary criticism is Jessie B. Rittenhouse's "Younger American Poets" (Little, Brown). This is not an attempt to cover the entire field of American poetry, but to take up the younger and later American poets and place them properly against the literary background of the country. The principal poets considered are Richard Hovey, Lizette Woodworth Reese, Bliss Carman, Louise Imogen Guiney, George E. Santayana, Josephine Preston Peabody, Charles G. D. Roberts, Edith M. Thomas, Madison Cawein, George E. Woodberry, Frederic Lawrence Knowles, Alice Brown, Richard Burton, Clinton Scollard, Mary McNeil Fenollosa, Ridgely Torrence, Gertrude Hall, and Arthur Upton.

Mr. George P. Baker, who is assistant professor of English in Harvard University, has edited a little volume on "The Forms of Public Address" (Holt). This consists of famous historical letters—both private and open—editorials, inaugural addresses, speeches of eulogy, commemoration, dedication, welcome, and farewell, and after-dinner speeches. There is an appendix, and explanatory notes.

The Crowells are bringing out, in small handy volumes, the entire "First Folio Shakespeare." The latest play to be issued is "Julius Caesar." Each volume has a photogravure frontispiece, and is provided with notes, a glossary, and some selected criticism.

A translation of the "Nibelungenlied" into English verse, in the meter of the original, has been made by George Henry Needler, associate professor of German in the Toronto University College (Holt). This translation is accompanied by explanations and notes, and the author has written an introduction in which he has endeavored to supply "an historical background by summing up the results of the investigation into the

origin and growth of this great folk-poem of the Teutonic peoples."

A collection of charming weird folk-lore tales of Palestine has been made by J. E. Hanauer, under the title "Tales Told in Palestine" (Jennings & Graham), and these have been edited, with illustrations, by H. G. Mitchell. The life and faith of modern Judaism are reflected in these tales, which show the influence of later Arabian and Turkish conquest.

Prof. Barrett Wendell, of the English Department at Harvard University, has gathered his lectures on English literature, delivered on the Clark Foundation at Trinity College, Cambridge (1902-03), into a volume under the title "The Temper of the Seventeenth Century in English Literature" (Scribners). These are the first regular lectures concerning English literature ever given by an American at an English university. Together, they are practically a literary study of the age of Dryden. The purpose in these lectures was, he declares, to indicate the manner in which the national temper of England, as revealed in seventeenth-century literature, "changed from a temper ancestrally common to modern England and to modern America, and became, before the century closed, something which later time must recognize as distinctly, specifically, English."

Dr. Sir Richard C. Jebb, regius professor of Greek and fellow in Trinity College, Cambridge, has made a new translation of "The Tragedies of Sophocles" into English prose. This translation has been published in England and imported by the Macmillans.

A handy and useful little manual of literary study is Prof. Benjamin Heydrick's "How to Study Literature"

(Houghton, Mifflin). This little volume, now in its third edition, revised and enlarged, Professor Heydrick calls "a guide to the intensive study of literary masterpieces." The author, who is professor of English in the State Normal School, at Millersville, Pa., writes, not merely from theory, but from the background of long experience as a teacher.

Three studies of French literature in

the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries have just been published by the Macmillans. They are "Studies in Montaigne" and "Early Writings of Montaigne," by Miss Grace Norton, and Miss Dorothea F. Canfield's "Corneille and Racine in England." Miss Norton's studies of Montaigne are intended only for students of the old French essayist; perhaps, it might be said, only for enthusiasts over his work. His early writings, Miss Norton declares, should be studied in order to get a properly balanced knowledge of the famous essays themselves. The work on Corneille and Racine is a study of the English translations of these French dramatists, with special reference to their presentation, during the Elizabethan period, on the English stage. There was a time, this writer points out, when plays by Corneille and Racine enjoyed the greatest popularity in London.



BENJAMIN HEYDRICK.

A number of small volumes of poems appear this month. James Whitcomb Riley's "A Defective Santa Claus" (Bobbs-Merrill) is handsomely illustrated by C. M. Relyea and Will Vawter. It is in Mr. Riley's best vein. Levi Gilbert's

"Incense" (Jennings & Graham) consists of a series of verses on religion, patriotism, and love. William Page Carter, one of the old type of Virginians, has published (Grafton Press) his "Echoes from the Glen," verses of sentiment, war, and home life. "Hagar" (Broadway Publishing Company) is a dramatic poem in three acts, by Rollin J. Wells, illustrated by William L. Hudson, and "Buttonwood and Other Poems" (Indianapolis: Octo graphic Review) is a long poem telling how the author has attempted to live the simple life (with some additional short verses by L. F. Bittle). "Kindly Light" (published at Oscawana, N. Y., by the author) is a collection of verses, with some prose interspersed, by John Milton Scott, with the sub-title "A Little Book of Yearning."

Robert Loveman has already won a distinct place among American lyric poets, and his latest little collection, "Songs from a Georgia Garden" and "Echoes from the Gates of Silence" (Lippincott), contain many bits of tenderness in his own cameo style.

Steven Phillips' latest play is entitled "The Sin of David." It is cast in the time of the English civil war between Charles II. and Parliament, in 1643. The book has been issued by the Macmillans.

NEW WORKS IN POPULAR SCIENCE.

Prof. Angelo Heilprin, F.G.R.S., of the Yale Scientific School, and member of other learned societies, and author of "Mont Pelée and the Tragedy of Martinique," has brought out another illustrated study of the great volcano in the West Indies, entitled "The Tower of Pelée" (Lippincott). Professor Heilprin, it will be remembered, was in Martinique at the time of the great eruption in the summer of 1902. He has visited the islands twice since then, and his study is both scientific and popular. There are twenty-two full-page plates to illustrate the eruption and its effects. The volume itself is folio size.

The series of volumes under the general title of "The Regions of the World," edited for the Appletons by H. J. Mackinder, of Oxford University, now comprises scholarly treatises on Great Britain, central Europe, the near East, North America, and India. The last-named volume has just come from the press. It is by Col. Sir Thomas Hungerford Holdich, K.C.M.G., K.C.I.E., C.B., R.E., late superintendent survey of India. Col. Holdich's work is the product of years of study in the country of which he writes. He does not emphasize statistics or details, but relies on descriptive methods, and some remarkably fine maps and diagrams. The entire peninsula is treated historically, geographically, geologically, and climatologically. The Indian depend-



MR. STEPHEN PHILLIPS.

encies, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and the Himalayas, besides Asam, Burma, and Ceylon, are discussed in their relations to the peninsula itself. India he calls "the land of promise, where nature offers her gifts with lavish hand, and where the soil is peculiarly favorable to the reproduction of mankind, yet forming a sort of geographical cul-de-sac, with a few notable gateways leading thereto from the north, and no exit, except by sea, to the east, south, or west."

A useful, compact, and authoritative manual is the "Scientific American Reference Book" (Munn & Co.). This is a new venture of the *Scientific American*, compiled by Albert A. Hopkins and A. Russell Bond. It is to be an annual almanac, the result of "the queries of three generations of readers crystallized." It is based on thousands of questions asked of the periodical, which have been answered by eminent specialists and experts, so that there are more than fifty thousand facts systematized and verified. The volume is illustrated with color plates and many graphic diagrams.

A three-volume work by Dr. Edwin J. Houston, entitled "Electricity in Every-Day Life" (New York: P. F. Collier & Son), covers almost every form of electrical development in which the general public is likely to be interested. Dr. Houston has an excellent reputation as a writer in this field. He succeeds well in popularizing technical subjects. The present work is voluminous, but never wearisome. The manifold applications of electricity in modern industry are strikingly shown in the illustrations, of which there are about eight hundred in the three volumes.

A study of "the phenomena attendant upon rock-generation and soil-formation" is what Mr. George P. Merrill calls his book "Rocks, Rock-Weathering, and Soils" (Macmillan). Mr. Merrill is curator of geology in the United States National Museum, professor of geology in the Corcoran Scientific School, and author of "Stones for Building and Decoration." His work appears to be thoroughly satisfactory as a text-book.

BOOKS ABOUT ART.

A compact little encyclopædia of art is Dr. S. Reinach's "Story of Art Throughout the Ages," which has just been translated from the French by Florence Simmonds (Scribners). Dr. Reinach's work has been done chiefly for the Institute of France, of which he is a member. It is very thorough, and the notes and bibliography at the close of each chapter make the information contained easily accessible. The rendering into English is clear and satisfactory. There are nearly six hundred illustrations—reproductions of famous paintings, sculpture work, and architecture.

"To those who feel the need of some art expression, but who cannot attend an art school; to those who wish to follow the art of the craftsmen; to those teachers upon whom demand is made for knowledge of the crafts,"—to these is dedicated Mr. Frank G. Sanford's book, "The Art Crafts for Beginners" (Century). Mr. Sanford is director of the arts and crafts department of Chautauqua, and has a rich background of experience. The volume is illustrated by the author with many diagrams and suggestive pieces.

Encouraged by the success of her other books on handicraft ("How to Do Beadwork," "How to Make Baskets," etc.), Mary White has brought out another volume, entitled "How to Make Pottery" (Doubleday, Page). This is a manual of useful suggestions, with illustrations by the author.

It was just one hundred years ago that Alois Senefelder made his discovery which finally resulted in the art of lithography. Mr. David Cumming, lecturer on lithography in the Heriot-Watt College of Edinburgh and examiner for the lithographic class in the Technical College of Glasgow, has taken the occasion to prepare a "Handbook of Lithography" (Black, in London; imported by the Macmillans). The discovery and development of the art of lithography has been exceedingly interesting and important for the modern graphic arts.



ALLOIS SENEFELDER.

Mr. Cumming considers the whole subject in this practical treatise, which he has prepared after forty years of experience as an actual worker. The fascinating story of his discovery and its development is told in the first chapter of the book.

A reminiscence of Homer Martin, the artist, by his wife, Mrs. E. G. Martin, has been published by William Macbeth. Martin's landscapes, it was once said, "look as if no one but God and himself had ever seen the places." This little sketch was well worth doing. It is illustrated by half-tone reproductions of Martin's better-known paintings. While very modestly done, Martin's claims to greatness are fully presented.

A notable contribution to the descriptive literature of art is Julia Cartwright's "Life and Art of Sandro Botticelli" (Dutton). This is a handsomely bound work, copiously illustrated with reproductions from famous works by Botticelli, with the famous Chigi Madonna as frontispiece. The author is evidently steeped in artist-lore, and in this handsome volume has presented a treatise of an art school as well as a biography of Botticelli.

The "Pictures in the Tate Gallery" is the title of a book imported by the Duttons. It is a study, with reproductions, of the famous paintings in the famous Tate gallery of London, written by C. Gasquoine Hartley, author of "A Record of Spanish Painting." The reproductions are in the finest style of photogravure. The treatment is by epochs represented in the gallery. It was well worth presenting this description of the art works in the splendid gallery presented by Sir Henry Tate to the British nation.

A collection of drawings by A. B. Frost, to which is prefaced an introduction by Joel Chandler Harris, is published by the Colliers, the pictures being interlarded with bits of verse by Wallace Irwin. Mr. Frost's work is essentially American, and all his people have the appearance of types which we have seen many times in city and country.

Seven new issues of "The Musician's Library" come to us from the Ditson Company. Philip Hale edits two volumes of "Modern French Songs," the first containing compositions from Bemberg to Franck, and the second, from Georges to Widor. All these songs are for high voice. They are by César Franck, Georges Bizet, Berlioz, Chaminade, Massenet, Gounod, Saint Saens, and d'Indy. There is an introduction, and short biograph-

ical sketches. Two volumes of Wagner lyrics, one for soprano and one for tenor, are edited by Carl Armbruster. These also contain introductory sketches, with bibliography and notes. "The Hungarian Rhapsodies" of Franz Liszt are edited by August Spanuth and John Orth. The introduction is by Mr. Spanuth, and there is a bibliography, and some advice to the player. Henry T. Finck has edited fifty songs by Franz Schubert, with an introduction, notes, and a bibliography. One of the specially noteworthy issues of the library is "Songs by Thirty Americans," edited by Rupert Hughes, with introduction and biographical sketches. We have already had occasion, several times, in these pages, to speak of the quality of these volumes. Typographically, they leave nothing to be desired. The form is folio, and they come in both cloth and paper bindings.

Daniel Gregory Mason is one of the few writers of to-day who can see the philosophy of musical development in its relation to the general progress of the world, and can, moreover, write about this in an entertaining way. In his "Beethoven and His Forerunners" (Macmillan), Mr. Mason has traced the significance and influence of Haydn and Mozart in leading up immediately to Beethoven, and has placed these composers in their proper periods of musical history as successors of Palestrina and forerunners of the modern spirit. The touch is that of one who not only knows but feels his theme in its greatness. This volume is illustrated with portraits.



DANIEL G. MASON.

RELIGIOUS, ETHICAL, AND PHILOSOPHICAL BOOKS.

The sermons and addresses delivered in America by His Grace Dr. Davidson, Archbishop of Canterbury, have been collected and published in book form under the title "The Christian Opportunity" (Macmillan). These addresses have been widely reported in the newspapers. In his introductory words, Dr. Davidson declares that they have been put in book form at the urgent request of many friends, and that his general purport or aim is indicated by the title of the book,—Christian opportunity being the fact which impressed him in connection with American life and destiny.

A study of revivals, which are coming to be known by the more general name of evangelism, is presented by Mr. William B. Riley, pastor of the First Baptist Church, in Minneapolis, under the title "The Perennial Revival: A Plea for Evangelism" (Winona Publishing Company). The author believes that evangelism has been on the decline during the past fifteen years in the United States, and he is convinced that another Moody is needed.

Dr. E. H. Johnson, professor in the Crozer Theological Seminary, and author of "An Outline of Systematic Theology," has written a study of "The Holy Spirit Then and Now" (Philadelphia: The Griffith & Rowland Press).

Still another attempt to reconcile science and religion has been made by Dr. Howard Agnew Johnston in his volume "Scientific Faith" (Winona Publishing Company). Dr. Johnston aims to demonstrate the reasonableness of the Christian faith, and also to make a book which a "Christian can give to an infidel."

Dr. William Rainey Harper, president of the University of Chicago, has collected a number of his talks to students, and they have been published by the University Press in book form, under the title "Religion and the Higher Life." Dr. Harper believes that the uni-



DR. WILLIAM R. HARPER.

versities and colleges of the country are not performing their full function in the matter of religious education. He endeavors to stem the tide of materialism, and declares that the "least which can be done is to present to the student of each scholastic period of four and five years the practical questions of the religious life."

A really remarkable book, by a remarkable man, — Fechner's "Little Book of Life After Death,"—has been translated from the German into English (Little, Brown) by Mary E. Wadsworth,

and has been published, with an introduction, by Prof. William James. Gustav Theodor Fechner was one of the great German philosophers of the past century, and his "Büchlein vom Leben nach dem Tode" offers the remarkable theory that each individual lives three lives on earth,—the first, before he is born; the second, between birth and death; and the third, which the philosopher describes as the real one, which is entered into by the process of death. This is the first translation from the original German.

The life-story of a unique character,—one of strength and sweetness,—is "The Life of Father Taylor, the Sailor Preacher." This biography and character sketch of the man whom every "deep sea" sailor knew a generation ago has been published by the Boston Port and Seamen's Aid Society. Father Taylor's chapel, in North Square, Boston, was the resort of the great and the humble. The volume is illustrated with portraits, and has an excellent index.

The Religious Education Association held its second annual convention in Philadelphia, in March, 1904. The



FATHER TAYLOR.

proceedings of that meeting were notable for the range and importance of the topics discussed, as well as for the eminence of the men who took part in the discussions. The addresses and papers at that time were grouped about the general theme of "The Bible in Practical Life," and have now been published by the Association (Chicago: 153-155 LaSalle Street). Probably on no other occasion have so many phases of religious education been presented at one time by specialists of so many and varied types of belief and education. The general purposes of the association were set forth in a paper contributed to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for September, 1903, by the first president of the association, Dean Sanders, of Yale University. The present volume is an evidence that the association is accomplishing in great part the objects for which it was founded, and which were clearly set forth by Dean Sanders in his article.

"Bible Study Popularized" (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company) is the title of a book in which the Rev. Frank T. Lee indicates certain lines and methods of study and gives practical suggestions and illustrative examples, with a view to stimulating a more earnest study of the Bible. The book, as its title indicates, makes no pretensions to a critical treatment of the theme.

In "The Story of St. Paul" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Prof. Benjamin W. Bacon, of Yale, makes a



PROF. BENJAMIN W. BACON.

frank comparison between the two sources for our knowledge of the life of Paul—the Acts and the Epistles. Professor Bacon's purpose is to point out the differences in these two sources as preliminary to any attempt to harmonize the records. Although this is in the province of criticism, Professor Bacon's treatment is of a popular nature. His book is, indeed, a union of constructive biography and scientific criticism. The

book is the outgrowth of a series of university-extension lectures delivered at Providence, R. I., and New Haven, Conn. No attempt has been made to transform these lectures into a scientific treatise.

"Social Law in the Spiritual World" is the title of a new book by Prof. Rufus M. Jones, of Haverford College (Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company). While the title at once suggests the famous work of the late Henry Drummond, and the book is in a way an attempt to deal with the same problems as those discussed in his "Natural Law in the Spiritual World," Professor Jones is concerned rather with the psychological aspects of the subject than with the biological. In his view, there is a greater stress to-day in the psychological than in the so-called natural sciences. As Professor Jones puts it, the Christian minister to-day is beginning to discover that every one of his precious articles of faith must finally submit to a psychological test. "He has weathered geology and biology; can he peradventure bring his ship past these new headlands?" Professor Jones very tersely sums up the present-day meaning of

personality and social relationship. His discussion of the modern religious problem is from a somewhat novel point of view.

Prof. George Adam Smith, the Scottish theologian, is known in this country as a "higher critic" and a heretic rather than as a preacher. The volume of his sermons just published (A. C. Armstrong & Son) may do something to dispel false notions of Professor Smith's theological system. "The Forgiveness of Sins" is the title sermon, while other topics treated in the volume are "The Word of God," "Temptation," and "The Moral Meaning of Hope."



DR. GEORGE ADAM SMITH.

Dr. Henry E. Robins has written "The Ethics of the Christian Life" (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), in which he expands the positions taken in his little volume, published a few years ago, "The Harmony of Ethics with Theology." The recent tendency to specialization in the departments of ethics and biology gives all the more distinction to a work which undertakes to harmonize the two. Dr. Robins recognizes ethics in the application of its principles to individual, political, and social life as a dominant theme of modern thought, a fact full of promise of good to the race.

Fewer books than formerly are written with the avowed purpose of reconciling science and religion. Such a volume, for instance, as "The Dynamics of Christianity," by Edward Mortimer Chapman (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), while it appeals at the same time to the religious people and to the men of science, is written with the assumption that there is no quarrel between the two. The reconciliation of science and religion seems to this writer to be "like an attempt to harmonize the fact of sunrise with the joy of walking and working in the light." It is the author's aim to define the source and origin of power in Christianity. Mr. Chapman develops his theme in an interesting way through citations from the writings of famous men.

President William De Witt Hyde, of Bowdoin College, gives a lucid exposition of the fundamental principles of the Epicurean, Stoic, Platonic, Aristotelian, and Christian philosophies in a little volume entitled "From Epicurus to Christ: A Study in the Principles of Personality" (Macmillan). The book is made up of extracts from the founders of each system, together with quotations from modern writers on the subject, as well as scholarly comments on both by President Hyde.

Mr. Robert E. Spear, secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States, has just completed his "Missions and Modern History" (Revell), a two-volume "study of the missionary aspects of some great movements of the nineteenth century." Some of his chapters were given as lectures before a number of American colleges, in the effort to make Americans more familiar than they are with "the great forces which have shaped the life and destiny of the 1,000,000,000 people who have been pro-

foundly affected by the missionary movements." In this work his intention has been to indicate the place of missionary enterprise in the politics of the world.

Those who are interested in raising the standard of biblical instruction in this country will find in Prof. George William Pease's "An Outline of a Bible-School Curriculum" (University of Chicago Press) many valuable suggestions. In this book there are outlines of reading and study courses for the kindergarten and primary grades, as well as for the junior, intermediate, and senior departments. The book is fully in line with the principles and methods advocated by the Religious Education Association.

Prof. Edward Howard Griggs has attained unusual success as a popular lecturer on psychology and ethics. He is also the author of two books that have had a wide reading,—"The New Humanism" and "A Book of Meditations." A new work by him, entitled "Moral Education" (New York: B. W. Huesch), develops a well-rounded philosophy of education, emphasizing as the central feature of such a system the cultivation of character. The book addresses itself especially to the teacher, but will be found interesting and helpful to all who are concerned in any way with the rearing of children. A full bibliography and ample footnotes serve as guides to the best and freshest literature on the various phases of the subject.



PROF. E. H. GRIGGS.

Many other books have come to our table which deal with various religious topics, whether directly or indirectly. In the field of church history we have "The Church Covenant Idea: Its Origin and Its Development," by Champlin Burrage (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), and a "History of Presbyterianism on Prince Edward Island," by the Rev. John M. McLeod (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company). The synthetic study of the Bible is advocated in the Rev. Dr. James M. Gray's little book, "How to Master the English Bible" (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company), while the booklet entitled "What Is the Bible?" by J. A. Ruth (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company), sets forth the view that the Bible is a purely human composition. This position is taken, however, in a reverent spirit. An unconventional discussion of religious and biblical themes is woven into the story entitled "The Bonanza Bible Class," by Henry F. Cope (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company). We have also received "The Francis E. Clark Yearbook" (Boston: United Society of Christian Endeavor); "The Story of Joseph for Young People," by Isabella Webb Parks (Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham); "The Attractive Church," by the Rev. Cortland Myers, D.D. (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society); and from the Winona Publishing Company, of Chicago, "Study to Be Quiet," by Edgar W. Work; "The Key to the Kingdom," by the Rev. Charles E. Bradt; "Greatness," by Henry Ostrom; "The Holy Spirit, Our Teacher in Prayer," by Dr. R. A. Walton; and "Elisha, the Man of the Gods," by R. Clarence Dodds, D.D.

One of the Orient's learned missionaries to the West, Baba Bharati, a distinguished Brahman of Calcutta, now lecturing in Boston (where he was recently elected vice-president of the Peace Congress), has written a book to interpret the Hindu belief as to the origin and meaning of life and the evolution of the universe. This volume, which is entitled "Sree Krishna, the Lord of Love" (published by the Krishna Samáj, New York), is intended to be "the history of the universe from its birth to its dissolution." Baba Bharati has aimed to impress his readers with the substance of Hindu thought on religion and philosophy, in purely Eastern dress. The volume is really a clear history of the origin, nature, and evolution of the universe as the Oriental mind perceives it; it is a clear statement of the doctrine of Karma; an exposition of the caste system; a beautiful story of the Oriental Christ, and perhaps the clearest statement ever published of the Hindu cosmogony. Baba Bharati's style is direct, simple, and clear, and his thinking high and sane. It is the statement of a strong, manly believer in a philosophy and a set of ideals which, though they come from the pagan East, make a very strong appeal to the Occidental reader. The love of the source of the universe, which in the Hindu philosophy is Krishna, is the determining force of the universe. It is an extraordinary book,—the fascinating exposition of an exalted philosophy.

An ethical and spiritual interpretation of "Parsifal" is the latest literary and philosophical effort of Dr. R. Heber Newton. It is published by the Upland Farm Alliance, Oscawana-on-Hudson, N. Y.

A thought-provoking little volume on "The Practice of Self-Culture" (Macmillan) comes from the pen of Hugh Black, succeeding and rounding out his series, "Culture and Restraint," "Friendship," and "Work." Mr. Black admits that self-culture is in itself not a complete ideal for human life, but it has its place in our necessary education. And in this little volume he endeavors "to lay hold of a comprehensive scheme into which our efforts will fall easily, and the possession of which acts as an inducement."

PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDIES.

The latest contribution to the "pathology of economics" is Dr. G. Frank Lydston's "Diseases of Society" (Lippincott). This is really a study of the vice and crime problem from a medical standpoint. The volume is intended primarily for the professional reader, although it is dedicated "to those who are friends of the man beneath in the battle of life and foes of the conditions that placed him there." Dr. Lydston, who holds the chair of surgery in the State University of Illinois, and that of criminal anthropology in the Chicago-Kent College of Law, and who has, besides, had a long experience in penal and charitable institutions in New York, treats his subject in a very radical way. Human nature, he believes, cannot masquerade before the physician; therefore, he regards the medical man as especially well equipped to study the question of social conditions in their relation to crime. Dr. Lydston considers the police criminal, the anarchist, the sexual pervert, the oppression of wealth, the negro question, and other delicate social problems.

An introduction to the study of psychology, with special reference to "the structure and function of human consciousness," has been prepared, under the simple title "Psychology" (Holt), by James Rowland Angell, professor of psychology in the University of

Chicago. It is essentially a text-book, and is abundantly supplied with cross-references.

BOOKS ABOUT OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE.

Two recent volumes of the "American Sportsman's Library," edited by Caspar Whitney for the Macmillans, are "Lawn Tennis," by J. Parmly Paret, and "Photography for the Sportsman Naturalist," by L. W. Brownell. Mr. Paret, who is an authority on tennis, treats of the past, present, and future of the sport. He believes tennis to be more scientific, as well as more severe, than similar games played indoors. The book is copiously illustrated, and has a glossary of terms, an index, and a full bibliography of the game. A chapter has been added on lacrosse, by William Harvey Maddren. Mr. Brownell's book shows, not only the expert, but the lover. He understands and is devoted to both photography and nature. The illustrations in the volume were all made from life.

A useful, sincere little work on "How Nature Study Should Be Taught" (Hinds, Noble & Eldredge) has been written by Dr. Edward T. Bigelow. The book consists of a series of talks to teachers, with an introduction by Professor Gordy (pedagogy), of New York University, and some suggestions as to the proper method of introducing nature-study by Prof. H. A. Surface, zoölogist of the Pennsylvania State College.

John Lane has just added to his "Handbooks of Practical Gardening" a volume on the iris, by R. Irwin Lynch. The book is entitled "The Book of the Iris." Mr. Lynch is the curator of the university botanic gardens of Cambridge, and a member of the Linnæan and many other botanical societies. It is very handsomely illustrated with full-page half-tones.

Mr. William Seymour Edwards' book "Into the Yukon" (Robert Clarke Company) is the story of a tour, made in 1903, through the Canadian Northwest, the gulfs and fjords of the North Pacific, the valley of the Upper Yukon, the Golden Klondike, and some parts of California and the middle West. The story was originally a series of letters written for the home circle. The volume is illustrated with snapshot photographs.

OTHER LATE PUBLICATIONS.

A very attractively printed exposition of the principles of jiu-jitsu, the wonderful method of attack and self-defense, has been published by the Japan Publishing Company. It has been prepared by Capt. Henry H. Skinner, and is fully illustrated with poses by B. H. Kuwashima, of Columbia University. Literally, the expression "jiu-jitsu" means "the gentle art of making your opponent use his strength to his own disadvantage." Nature has not endowed the Japanese with large and powerful bodies, but they make up in skill and science more than what they lack in size and strength. This treatise seems to be a very helpful and intelligible account of the entire system of jiu-jitsu, which cannot fail to be a valuable addition to the other methods of the many art of self-defense already known to English-speaking peoples.

Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent, director of the Hemenway Gymnasium of Harvard University, who has devoted his life to the advancement of physical culture, has written a work entitled "Health, Strength, and Power" (H. M. Caldwell), in which he has aimed to make physical training more popular by devising a series of exercises which require no apparatus whatever. The book is in-

tended to appeal, not to athletes, but to sedentary people of both sexes. It is profusely illustrated from original photographs.

Prof. C. Howard Hinton, whose name is well known to the student of metageometry, has made an attempt, in a volume entitled "The Fourth Dimension" (Lane), to give a popular exposition, without mathematical subtleties, of a space of higher dimensions than that of length, breadth, and thickness. The subject has been given a great deal of attention by mathematicians and the imaginary faculty of some great mathematical minds has given prominence to the rather attractive theory that there is a space of four dimensions, which, if we could conceive of it, would explain electricity, life, soul, thought, and spirit as a mode of motion in this space. The volume is written as a serious dissertation on such a space, and the subject being treated in a popular fashion, it requires no special mathematical training to understand it. Beginning with the supposition that we might inhabit a plane, and might, later on, learn to conceive of a space of three dimensions, the writer reasons that by analogy we may some time learn to conceive of and occupy a space of four dimensions. The book is appropriately illustrated.

Hertel, Jenkins & Co. (Chicago) have issued a compendium of "Safe Methods, or How to Do Business," by E. T. Roe. This is a useful book, consisting of a compilation of business law, facts, and forms, penmanship and correspondence, tables, "short cuts," and "ready reckoners,"—"the essence of volumes in a nutshell."

One of Charles Wagner's earlier books has just been translated under the title "The Voice of Nature, or the Soul of Things" (Ogilvie Publishing Co.). The translation is by Olive Harper. "The Voice of Nature" is written in the same vein as Pastor Wagner's other works, "The Simple Life" and "The Busy Life."

Some time ago the New York *Tribune* undertook to secure a number of articles by well-known public men eminent in their special lines, much of which would be a sort of open letter to parents who desire guidance as to the future careers of their sons. These letters have been published in book form (Saalfield) under the title, "Careers for the Coming Men." They include articles on teaching, by Dr. Rush Rhees, president of the University of Rochester; the navy, by Rear Admiral George Wallace Melville; commercial life, by Charles Stewart Smith, ex-president of the New York Chamber of Commerce; railroading, by George H. Daniels, general passenger agent New York Central Railroad; law, by John De Witt Warner; electricity, by Thomas Commerford Martin, editor *Electrical World and Engineer*; life insurance, by John F. Dryden, United States Senator, president of the Prudential Insurance Company; journalism, by Whitelaw Reid, editor of the New York *Tribune*; the stage, by James K. Hackett; banking, by Bradford Rhodes, president of the Thirty-Fourth Street National Bank; and authorship, by Cyrus Townsend Brady.

Burroughs, Wellcome & Co., of London, Sydney, and Cape Town, have been collecting "rare and curious objects relating to medicine, chemistry, pharmacy, and the allied sciences" for an exhibition to be held shortly in London. They sent out as an advance courier a little pamphlet, "Ancient Cymric Medicine." This is a clever, informing little pamphlet, illustrated with a title in the ancient Cymric language.

"The Doctor's Leisure Hour" (Saalfield) is a volume of anecdotes and verse made up of "facts and fancies of interest to the doctor and his patient." The work is edited by Charles Wells Moulton and arranged by Porter Davies, M.D.

A very clever little historical skit is Will Parkes' "Comic Snapshots From Early English History" (Dutton). A number of famous incidents in the history of Roman and Saxon England are seized upon and "hit off" in irresistibly funny colored cartoons.

Three new books in the *Century* "Thumb-Nail Series" have been issued: "An Old English Christmas," by Washington Irving, and two Shakespeare plays, "Romeo and Juliet" and "As you Like It."

Dr. Maynard M. Metcalf, professor of biology in the Woman's College of Baltimore, has expanded his series of lectures, delivered before the college, into a book which he entitles "An Outline of the Theory of Organic Evolution" (Macmillan). This book, he explains in his preface, is not intended for biologists, but for those who desire a brief introductory outline of this phase of biological theory. The work is very handsomely printed and copiously illustrated.

In the seventh volume of the Jewish Encyclopedia (Funk & Wagnalls), one of the most noteworthy articles is that on Jerusalem, accompanied, as it is, by a panorama of the modern city of Jerusalem from the Mount of Olives, together with a series of five maps, each of which represents a different epoch in the city's life. The same volume contains dissertations on eight of the books of the Bible,— "Jeremiah," "Job," "Joel," "Jonah," "Joshua," "Judges," "Kings," and "Lamentations." In addition to the discussion of bibliographical topics, a great mass of literature related to the Talmud has been made available to Christian scholars in this encyclopædia. Departments of history, theology, and modern biography are also very rich in materials which have never before been exploited in any work of this character published in the English language. In the eighth volume, which has just been issued from the press, there are nearly one hundred monographs on important subjects. Within the scope of this work are included topics of special interest in the field of American history, and in particular States, like Maryland and Massachusetts. In the biographical department, we note particularly the sketches of the Mendelssohns, and of Lombroso, the criminologist (written by Dr. Max Nordau). There is also an interesting account of the late Moses Montefiore, the Jewish philanthropist of London. In the matter of illustration, the two volumes of the encyclopædia recently issued are in no way inferior to their predecessors.

"Seven Lamps for the Teachers' Way" (Ginn), by Frank H. Hill, consists of a series of lectures intended to be of service to teachers. Dr. Hill had a long experience in educational work, and at the time of his death was *ex officio* one of the two commissioners of the Massachusetts School Fund, a trustee of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and a member of the School Examination Board of Harvard University.

"The Story of Rapid Transit," by Beckles Willson (Appletons), is a report of progress covering all the various modern methods and systems of communication,— the railway, the telegraph, aerial navigation, the telephone, pneumatic tubes, the bicycle, the automobile, and the street railway.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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GRAND DUKE SERGIUS, OF RUSSIA, ASSASSINATED FEBRUARY 17, 1905.

(The strong men of the House of Romanoff, the men of blood and iron, who are upholding the autocracy, are, not the Czar, who "has been educated to be a fool," but the much-hated reactionary grand dukes,—brothers, uncles, and cousins of Nicholas. There are seven of them: The Grand Duke Michael, brother of the Czar, and, until the birth of the Czarevitch, the heir-presumptive; the Grand Duke Vladimir, commander-in-chief of the army; the Grand Duke Alexis, high admiral of the navy; the Grand Duke Michael, grand-uncle of the Czar, field marshal in the army; the Emperor's cousins, the Grand Dukes Cyril and Boris, sons of Vladimir; and the Grand Duke Michael, son of his grand-uncle. There are several other distant cousins who can claim the title, but they are not in the "ring." The Grand Duke Sergius, who was killed by the explosion of a bomb near the Kremlin, had been governor of Moscow; he was uncle of the Czar and brother of the Grand Dukes Vladimir and Alexis. His widow is the sister of the Empress.)

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Review of Reviews.

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No. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Inauguration Time. On Saturday, the fourth day of this month, will occur the inauguration of Mr. Roosevelt as President of the United States for the four-year term extending from that date to the corresponding date in the year 1909. The country has reason to expect a noteworthy progress in this period, both in public and in private affairs. The administration will lose no time in getting its bearings and organizing for its work. It is safe to say that never before has a new quadrennial term of our national government been entered upon with so little change of personnel and so little evidence of place-hunting and clamoring for office. President Roosevelt has the gift of working comfortably with his associates; and his second administration, but for the brilliant pageants and the formalities of inauguration day, will follow the first without perceptible transition. The goodwill of this great nation toward its chief magistrate and its efficient department chiefs is in strange contrast with the rising tide of bitterness and wrath that now envelops the Russian autocracy, and that manifested itself afresh last month in the assassination of the Grand Duke Sergius, one of the chief personages of the ruling dynasty. Important articles in this number of the REVIEW show, on the one hand, the steady improvement of our American mechanism of government, and, on the other hand, the impending doom of existing Russian institutions. It is no wonder that the poor and oppressed from eastern Europe continue to enter our gateways by the hundreds of thousands.

The Cabinet Remains. Not a single change is to be made in any one of the cabinet portfolios, except that Mr. Wynne, who has been serving temporarily as Postmaster-General, is to have the lucrative and important position of consul-general at London, while Mr. Cortelyou, who left the cabinet to conduct the Republican national campaign, will return as Post-

master-General. It had long been known that he would probably be appointed to this position after the retirement of the late Mr. Payne, whose ill-health would have required his withdrawal from office before this time if death had not overtaken him while still at his post of public duty. It is true that Mr. Morton and Mr. Metcalf are comparatively recent acquisitions to the cabinet, but both are by this time completely immersed in the work of their departments. Thus, the administration goes on without the slightest hitch or jar. Of course, if things were going ill rather than well, it would not be an advantage to the country to have a second term follow a first without anything to check the momentum. But where the work is well organized and in the hands of men of capacity, energy, and right purpose, there is an immense advantage in avoiding frequent change.

Three Veterans in Office. Thus, the marvelous development of the Agricultural Department, and the increasing hold it has obtained upon the confidence and support of the country, are due in no small degree to the fact that Secretary Wilson has rounded out eight years of assiduous service at its head, and now enters upon his ninth year with natural strength unabated, and with a knowledge of the work to be done that adds every year to his efficiency. It will be remembered that Secretary Hay was first sent by Mr. McKinley to the court of St. James, and did not enter the cabinet until 1898. But Mr. Hay has already had seven consecutive years as Secretary of State, and it is everywhere recognized as a very considerable asset to the American Government that Mr. Hay is to remain at his post. Secretary Hitchcock succeeded Mr. Bliss in the Interior Department in the middle of Mr. McKinley's first term, and has, therefore, had some six years of time in which to master the varied problems that pertain to his portfolio. These three,—Messrs. Wilson, Hay, and Hitch-

cock,—remain from Mr. McKinley's first administration, and their length of service is unusual. They are all working with zeal for the good of the country, without partisan or sectional bias. It has, perhaps, never happened before that as many as three colleagues in a President's cabinet have served together continuously into a third term of administration.

*Other
Department
Chiefs.*

Secretary Shaw, of the Treasury Department, was appointed by Mr. Roosevelt late in 1901, upon the retirement of Secretary Gage. Mr. Moody, now Attorney-General, was made Secretary of the Navy in 1902, and transferred to his present post when Mr. Knox retired, some months ago. Secretary Taft returned from the Philippines last year to succeed Mr. Elihu Root, who had served five years in the War Department. Mr. Paul Morton was made Secretary of the Navy when Mr. Moody became Attorney-General, and Mr. Victor H. Metcalf, of California, was made Secretary of the new Department of Commerce and Labor when, last summer, Mr. Cortelyou went out of office to take the chairmanship of the Republican National Committee. These men are not only the constitutional advisers of the President in matters relating to their departments and to the general policy of the administration, but they are also the working heads of vast executive organizations, carrying on the business of Uncle Sam, which, by the way, is the largest business, public or private, that is at present carried on anywhere.

*Public
Business Well
Conducted.*

We might well feel some alarm if we were not able, on investigation, to declare that this huge business is carried on more intelligently and efficiently than at any previous time. Fortunately, it can be asserted with great emphasis that there has of recent years been a marked average improvement in the kind of work done by the people who are on the pay-roll of the Government. It would be inexcusable if, with his exceptional training and his unequalled opportunity, President Roosevelt should not in the four years to come give us by far the best administration, in a myriad of details, that the country has ever had. We present an article elsewhere in this number on the character of the civil service,—particularly at Washington, in this Rooseveltian epoch,—showing how comparatively free it is from the faults which were commonly attributed to that service some twenty years ago. An accompanying article shows how finely the federal city is improving, and in how many important ways the second Roosevelt administration will witness its

further advancement toward completeness of public appointments and municipal services.

*Our Trained
Government
Service.*

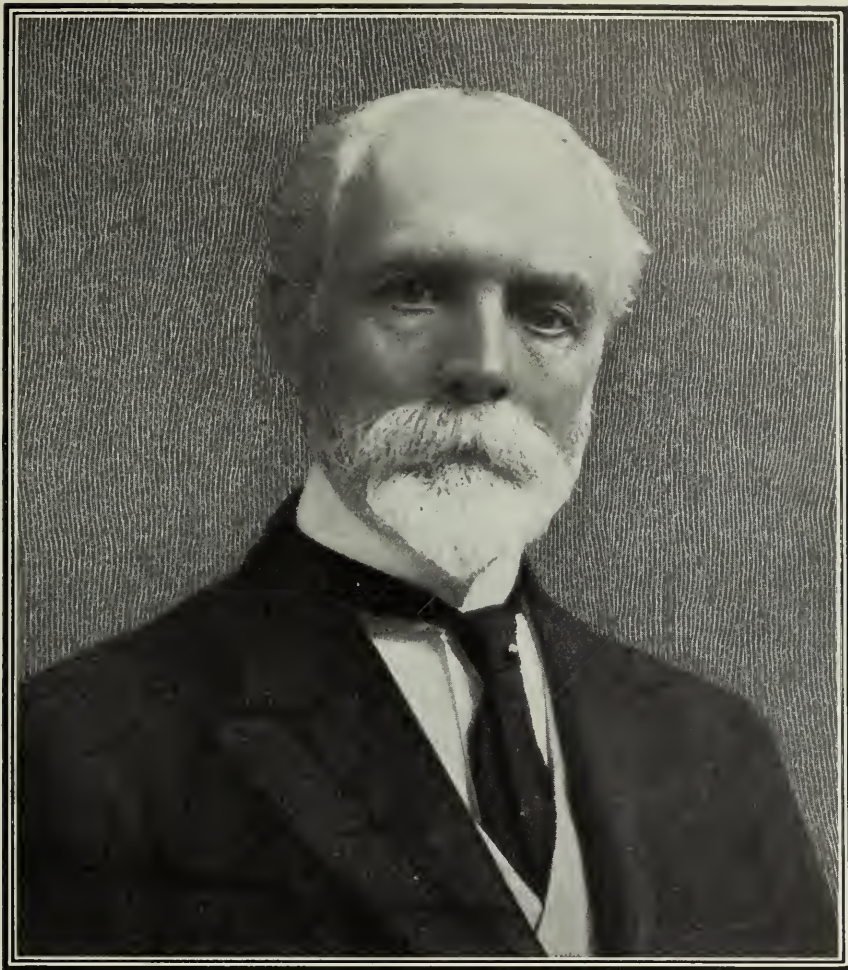
Washington life has come to be very largely influenced by the fact that the Government now employs a great number of men of learning and special fitness, who perform their duties in a scientific spirit on the basis of merit and efficiency, with none of that dread of the consequences of a turn in the wheel of party politics that once kept good men away from Washington, or else made it impossible for them to accomplish very much. Mr. Roosevelt, who was for so many years in Washington as a civil service commissioner, is above all men fitted to be chief officer of the Government in a period which marks a complete transition in the methods of the great central Washington offices, employing many thousands of people in work of importance to the whole country. Doubtless, as the months extend into years, there will be a number of important changes in the personnel of the administration before Mr. Roosevelt retires from office. But there will be no wholesale changes, and no interruption, even momentary, in the continuity of the administrative and scientific work.

*Our
Diplomats
Abroad.*

Our relations with foreign powers remain of the most amicable sort, and our ambassadors and ministers abroad are not likely in the near future to find their duties of a very anxious or critical nature. But tact and good manners in social intercourse and in the transaction of small affairs have everything to do with the maintenance of the best kind of feeling between nations. For that reason we can perhaps be better served at most of the courts of foreign nations by men of experience and suavity than by men of far greater strength of character and will, if their manners be those of a former period of so-called "shirt-sleeves" diplomacy. Those who believe that the United States should now be represented by men who are perfectly familiar with diplomatic usage can have no reason to complain of the order of things for this coming year.

*Whitelaw
Reid for
London.*

Mr. Whitelaw Reid will succeed Mr. Joseph H. Choate as ambassador to Great Britain, and will easily maintain the best traditions of our representation in that place of foremost importance. Mr. Reid has twice gone to England as special ambassador, was for four years minister to France, was a member of the American group of commissioners that negotiated the treaty of peace with Spain, and has for half a century been closely



HON. WHITELAW REID, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR OF THE NEW YORK "TRIBUNE," WHO WILL SUCCEED MR. CHOATE AS AMBASSADOR TO GREAT BRITAIN.

conversant with American policy, both domestic and foreign. He is an old friend of the President, and has been in many ways personally associated with Secretary Hay through a long period. Mr. Reid is an agreeable and ready speaker, and will have no trouble in meeting all the friendly demands which the English people have become accustomed to make of the American ambassador. He is, therefore, simply an experienced American diplomat going back into the diplomatic service. Many people in this country will be glad of the well-earned promotion that comes to Mr. Henry White, who has for nineteen years (with one brief interval) been first secretary of legation and of embassy at London. Mr. White will go to Rome as ambassador.

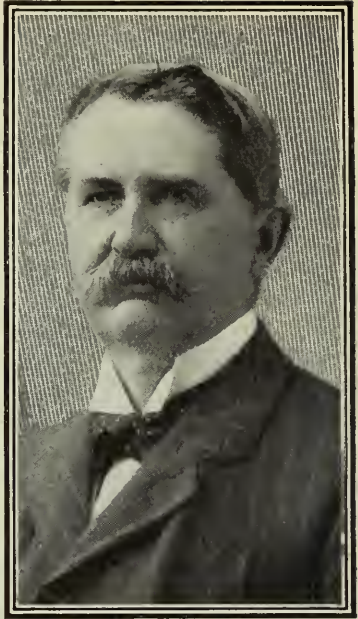
A Shifting of Ambassadors. Mr. Meyer, who has been at Rome for a number of years, will go to St. Petersburg, which ought to prove for him, just now, a very interesting post of observation, while also requiring the display of great tact in view of various questions affecting the far East and the rights and duties of neutrals in connection with the present war. Gen. Horace Porter, who has served a long time at Paris, joins Mr. Choate in a welcome return to his own country. Mr. McCormick, now ambassador at St. Petersburg, succeeds General Porter at Paris. Ambassador Tower will be retained at his post at Berlin. Mr. Bellamy Storer remains at Vienna, and Mr. Leishmann at Constantinople. Mr. Conger will accept a transfer from Peking, and will become ambassador to Mexico.



Hon. Robert S. McCormick.
(To be transferred to Paris.)



Hon. George von L. Meyer.
(To be transferred to St. Petersburg.)



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Hon. Henry White.
(Who will go to Rome.)

THREE AMERICAN AMBASSADORS IN EUROPE.

*Some
Other
Changes.*

The vacancy at Peking will be filled by the appointment of Mr. W. W. Rockhill, who has been Director of the Bureau of American Republics for several years past, but whose name has long been identified with China, through his travels there and also through a considerable amount of diplomatic service,—more recently as special commissioner after the Boxer uprising, and in a former time as secretary of legation. It is said that Dr. David Jayne Hill, who was for five years Assistant Secretary of State, and who is now minister to Switzerland, will be transferred to the Hague. Dr. Hill is a high authority upon questions of international law, was especially active in connection with the first Hague peace conference, and if made minister to Holland will, presumably, become the foremost member of the standing committee in charge of the affairs of the permanent international tribunal. Mr. Thomas J. O'Brien, a distinguished lawyer and Republican of Grand Rapids, Mich., is to be appointed minister to Denmark. Mr. Henry L. Wilson, now minister to Chile, will be transferred to Europe, and will probably represent us at Brussels. Various other changes will, as a rule, be in the nature of transfers and promotions. The foreign service is no longer an available refuge for the disappointed and the unlucky.

*The
Arbitration
Treaties.*

An indication of our pleasant relationships with other nations had recently been given in a series of brief, general arbitration treaties, which were more important, perhaps, as expressions of peace sentiment and of progress in civilization than as international documents of a high legal quality. These treaties have already, from time to time, been mentioned in this department of the REVIEW; and have been made familiar to the country by all the newspapers. Eight of them had been negotiated in exactly the same language between the United States and the following countries: Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Norway and Sweden, Switzerland, Portugal, and Mexico. These treaties consisted of a preamble and three articles. The third article had merely to do with procedure, and stated that the treaties were to remain in force for a period of five years. The significant portions were contained in the first and second articles, as follows:

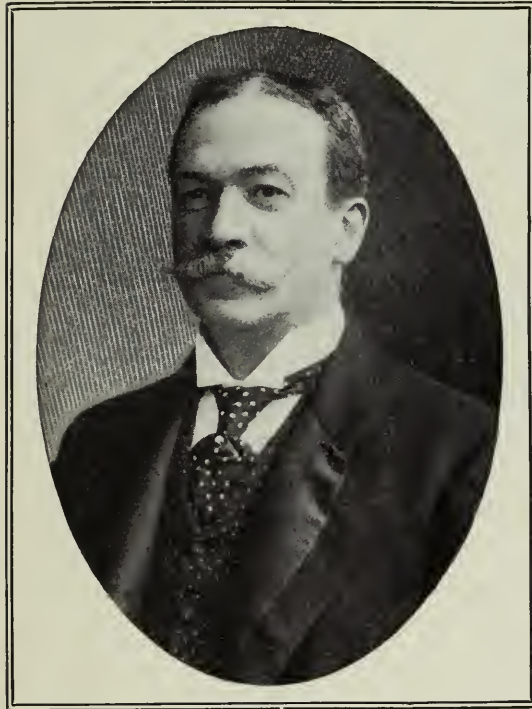
ARTICLE I.—Differences which may arise of a legal nature, or relating to the interpretation of treaties existing between the two contracting parties, and which it may not have been possible to settle by diplomacy, shall be referred to the permanent court of arbitration established at The Hague by the convention of July 29, 1899, provided, nevertheless, that they do not affect the vital interests, the independence, or the honor of the

two contracting states, and do not concern the interests of third parties.

ART. II.—In each individual case the high contracting parties, before appealing to the permanent court of arbitration, shall conclude a special agreement defining clearly the matter in dispute, the scope of the powers of the arbitrators, and the periods to be fixed for the formation of the arbitral tribunal and the several stages of the procedure.

The Treaties in the Senate. When these treaties were negotiated, it was supposed that they would undoubtedly secure the necessary approval of the Senate. The Constitution provides that treaties are to be made with the advice and consent of the Senate, and their ratification requires a two-thirds vote of those present. Apart from the sentimental value of these treaties, the practical object aimed at was the prompt submission by the President and Secretary of State of small matters of dispute to an arbitral tribunal that would settle them and get them out of

can Executive might some time consent to arbitrate such a question as the validity of repudiated Southern bonds held by foreign investors. They desired, therefore, to amend the treaties so as to require that each specific proposal to arbitrate should be put in the form of a treaty to be referred to the Senate for approval.



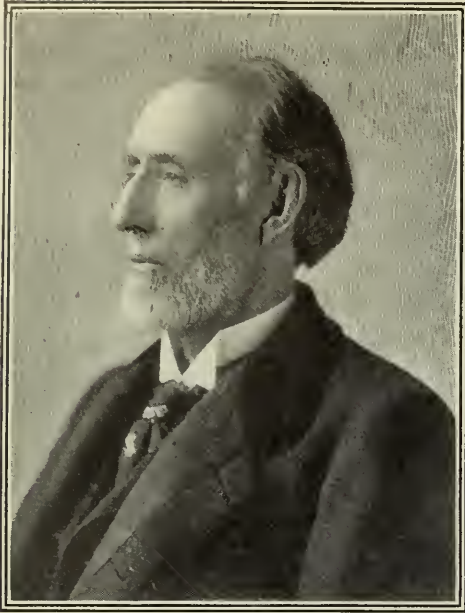
HON. DAVID JAYNE HILL, WHO IS TO GO FROM SWITZERLAND TO HOLLAND AS AMERICAN MINISTER.

the way. The leading Republican members of the Senate had been duly consulted in advance, and had accepted the treaties as drawn up and signed. When, however, they were reported by the Committee on Foreign Relations for the Senate's approval, objections were urged by certain Southern Senators, who feared that an Ameri-



HON. WILLIAM W. ROCKHILL, WHO IS TO SUCCEED MR. CONGER AS MINISTER TO CHINA.

The Senate's Amendment. Gradually the Republican Senators came around to that view, until they seemed to have become fairly possessed of a consuming zeal for the prerogatives of their body. They determined, finally, to amend the treaties by the substitution of the word "treaty" for the word "agreement" in the second section. President Roosevelt wrote a letter to Senator Cullom, chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, pointing out the objections to such a change, and making it plain that to amend the treaties in this way would be regarded as equivalent to a rejection rather than an approval of the arbitration scheme. The amendment was, however, adopted, and the treaties were approved by the Senate on February 11. The position taken by the Senate is a highly technical one, and is wholly inconsistent with what has been the time-honored practice of the Government. The treaties, as drawn, merely provide a way for the settlement of a limited class of questions liable to arise in the course of business between governments. They authorize the Executive to use arbitration as a further means of doing business in precisely those mat-



SENATOR CULLOM, OF ILLINOIS.

(Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations.)

ters which the Executive has authority at present to settle by diplomatic negotiation. It is a far-fetched and overstrained notion that would regard an arrangement to arbitrate some dead locked little diplomatic dispute as an exercise of the treaty-making power in the sense intended by the Constitution. It is a mere after-thought.

*The
Senate's
Inefficiency.*

The practical difficulty with the Senate's plan (requiring that every instance of such an arrangement must be put in the form of a special treaty and submitted for ratification) lies in the fact that the Senate has no rules and no method of doing business. A single member of that body can effectually block all action if he so determines. It was decided by the Executive not to offer the amended treaties to the countries with which the original conventions had been signed. Even as amended, however, these agreements would seem to have their full moral and sentimental value, and they may be regarded as committing the Senate to the ratification of particular agreements for arbitration whenever cases arise. In effect, Washington has resolved to arbitrate.

*Needed: A
Reform of
the Senate.*

One would like to believe that the action of the Senate, in refusing to sign these simple little arbitration treaties as originally negotiated, was due either to scruples touching the Constitution of the

United States, or else to broad views of public policy. But it is difficult for one who has followed closely the recent proceedings of the United States Senate to take so favorable a view. This body has become the danger-point in our system of government, and its proceedings merit the sharpest and closest attention. Public opinion is insistently demanding an amendment to the Constitution that will require the election of Senators by popular vote. If this amendment could be submitted to the people, the requisite number of States would promptly ratify it. Every House of Representatives for years has passed such an amendment, in order to give the people of the States the opportunity to express their opinion. But the Senators themselves have had the effrontery to refuse to allow the people to pass upon the question. The House of Representatives, under its present rules, is criticised as being no longer a deliberative body, and as bringing questions to a vote with far too little debate. Those who indulge in these criticisms have been commending the Senate as the bulwark of our liberties. It does not follow that there is more than a slight measure of truth in such criticisms.

*House
Versus
Senate.*

It is true that under the present rules the House acts quickly. But its action is almost invariably in response to a widespread and well-matured public opinion, with which the individual members of Congress are familiar, and to which they respond as men in touch with their constituencies. Thus, the House of Representatives acted with some promptitude last month in passing a railway-rate bill; but the subject has been under discussion for a great many years, and the overwhelming sentiment of the people of the United States last month was in favor, not of having the members of the House consume the session in talk, but of having them bring the question to a vote. In the Senate, the subject was "held up," partly through the lack of rules and the privilege of endless debate, but chiefly through other means of side-tracking it. It was not in the least through wisdom and conservatism superior to those of the other House that the measure was delayed, but through the perfectly well-known fact that a great many of the Senators are not in frank and complete accord with the sentiments of the people of their States.

*People
Versus
Senate.*

It is a serious matter to say that a large number of the members of the United States Senate are owned and controlled by private interests; and we shall not be placed in the position of agreeing with those

who have been making such charges. To say, however, that it is almost universally believed at Washington, and in well-informed political circles, that man after man in the United States Senate is subject to private influence is not to make or indorse the charges, but rather to report to the people of the country a distrust of the United States Senate that is very deplorable. The most important illustration of the curious way in which the Senate deals with public affairs was afforded last month by the vote upon the Statehood bill. The better sentiment of the country had finally so expressed itself against selfish local interests and private schemes as, seemingly, to have defeated the iniquitous plan to bring in four new States, every one of which would have lacked the proper qualifications.

*The Senate
and the
Statehood
Fight.*

A general agreement had been reached to bring in the old Indian Territory as one State under the name of Oklahoma, and to unite the Territories of New Mexico and Arizona, admitting them as one State. This agreement was in accord with the judgment of President Roosevelt, and that of all disinterested men understanding the situation and caring for the permanent welfare of this federal Republic, whose best interests require something like average equality among the States. The House of Representatives responded to this sentiment, and passed a proper measure. Senator Beveridge, who is chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, with the coöperation of a majority of his committee, reported this House measure favorably, and made a great and noteworthy fight for its adoption. It failed in the final vote, through the work of a coalition of powerful interests. These interests desired to secure the separate admission of Arizona and New Mexico, partly for the sake of various private schemes, and largely in order that those who make it their business to consider the tendency of votes in the United States Senate might have four more Senators that they could count upon, from Arizona and New Mexico. By a bare majority of one or two votes, the bill was amended in the Senate in such a way as to admit New Mexico alone, thus leaving Arizona,—which is decidedly the more promising of the two,—for admission at some future time.

*The Senate
Acts Upon a
"System."*

The work of the United States Senate during the past winter must be looked upon as an intelligent and well-systematized whole. The attempt to provide for a group of Senators from the Spanish-speaking Southwest must not be separated in the public mind from the determination to use

the Senate to defeat President Roosevelt's project of legislation for the proper control of railroads. Nor must the conduct of the Senate with reference to various treaties be regarded otherwise than as an attempt, in some quarters at least, to discredit President Roosevelt's policy. The idea has been to put him in a position of seeming to dictate to the Senate where constitutional grounds are involved,—all for the sake of making him appear as a man trying to usurp the authority of the legislative body. The very interests that are working so powerfully to array the Senate against the President, and to use the Senate to defeat the public will, are only too anxious to have the critics of the Senate indulge in wholesale and reckless charges. They know that such charges would help to divert attention from the real situation. We have, therefore, no charges at all to make; but, in the calmest possible way, we would suggest to good citizens in the different States that they ask and answer for themselves several questions,—first, is their own State represented by Senators one or both of whom are looked upon at Washington as the tools of private interests? Second, if they are under such suspicion, to what extent is the distrust justifiable? Third, are the Senators from their State the very best men who could be sent to Washington? Fourth, if they are not, how can good citizens organize to defeat the special interests that in so many States, of recent years, have managed to dictate the election of United States Senators?

*Make
History
Arright!*

The people of the United States who have any respect for the way in which our permanent history is made, should take their Senators in hand in the matter of the admission of Territories. Railroad-rate bills can be made and repealed. Tariffs can be modified on short notice. Almost everything else, including a hundred provisions of the Constitution itself, can be altered. But under our system the turning of a casual stretch of territory into a sovereign State is a permanent fact. It cannot be undone. And it is a crime against unborn generations for a United States Senator to give his vote on merely partisan, or temporary, or private grounds when it comes to the admission of a new State. The boundaries of all the states of Europe have been made and unmade and changed repeatedly in the past hundred years, but the American sovereignties that make up our sisterhood of States have kept their fixed metes and bounds. The most permanent geographical entities in all the history of the earth are the American States. The convulsions of our great Civil War made only one change in



HON. JOHN BASSETT MOORE.

(Formerly of the State Department, now professor of international law in Columbia University, who is an expert authority on Santo Domingo affairs. See his article on page 293.)

the State lines, and that was the very unfortunate and regrettable creation of the State of West Virginia. It was a profound mistake, a few years ago, to admit Utah. The country has suffered from the ill-considered admission of Nevada. Idaho and Wyoming were prematurely admitted, and the whole Western territory was carved up without due regard to the making of boundary lines that would have been justified on scientific and historical grounds. Oklahoma and Indian Territory, taken together, will make one proper and excellent State. The local inconveniences that weigh upon the minds of the people resident there will in due time pass away. But it will be wrong to admit either New Mexico or Arizona with present boundaries.

magazine, from the pen of Prof. John Bassett Moore, of Columbia University. Mr. Moore is a high authority on international law, was First Assistant Secretary of State in Mr. Cleveland's administration, and is deeply conversant with every phase of the Santo Domingo affair. His article, therefore, should be read by all those who would like to understand the facts. The principle underlying the Santo Domingo business can be stated in a few words. That republic has become so demoralized that it needs and must have some kind of outside supervision and moral control. It does not fulfill its obligations to foreign debtors, and has long been liable at any time to be occupied and taken possession of in a manner that would not be com-

*Another
Senatorial
Instance.*

The so-called "deliberative" methods of the Senate, to praise which there has been so ponderous and concerted an effort made of late, do not bring forth very valuable fruit. It is the country that deliberates, and that in the end compels action at Washington. The newspapers play the principal part nowadays in the discussion of public questions. The Senate would do well to adopt rules and to transact business. Its methods of delay have made it almost impossible to secure the ratification of treaties of any sort. Let it be repeated that the Senate's ways are not a source of strength to the country, but a frequent source of danger. This was illustrated in another important instance last month, when the Senate, for a time, took a course apparently intended to throw discredit upon the careful and prudent conduct of the United States in relation to the affairs of the republic of Santo Domingo.

*The
Dominican
Problem.*

A very valuable statement of this Santo Domingo situation appears in the present number of this

patible with the Monroe Doctrine. Our relation toward Santo Domingo can in due time be made somewhat analogous to that which exists between this country and Cuba. For the immediate future, however, something more is needed than the relations fixed in the so-called Platt amendment to the Cuban constitution. It is not necessary, however, here to recount the facts that will be found so instructively stated in Professor Moore's excellent article, beginning on page 293 of this number of the REVIEW.

*A Well-
Chosen
Policy.*

One point to which notice may be directed here is the attempt made in the United States Senate to give the country the idea that President Roosevelt had been proceeding imprudently and without due regard for the prerogatives of the Senate in trying to arrange for the better conduct of affairs in Santo Domingo. It had been mistakenly charged that the United States Government had proceeded to take forcible possession of all the custom-houses in Santo Domingo, and to collect the revenues for the benefit of creditors, without having negotiated a proper agreement. The facts were set forth in a message sent by the President to the Senate on February 15. The claims of the San Domingo Improvement Company against the Dominican Republic had been submitted to arbitration, which ended in the award of July 14, 1904. Under that award the United States was authorized to take charge of the receipts of the custom-houses of Puerto Plata and Monte Cristi for the benefit of American citizens to whom money was due.

*European
Interests.*

Dominican bonds are largely held in France and Belgium. There has been default in the payment of interest; and, with revolutions forever impending, it has been impossible for the foreign creditors to obtain their dues. With a proper financial control, the foreign debt could easily be provided for, while the domestic government would have a better income than ever before. The government of Santo Domingo would rather have the United States act as financial trustee, collecting the customs revenues, accounting honestly for the money, paying a part to the Dominican treasury, and applying the remainder to the paying off of foreign debts, than to submit to the occupation of territory and custom-houses by force on the part of the European governments. It has become plain that if our government does not take this step,—which it can do with ease, and which will be for the benefit of all parties,—the chaos in Santo Domingo will make European occupation inevitable.

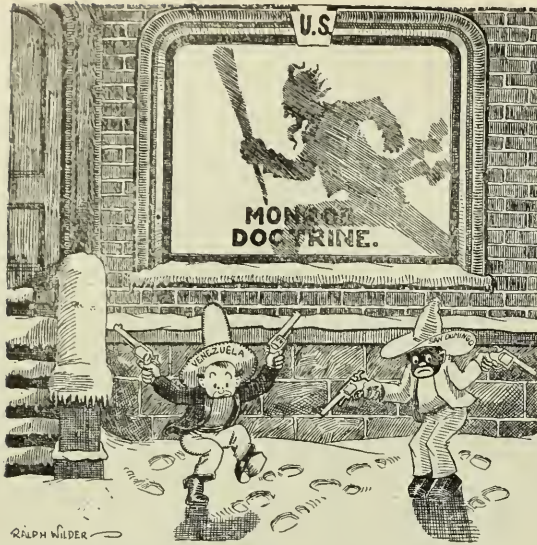
*A Useful
Fiscal
Plan.*

One of the principal causes of revolutions in Santo Domingo has been the temptation of revolutionary cliques to seize one port or another for the sake of appropriating the income of the custom-house. In accordance with the award of last July, the United States, several months ago, began to collect the revenues at Puerto Plata. On February 10, Rear-Admiral Sigsbee, with the cruiser *Newark*, now the flagship of the Caribbean squadron, and the cruiser *Detroit*, took charge of the custom-house at Monte Cristi, which had been in



PRESIDENT CARLOS F. MORALES, OF SANTO DOMINGO.

the hands of the revolutionary faction. This was done at the request of President Morales. Meanwhile a protocol looking toward United States control of the custom-house had been drawn up in Santo Domingo, and this was followed by the drafting of a formal treaty, signed by Mr. Dawson, the American minister, and Mr. Sanchez, President Morales' foreign minister. It is this treaty that reached Washington on February 15, and was transmitted to the Senate, with Mr. Roosevelt's message, on the same day. In the light of all the facts presented by the President, it was hoped that the Senate would be able to rise to some appreciation of its public duty and promptly ratify an arrangement that has much to commend it and little to be found fault with. The fate of Santo Domingo in the more distant future is not involved in the present proceedings except in a very indirect way. Naturally, if Uncle Sam puts into effect an honest system of collection and disbursement of cus-



SOMETHING UNCLE SAM WILL PUT A STOP TO.

VENEZUELA AND SAN DOMINGO, THE BOY BANDITS (to the powers): "Aw, you dassent shoot; you're 'fraid of busting the window."—From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).

toms receipts and takes care of the foreign debt, at the same time guaranteeing Santo Domingo against foreign attack. Uncle Sam's warships will have to protect the custom-houses and the commerce of the ports against revolutionary violence, and our government will at the same time have to see that further foreign indebtedness is not recklessly incurred.

Our oversight will not, however, need to go further than to establish conditions making it possible for the people of Santo Domingo, like those of Cuba, to escape from revolutionary chaos, and to do business with some hope of peaceful and normal conditions. If there should, in this country, set in a reaction against the policy of a large navy, there is now no chance of our returning to the conditions that existed before the war with Spain. Even if we do not soon become the second naval power in the world, we shall henceforth rank high both in the size of our navy and in its efficiency. Furthermore, with the Panama Canal as the connecting link between our Atlantic and Pacific interests, the naval control of the Caribbean Sea becomes essential to our policy, and we shall undoubtedly try to give practical effect to the Monroe Doctrine as it relates to the West Indies, Central America, and the northern coasts of South America. Our government will not be anxious for opportunities to act as receiver of bankrupt republics, but it cannot well refuse to

do such work as it has now entered upon in Santo Domingo when the necessity arises.

Our Duty Under the Monroe Doctrine.

The stability of Cuba is due to the fact that the United States would intervene if things went seriously wrong, whether in foreign relations or in domestic tranquillity. With no written or avowed arrangements, it is nevertheless perfectly understood at the City of Mexico and at Washington that the United States would never permit Mexico to fall into the chaotic conditions of Colombia and Venezuela. The new republic of Panama is, of course, under the protection of the United States, for its own best welfare. Santo Domingo and Haiti will have to be brought similarly under the friendly guidance of the United States Government. The policy upon which we have thus entered is not a radical one, but rather it is highly conservative in view of actual conditions. Those who have been most opposed to the acquisition of the Philippines by this government are the very people who ought to be most cordial in support of the new Santo Domingo policy, for the obvious reason that the kind of neighborly relations of aid and succor we have established in Cuba and are extending to Santo Domingo strengthen rather than weaken those republics, and diminish rather than increase the danger of annexation. Furthermore, these West Indian arrangements give precedents and experience which may ultimately show how we can best create the independent but protected and guaranteed republic of the Philippine archipelago. Certainly, this cannot be done for a good while; and most of us are of the opinion that it would be ill-advised to talk much about it at the present time. But there are many highly intelligent Americans whose sense of the ideal fitness of things will never be satisfied until they believe that ultimate Philippine independence is the policy toward which we are working with fixity of purpose. These sensitive individuals should by all means support the policy set forth by President Roosevelt in his message of February 15 on Dominican relations.

Venezuelan Controversies.

The course of public affairs does not run smoothly in Venezuela, and the international position of that country will never be quite properly reestablished until the eccentric President Castro is succeeded by a more experienced statesman. But our policy in 1903, under which England and Germany gave up their blockade and accepted arbitration, is not to be regretted, and in due time all the foreign claims will be adjusted and paid off under the plan then adopted, although our government will



PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE (WASHINGTON), FROM THE TREASURY TERRACE TO THE CAPITOL, NOW IN GALA ARRAY FOR MR. ROOSEVELT'S GREAT INAUGURATION PARADE.

have to give the business its constant supervision. Venezuela's hostile attitude toward the American Asphalt Company, which has for a good while owned an asphalt lake in that country, reached a new stage last month. The company has wholly failed to establish its claims in the Venezuelan courts, and its rights and wrongs may possibly become the subject-matter of an international arbitration.

The President and the South. Toward the end of the present month Mr. Roosevelt expects to make a trip to Texas, and thence to proceed to Colorado, where for several weeks he will disappear in the wilds on a much-needed vacation. He has been extremely busy throughout the session of Congress, in addition to which he has had his inaugural message to write and various matters to decide upon relating to his new term. In spite of the pressure of public business, he has found time to make a number of important public addresses, notable among these

being his Lincoln's-birthday speech before the Republican Club of New York. In this speech he dealt at length with the underlying principles of the race problem in the South. His expressions were broad, judicious, and conservative, and free from all tinge of prejudice or partisanship. They will stand as a permanent if not a final statement of his opinion upon the race question, and he will not expect to deal with this subject in the speeches he may make in the near future during his Southern trips or visits. He did not allude to the demand for reducing Southern Congressional representation in the ratio of the suppression of negro votes under existing franchise laws. It is not unreasonable to infer that if the President had believed that such a reduction of representation ought to be made he would have said so. There does not seem to be any likelihood whatever that the Republican party will seriously attempt to reduce Southern representation. The President's position, as stated in this New York

speech, does not differ in any way—unless in points of emphasis—from the views that have been expressed again and again by broad-minded and influential leaders in every Southern State. They, also, teach the duty of treating all men equally and justly, of giving all children the opportunity to be decent and intelligent, and of allowing every one to share, according to deserts, in the economic prosperity of the community.

*The President
and the
Railroads.*

Many people regarded his speech before the Union League Club at Philadelphia, on January 30, as one of the ablest of all the President's recent utterances, in which he stated with eminent fairness his views of the proper relations of railroads and public-service corporations to the people, and the principles upon which the Government should proceed in exercising a just supervision and control over the business of private corporations exercising public functions. The sentiment of the country in support of President Roosevelt's position has been nothing short of overwhelming. One State legislature after another has taken action requesting or instructing representatives in Congress to support the President's policy. It was with full understanding of this sentiment that the House of Representatives passed, on February 9, by a vote of 326 to 17, what was called the Townsend-Esch railroad-rate bill.

*Passage of
Rate Bill
by House.*

The bill was presented from the Interstate Commerce Committee by its chairman, Mr. Hepburn, of Iowa, as the best that could just now be evolved out of the large number of drafts of bills that had been referred to the committee. Mr. Hepburn supported it in an able speech, and Mr. Williams, leader of the Democrats, brought his half of the House solidly to the support of the administration position. The handful of votes against the bill came from New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania members, and represented the point of view of the railroad magnates who have been fighting so earnestly, but so hopelessly, against the sentiment of the country. To these was added the vote of Mr. McCall, of Massachusetts. This vote was based upon a doctrinaire and theoretical argument against governmental action, which could be launched (with a mere change of terms) against almost every sort and kind of public activity whatsoever. The Townsend-Esch bill, as passed by the House, made provision for a reorganized Interstate Commerce Commission,—with increase of salaries, dignity, and power, and with the added function of naming reasonable rates when it should be found that rates were discriminating or unreasonable. The bill further provided for the increase of the United States Circuit bench by the appointment of five new members, and for



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From left to right: Edward A. Moseley, secretary; Charles A. Prouty, of Vermont; Judson C. Clements, of Georgia; Martin A. Knapp, of New York, chairman; James D. Yoemans, of Iowa; Joseph W. Fifer, of Illinois.



Hon. Thomas H. Carter, of Montana.

Hon. Frank P. Flint, of California.

Hon. Samuel H. Piles, of Washington.

THREE NEWLY-CHOSEN MEMBERS OF THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

the designation by the President of five circuit judges to serve as a court of transportation for the prompt hearing of all matters taken by appeal from the Interstate Commerce Commission. The bill did not attempt to provide a remedy for the discriminations complained of under the private-car line system and for some other things requiring legislation. But no one could expect that any bill would wholly obviate the necessity of supplementary legislation in the future, and the private-car system could well be made the subject of a careful and complete inquiry, with a view to legislative action in the next Congress.

A Special Session Probable.

There would seem to be no sufficient reason why the Townsend-Esch bill should not have been concurred in by the Senate and made a law at the present session. But as these pages were closing for the press there was no expectation that the Senate would take action before adjournment on the 4th of March, except perhaps to provide for an inquiry by its commerce committee during the period between sessions. It was the President's intention, in case of the Senate's failure to act, to call a special session of Congress to meet in the autumn, probably in October, and to refer not only the rate legislation, but the question of tariff revision to that special session. The new House of Representatives will certainly be not less disposed to concur in the President's

policy than the existing House, inasmuch as a large number of new members owe their seats to the fact that they went in on the Roosevelt wave. As for the Senate, its general attitude will not be much affected by changes, although new blood will doubtless make itself felt.

La Follette to the Senate.

Perhaps the most interesting of the Senatorial changes is that which brings Governor La Follette, of Wisconsin, to be the successor of Senator Quarles. Mr. La Follette was elected governor for a third consecutive term in November, in spite of the division in the Republican party of the State. Now, contrary to the expectation of several months ago, he has permitted himself to be elected to the Senate, and will turn over the office of governor to the Hon. J. O. Davidson, who was elected lieutenant-governor on the same ticket with him. Mr. La Follette's new term as governor began on January 6, and he expects to be able to see the completion by the Wisconsin Legislature, this winter, of the measures with which he has identified himself. These measures have had to do chiefly with the control of nominations and elections, in order to free them from corporate influences; the taxation of railroads, and the regulation of railroad rates in order to prevent the companies from advancing their charges to recover the amounts levied upon them by the State. Mr. La Follette will natu-

rally be expected by his friends and supporters to step from conspicuous victory in the State field to a position of high prestige and influence in the affairs of the whole country. His colleague, Senator Spooner, is the leader of the opposing wing of Wisconsin Republicans, and is one of the most successful public men in Washington. It is only two years since Mr. Spooner was reelected, so that his term has yet four years to run. We publish in this number an

*Senate
Contests.*

There is nothing so much needed in the federal government at Washington, just now, as the sending to the Senate, from the various States, of men of experience and ability in public affairs, to replace a class of Senators whom the country can never really know anything about, because they are not, in a true sense, public men, but rather private agents who have found their way into the Senate through the backing of powerful interests. In the legislatures of Missouri and Delaware, as these pages were closed for the press, the Senatorial deadlock had not been broken. A little handful of Missouri Republicans, controlled by Mr. Kerens, was preventing the election of the caucus nominee, Mr. Niedringhaus. If no other solution should present itself, the country would certainly think none the worse of Mr. Niedringhaus if he should ask his friends to join with the Democrats and send Mr. Cockrell back for another Senatorial term. In Delaware, the everlasting Addicks fight has been going on, and Mr. Addicks has been making what will perchance prove his last desperate struggle to break into the United States Senate. Here, again, the Democrats have a reputable and distinguished candidate, and the anti-Addicks Republican group would show a fine patriotism if they would combine with the Democrats to give Addicksism its final blow.



LIEUT.-GOV. DAVIDSON, OF WISCONSIN.
(Who will succeed Governor La Follette.)

interesting article about Mr. La Follette and his career, from the pen of Walter Wellman. Our readers may remember that when Mr. Spooner's reelection to the Senate was somewhat in doubt in the legislative campaign of 1902, this magazine made a strong plea for the retention of so useful a statesman in the councils of the nation, and secured from Mr. Wellman what proved to be, throughout Wisconsin, a very influential statement of the value of Mr. Spooner's work at Washington. It is peculiarly fitting, therefore, that Mr. Wellman,—who also knows Mr. La Follette well, and with a friendly feeling toward him,—should write about him for our readers as he comes to Washington to serve as Mr. Spooner's colleague, and to take part in the great pending issues. It was expected that he would not resign as governor before the beginning of March.



HON. THOS. K. NIEDRINGHAUS.
(The Missouri caucus candidate for U. S. Senate.)



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Justice Holmes. Justice Peckham. Justice Mc Kenna. Justice Day.
Justice Brown. Justice Harlan Chief Justice Fuller. Justice Brewer. Justice White.

THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT, NOW CHIEF ARBITER IN THE BUSINESS AFFAIRS OF THE COUNTRY.

An Injunction Against Beef-Packers. The movement that set in several years ago against the so-called trusts has begun to assume clearer outlines and more intelligent methods. Thus, the rate bill, and the proposed legislation cognate to it, are for the purpose of dealing with the railway combinations, among which the principle of competition no longer operates. Railroad supervision, at the hands of an Interstate Commerce Commission and a court of transportation, may indeed be far from perfect, but it may be more just toward all interests than unrestrained control of the country's chief highways of commerce by a little group of half a dozen men controlling the amalgamated railroad systems. With this extension of control over railroads, the Sherman anti-trust law will be left to its intended field,—namely, the industrial corporations. One way in which it can be invoked has now been set forth in the unanimous decision of the United States Supreme Court, at the end of January, against the alleged "beef trust." This decision is, in form, merely a confirmation of the decision of United States Circuit Judge Grosscup, at Chi-

ago, last spring, who issued an injunction restraining the great meat-packers from acting in combination to fix the prices of cattle, and to fix the prices of dressed beef.

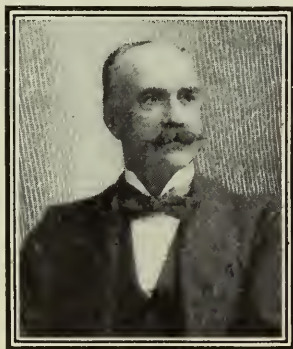
Lines of the Decision.

The decision of the Supreme Court is upon broad lines, and is contained in an opinion prepared by Justice Holmes, in which every member of the bench concurs. The case of the Government was prepared and presented to the court by Attorney-General Moody, and the result is in some measure a personal triumph for him. While this particular form of action has been pending in the courts, the Department of Commerce and Labor, under the direction of Mr. Garfield, head of the Bureau of Corporations, has been conducting an inquiry into the business of marketing live stock, packing meat, and supplying the provision market. A report of this inquiry was expected in the latter part of February. While the decision takes the form of an injunction strictly prohibiting certain practices, and does not, therefore, find anybody guilty, it would

seem to involve, nevertheless, the practical finding that such methods have been employed in the past. The next step on the part of the Government will not be an endeavor to prove old offenses, but to prevent the continuance of practices which are said to make the price of cattle too low on the one hand, and the price of beef too high on the other. It remains to be seen how and to what extent this decision can have tangible economic results in the way of giving the Western farmer a better price for his cattle and the Eastern consumer more meat for his money. Meanwhile the injunction plan pursued in Judge Grosscup's court, and confirmed by the United States Supreme Court, can be invoked from time to time in the case of other industries supposed to have become monopolized.

Although the power to fix reasonable railroad rates has been so prominently under discussion at Washington, the chief practical complaint against the railroads has been not so much that the average standard of rates is unreasonably high as that there has been lacking an honest application of standards and a fair treatment of shippers. The railroads, it is true, now assert that they have practically given up the business of paying rebates and of discriminating among shippers. There are, however, indirect ways to evade the law, and where cash rebates are not paid there are various means by which a great firm or corporation may constantly have favors and privileges that put competitors at a disadvantage. In pursuance of complaints against the Atchison, Topeka, & Santa Fé system, it has been shown by the Interstate Commerce Commission that there has been discrimination in the case of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company against competitors of that corporation. The case has been deemed so important as to require action at the hands of the Department of Justice. Attorney-General Moody has accordingly employed a former Democratic Attorney-General, Mr. Judson Harmon, of Cincinnati, in association with a prominent member of the St. Louis bar, Mr. Frederick N. Judson,

A Rebate Case to be Prosecuted.



HON. JUDSON HARMON, OF OHIO.
(Who will act for the Government as special attorney in a railroad-rebate case.)

to investigate the matter, with a view to assisting the United States Government in prosecuting such violations of the law as they discover. Mr. Paul Morton, now Secretary of the Navy, was vice-president of the Santa Fé system when appointed to the cabinet last summer, and there has been some disposition, chiefly on the part of Democratic newspapers, to criticise the President for keeping Mr. Morton in the cabinet in view of his former connection with the affairs of that railway. To all this there is no need of any reply on the President's part. He is not trying to punish or humiliate any individual railroad men, but to aid the railroad men themselves in breaking up the bad practice of rebates and discriminations that has persisted from a former era of railroad management. Mr. Morton himself belongs essentially to the new period, and brings to the service of the Government the same executive ability that made him successful in the railway world. Attorney-General Moody and Messrs. Harmon and Judson will see that there is no lack of thoroughness in the action that it is proposed to bring in connection with the Santa Fé case. Meanwhile Mr. Morton will continue to administer the affairs of the navy, and doubtless his knowledge of the railroad business will be of some incidental service to the President and his administration in the endeavor to abolish abuses.

Kansas and the Oil Trust.

The world of industry and politics had its attention strongly drawn last month to the energetic State of Kansas. Not only was the State engaged in framing stringent laws for the control of railroads, but the legislature went so far as to appropriate money for the establishment of a State oil refinery to compete against the Prairie Oil and Gas Company, of Kansas, which is one of the subsidiary corporations of the Standard Oil Company. The oil fields of Kansas are of considerable importance, but their owners complain that the Prairie Oil Company, which operates the pipe lines and refineries, and is the only purchaser of their product, has had them at its mercy, and has paid them too low a price for their crude oil, as compared with the price charged to consumers for refined oil. When the bill passed the legislature, the oil company restricted its Kansas business and ceased for a few days to buy the crude oil, leaving the producers without a market. On February 15, Representative Campbell, of Kansas, secured the unanimous passage by the House of Representatives, at Washington, of a resolution calling upon the Secretary of Commerce and Labor to investigate the Standard Oil Com-

Gov. E. W. Hoch,
of Kansas.Congressman P. P. Camp-
bell, of Kansas.

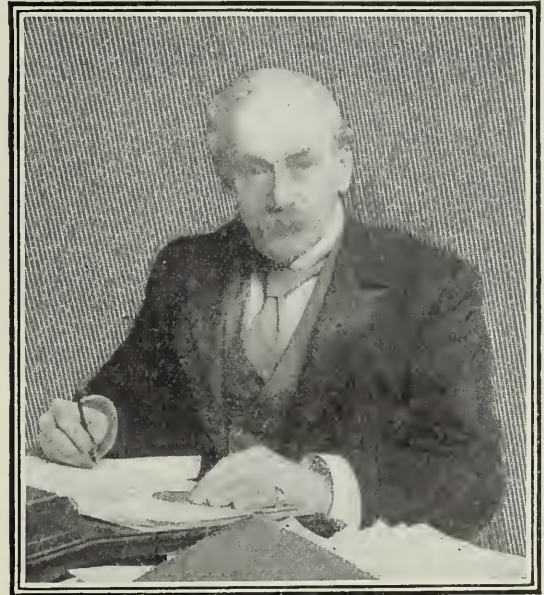
TWO KANSAS MEN PROMINENT LAST MONTH.

pany's methods of doing business in Kansas. The President and Secretary Metcalf responded to the request, and Mr. Garfield, of the Bureau of Corporations, informed the press that steps had immediately been taken by him to carry out the wishes of Congress. To what extent Mr. Garfield's investigation of the Standard Oil Company would go beyond the boundaries of Kansas was said to await developments.

Municipal Topics.

The city of Chicago is preparing for one of the most important municipal elections in its history. The Republicans have nominated as their candidate for mayor Mr. John M. Harlan, who has run for that office on two or three previous occasions, and is an ideal candidate. His chances of election this year are regarded as excellent. Mayor Carter Harrison has had terms enough, and the Democrats were expected to nominate Judge Dunne. Chicago is preparing to draft a new charter, and the near future is to bring about a settlement of the long struggle over the extension of street-railway franchises. In New York there is much interest in the prospect of the immediate establishment of a municipal electric-lighting plant, to which Mayor McClellan and the city authorities are committed. The most serious problem, however, is that of the water-supply, and it is now admitted that unless this question is taken out of politics and pressed to a solution with all possible energy, a water

famine must be faced within a very few years. The never-ceasing agitation about police conditions has brought about the appointment of a new citizens' committee of inquiry. The infamies of the present liquor law, which has created many thousands of evil resorts known as Raines law hotels, have so stirred up public opinion that the legislature is proceeding to amend the statute with a view to suppressing this particular abuse. With all its shortcomings, New York in most respects improves amazingly from year to year. The great Metropolitan Museum of Art is about to enter upon a new era of greatly increased usefulness and importance, under the presidency of Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, and under the active work of a new director, Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, who comes to New York from a career of great distinction and public usefulness at the head of the South Ken-



SIR CASPAR PURDON CLARKE.

sington Museum, in London. The hopeful plans for the Metropolitan Museum do not concern New York alone, but are of interest to many people in every State of the Union. It is to be noted that Chicago last month opened a so-called municipal museum. This comes as the outgrowth of a considerable European and American experience, and it would be hard to set bounds to the possible benefits that may be derived from a well-directed establishment of this kind. It can be made to show what is good and bad in everything that belongs to the building of cities and the carrying on of their public services.

*Happenings
in Latin
America.*

Santo Domingo, as already noted, seemed to claim the lion's share of our interest in Latin America during January and February. In Cuba, the announcement had been made of the nominating conventions to be held by the different political parties. President Palma, it appears, had decided to ally himself formally with the Moderate party, probably looking to a renomination. The announcement of his party affiliation had brought about the resignation of five members of his cabinet,—resignations which, however, he declined to accept. In Mexico, there had been some discussion over the report that the government had decided to abolish the free zone,—a strip of territory thirty miles wide, extending along the United States boundary. Our trade with Mexico, it may be said, in passing, has not progressed as much as might be expected. Recent reports from our consuls indicate that German methods are winning in our sister republic, chiefly because German houses employ the Spanish language, while Americans usually know only English. The Venezuelan situation had become somewhat strained through the attempts of President Castro to evade his financial obligations, as agreed upon after the blockade two years ago by the allied European powers, and his attitude toward American interests in the asphalt industry. An anti-Castro revolution, it is believed, is on the point of breaking out. A small revolution in Argentina, the causes of which are not generally known, had occurred late in January, but the government soon had the insurrection completely in hand.

*The British
Parliament
Opens.*

What is without reasonable doubt the last session of the British Parliament which was elected in 1900 began its session on February 14. The ministerial majority in the Commons had been only 81, and Premier Balfour will have difficulty in always being able to count upon the support of the 58 Liberal-Unionists, who have usually voted with the Conservatives. It had been expected that, after a few weeks' formal session, Parliament would adjourn and the administration appeal to the country. Almost all the by-elections having gone against the Conservatives, and a number of the prominent Tories (among them Mr. T. W. Russell, Mr. Winston Churchill, and Mr. Ivor Guest) having gone over to the opposition side, the triumph of the Liberals is accepted as a foregone conclusion. Therefore, it is not assumed that the prime minister will wait until the statutory term of the present Parliament has expired (which will be in 1907) before appealing to the

electorate. Early this month the new Parliament in South Africa will begin its second session, with Dr. Jameson as premier. The elections in Cape Colony had indicated that the sentiment of the voters is strongly in favor of an increased protective tariff, and this, with the cool reception given to his theories in Canada, is not calculated to give great encouragement to Colonial Secretary Chamberlain in his programme of imperialism and preferential tariffs. In his speech the King had announced that it is the intention of the government to introduce in the coming session bills dealing with alien immigration, the unemployment question, the problem of workman's compensation, and the establishment of a ministry of commerce. The temper of the House of Commons had been indicated by the early motion of the well-known Liberal, Mr. H. H. Asquith, in favor of an early dissolution, so carefully worded that Mr. Chamberlain's followers will be able to vote for it should their leader give the word. Britain's stake in the far Eastern war is clearly recognized in London, and, despite repeated denials of its truth, the report persists that, in conjunction with France, King Edward's government is working hard to bring about peace between Russia and Japan.

*The French
Anti-Clerical
Campaign.*

The first acts of the new ministry in France, as foreshadowed in these pages last month, are in accord with the policy of the Combes administration. The official programme of Premier Rouvier contains the main features advocated by his predecessor. M. Théophile Delcassé remains minister of foreign affairs, and M. Henry Berteaux minister of war. On February 9, the formal measure for the separation of the Church and State was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies, and adopted at once. The new bill abolishes the Concordat, declares that all laws and orders relative to the public organization of religious denominations are abrogated, suppresses all existing public establishments of religion, and prohibits any appropriation of government funds for religious purposes. This is one great aim of the Rouvier ministry; the income tax is the other. And it has become evident that, unable to stand up against the anti-clerical sentiment directly, opponents of the separation of Church and State will attempt to defeat the new ministry on the income-tax issue. Early in February, the Pope had informed the College of Cardinals that he had prepared an Encyclical, recounting the entire history of the conflict between France and the Church, and announcing the basis of a new organization of the French clergy.

*The Great
Coal Strike
in Germany.*

Some students of international politics are professing to see in the Prussian Government's decision to introduce new mining laws into the Diet an indication of the Kaiser's anxiety lest the Russian internal troubles have effect in Germany. It is recognized that Germany is the strongest support of the Russian autocracy, principally through her avowed determination to prevent political disturbances in such portions of Poland as belong to her, and her undoubted willingness to assist the Czar's government in case Russian Poland should rise. The coal strike, which the government fears will become a political movement, had assumed serious proportions by the middle of February, and the Emperor had appointed a commission of investigation. More than two hundred thousand miners had been striking in Westphalia. Conditions of life had been very burdensome, and when a reduction of wages, increase in the hours of labor, and (as they alleged) unfairness in weighing the product of such labor were added to the grievances of the miners, the strike had become widespread. Sixteen hours had been a working-day, and a monopolistic combination of the mine owners had become so oppressive and powerful as to even antagonize the German Government, which is a large buyer of coal for the state-owned railways. Conferences between the owners and the men had been fruitless of result up to the middle of February. Germany's other troubles in southwest Africa are not yet ended. The total loss of German troops in the campaign against the Herreros up to January 1 had been more than eighty officers and a thousand men. Colonel Leutwein, the much-abused ex-governor of German Southwest Africa, upon his recent arrival in Hamburg, had declared to a newspaper correspondent that a general uprising of the natives of South Africa in the near future is not only a possibility, but a probability.

*Scandinavian
Politics.*

Owing to ill health, King Oscar II. of Sweden and Norway has retired from active rule and appointed Crown Prince Gustaf Regent until further notice. The prince has been Regent twice before, but this time it is felt that the old King's retirement is to be permanent. King Oscar, who has been one of the ablest rulers of the nineteenth century, and probably the most democratic king who ever lived, is the grandson of that French country notary Bernadotte, who rose to be marshal of France and became King of Sweden early in the last century by grace of the first Napoleon. King Oscar is seventy-six years of age, a real Viking in figure, and very popular at home and abroad. As a referee in international



PRINCE GUSTAF OF SWEDEN-NORWAY.
(Now Regent upon the retirement of his father, King Oscar II. The Prince is a strong Conservative.)

arbitration matters, he has had an importance in the world's politics really quite out of proportion to the rank of his kingdom. He has been a successful diplomat and ruler, and has piloted the rather delicately balanced dual realm over which he rules through many threatening storms. Premier Hagerup, of Norway, however, had recently announced that the time has come for Norway to break away from the union, and a strong, young hand is needed at the helm. Prince Gustaf, now acting King, is married to a descendant of the old Swedish dynasty which the Bernadottes displaced, so that when he actually succeeds to the throne the ancient house of Vasa returns. He has hardly yet shown his hand, but it is believed that he is less liberal than his father. He is known to be opposed to the aspirations of Norway for separation, and it is believed that he is at heart pro-Russian, pro-German, and anti-English.

With the surprising majority of the Nationalists, in Hungary, in the elections late in January, had come the resignation of the Tisza cabinet. The Emperor had then summoned to Vienna both Count Julius Andrássy (son of the famous Andrássy), one of the strong men of the opposition, and Francis Kossuth, leader of the Kossuth, or Radical, party. It is expected that one of these will be premier. Complete returns show that the Kossuthists count 159 members of the new Parliament, and, with the addition of the 83 votes of the other opposition parties, can show a total of 242 votes, against a Liberal strength of only 151. This is the first Liberal defeat since the original establishment of the famous Ausgleich in 1867. It is assumed that the elections will have an important bearing on the future of the dual monarchy. The two questions now agitating Hungary and Austria are those of an independent Hungarian army and the general commercial relations between the two sections. The new prime minister of the empire, Baron Gauth von Frankenthurn, will have a difficult task before him. In the next number of the REVIEW we hope to present an informing survey of the internal and external relations of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, by a native Austrian, who has been in governmental service, and knows whereof he speaks.

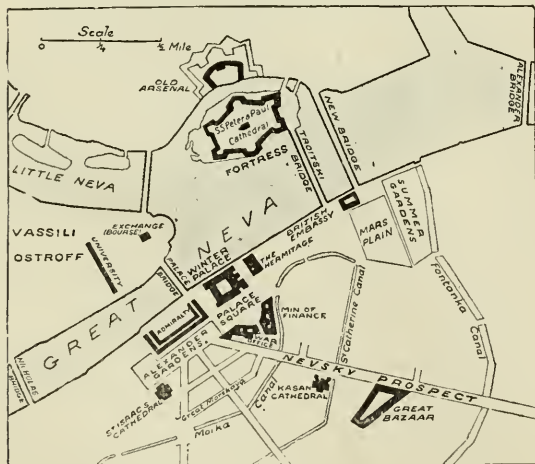
The Russian Revolutionary Movement. In the words attributed to the Russian minister of agriculture, Yermolov, at a meeting of the council of ministers, that the present system of government in Russia had outlived its usefulness, and that

henceforth, it will be impossible to carry on the business of the empire without the assistance of the Russian people, may be found the conviction which has apparently settled deeply into the minds of the Russian nation as a result of the momentous happenings of the past two months. The story of the industrial and political demon-



GENERAL TREPov, MILITARY GOVERNOR OF ST. PETERSBURG.

(Who has absolute power to put down industrial and political demonstrations.)



PLAN OF THE CITY OF ST. PETERSBURG.

(Indicating points at which industrial and political riots have taken place. This plan should be studied in connection with Dr. Dillon's article on page 303 of this issue.)

strations in St. Petersburg, reaching their climax in the massacre of January 22, is told in graphic terms by Dr. E. J. Dillon, who was an eye-witness of everything that happened, in an article on page 303 of this issue of the REVIEW. For several weeks the strike situation had remained threatening, although less violent than before. Frequent encounters had taken place between the striking workmen and the military; but, with almost dictatorial power in his hands, Governor-General Trepov had been able to "maintain order." The men, with few exceptions, had refused to return to work, and a number of establishments, including the Putiloff (government) iron works, had been seriously crippled because of the strike. Pending the actual execution of the Czar's will in the matter of reforms which may be con-

templated, the revolutionary elements appeared to be only "marking time."

It had been expected that Moscow would be the scene of even more serious disturbances than St. Petersburg, since the old Muscovite capital is the center of the Liberal movement, and fewer troops had been stationed there than at the capital on the Neva. The hatred of Liberal Moscow for the autocratic régime was emphasized by the assassination by a bomb, on February 17, of the worst of the reactionary grand dukes, Sergius, uncle of the Czar. Our frontispiece this month tells the story. The merchants of Moscow are strong in their opposition to the war, and the nobles of that city, headed by the famous Liberal, Prince Trubetzkoi, one of Russia's real "Intellectuals,"

had addressed a remarkable petition to the Czar, calling for representative government. The condemnation by the government of the resolutions in favor of reforms, offered by the Moscow nobility and municipality, had caused the resignation of Prince Galitzin, the Liberal mayor of the city. Early in February, however, Prince Galitzin had been reelected by the municipal council by a large majority. Demonstrations and riotings had taken place in other portions of the empire, notably in Sevastopol, where the admiralty arsenal was burned by incendiaries, and several hundred sailors mutinied against being sent to the far East; in Odessa, where industrial riots took place; in Kharkov, where the chief of police was attacked; in Finland, notably in Helsingfors, where Soisalon Soinenin (or Johnsson), the procurator-general of the Senate, a pro-Russian Finn, was assassinated by a young man named Hohenthal, a relative of Schumann, who killed Bobrikov; in Kiev, in Riga, and generally throughout Poland.

In some respects, the most serious aspect of the economic and political struggle in Russia is the fact that all the industrial centers are solidly opposed to the war and to the autocracy itself. Russia is grad-

ually evolving from a pastoral, agricultural country to an industrial one, and an industrial nation cannot exist, much less progress, under such arbitrary, unstable conditions as an autocracy brings with it. This has been illustrated by the intensity and wide area of the strike situation in Poland, commercially and industrially, the most progressive section of the empire. In Warsaw, the third city of the country, with close to a million inhabitants; in Lódz, the Polish Manchester, with its almost half a million people; in Radom, in Sosnowiec, and other Polish manufacturing and industrial centers, during January and February, between two and three hundred thousand workmen had struck. They had demanded an eight-hour day, old-age pensions, and other concessions, which the employers had declared impossible under present conditions. There had been much violence in the streets, Cossacks attacking the strikers, and, according to the official police report, killing fifty-seven, including six women and three children, in the city of Warsaw alone. Many more had been killed in the smaller towns. The strikers themselves had looted and burned shops, and for more than a week Warsaw had all its factories closed, its lights out, and no street cars running. There had been much suffering among the families of the strikers. Martial law had been declared, and governmental surveillance, including a rigorous censorship, had been maintained. Although effort had been made by the Socialist and other radical agitators to turn the strikes into a political movement which should have for its object a Polish insurrection, the more thoughtful Poles, and, in fact, all the leading spirits, had not regarded the present as Poland's opportunity to strike for a revival of her national life. Anti-Russian demonstrations had occurred in several cities in both German and Austrian Poland, particularly in Cracow, but it is recognized by the Poles themselves that the present upheaval is Russia's quarrel, and not their opportunity.

Three significant happenings during early February had pointed to the awakening of the Czar and his government to a realizing sense of the necessity for reforms! One had been the reception by the Czar of a delegation of workmen to present their claims, another had been the evident desire on the part of the authorities to justify the repressive measures (at least, in some degree) to the outside world, and the third had been the willingness of the Czar himself to concede to the people some measure of representation in the government. On February 1, the Czar met, at the palace in Tsarskoe-Selo, thirty-four work-



PRINCE TRUBETZKOI.

(The "Reform" president of the Moscow zemstvo.)

The Situation in Poland.

The Czar Sees Workmen.

ingmen—representatives of eleven trade assemblies in St. Petersburg. To this delegation, which, it had afterward been claimed, was selected by the government and the employers, the Emperor declared that the people must be patient; that all reforms promised in his ukase of December 26 last would be carried out. He declined, however, to hear their grievance. Yet the autocracy is becoming sensitive to the opinion not only of Russia, but of the rest of the world. This is indicated by the fact that, immediately after the massacre on Sunday, January 22, proclamations were issued to the whole nation, justifying the repressive measures; and, in an interview with an Associated Press representative, the Grand Duke Vladimir, uncle of the Czar, commander-in-chief of the Russian army, and the man responsible for the refusal to allow the strikers to present their petition to the Emperor, had announced that reforms had been practically decided upon, and that, while the peasants are at present unfit for the fran-

chise, the Emperor, in consultation with his advisers, had determined upon a representative assembly which would give to all classes a right to be heard. Autocracy, he had further declared, would remain. There would be no constitution, but, when the war with Japan was over, some sort

of a popular representation—perhaps including a responsible ministry—would be instituted.

*Will a
Constitution
Be Granted?*

There had been many reports that some sort of a constitution would be granted by the Czar, but even the most enthusiastic and hopeful friends of Russia, who know the situation, realize that representative government must come gradually in the empire. There have been many indications that the Czar, when temporarily free from the reactionary influences of the Court party, most prominent in which are the grand dukes and the Dowager-Empress, would be glad to convene the old land parliament, or consultive assembly of notables, known as the Zemski-Sobor. This ancient institution, corresponding somewhat to the States General of France, has not been convened for nearly two centuries—since the reign of Catherine I.—and was formerly only called in cases of great national danger. The Reactionaries, however, would have the Czar believe that the assembling of this body would mean the downfall of the autocracy, and Emperor Nicholas, who is not a strong man, hesitates. He knows that there is no one among the grand dukes who, if made Czar, or Regent, would do better than he. He believes honestly in the autocracy, and it might be that to-day, if a plebiscite were taken, the great majority of his subjects would declare for a strong personal rule. He is certainly the most unfortunate of monarchs. Just before the present troubles, he is reported to have said, "I would not wish my worst enemy to have to bear my burden;" and yet, with almost every progressive subject of the empire, from Minister Witte down to the workmen of St. Petersburg, clamoring for a representative assembly, why is Czar Nicholas not willing to lay some of his burden on the shoulders of chosen representatives of his people?



DR. ZVEROV, THE HEAD OF THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP.
(Who was removed last month for pro-Liberal tendencies, it is reported.)

chise, the Emperor, in consultation with his advisers, had determined upon a representative assembly which would give to all classes a right to be heard. Autocracy, he had further declared, would remain. There would be no constitution, but, when the war with Japan was over, some sort

*As to Some
of the
Personalities.*

It is a sad comment on the claims of the autocracy, that it is the best form of government for the Russian people, to note that the men who in any other country would be among its glories and patriot defenders are, in Russia, of necessity, in the opposition; of necessity "suspect," while the "glorified policeman" type of public man is forever in the ascendancy. Tolstoi is "suspect," Gorki (who has been cast into prison) is "suspect." Men like Prince Mirski, Prince Trubetzkoi (Liberal president of the Moscow zemstvo), Professor Annensky, Father Gapon, even Witte himself (whose house was searched by the secret police a couple of weeks ago),—these men are all "suspect," while apostles of physical force, like

the late Minister Plehve, General Trepov, the Finnish Governor-Generals Bobrikov and Obolenski, Admiral Alexeiv, and others, rise to power. This is illustrated by the forced resignation of Prince Mirski as minister of the interior and the appointment in his place, early in February, of a former governor of Moscow, named Bulygin, an almost fanatical reactionary. Two of the most interesting personalities on the Liberal side,—the now famous Father Gapon, and Prince Trubetzkoï, of Moscow—are the subjects of "Leading Articles" this month. The Czar and his reactionary advisers maintain that Russia is not ready for a constitution, that the Russian people are not fit for representative government. But it is impossible for the outside world to withhold admiration for the high courage, patient dignity, and fine, noble idealism of the leaders of the Russian Liberal movement. Men who, under conditions such as now exist in Russia, are able to prepare and courageous enough to present such a memorial as came from the provincial assembly of Kharkov (to mention no others), are as ready for self-government as any in the world. Hear them :

We regard it as our duty to tell you, sire, that not only the horrors of war and grief for our reverses darken the cradle of your heir, but other clouds hang over it, and over the whole country as well. Long years of bureaucratic oppression, violence, arbitrary rule, impoverishment, and the total disfranchisement of the people, the utter violation of the principle of freedom of the person and freedom of thought and conscience, have created a state of things in the empire which can no longer be endured. These same conditions are bringing down the future storm, of which the first thunder-symptoms are already audible. . . .

It pleases your Majesty, in the ukase of December 25, to sketch a series of legislative reforms and to charge a committee of the ministers to realize them; but the ministers are ignorant of our needs, and only representatives of the Russian land, freely elected by the population, are capable of carrying out your intentions. Your great forbear, Peter I., said it was vain to inscribe laws if they were not to be fulfilled, and these words are engraved on the mirror of justice in all the government buildings of the smallest Russian towns; yet Russia is still governed, not by laws, but by circulars and provisional rules which evade and violate the laws.

It is not enough to make laws. It is indispensable to guarantee their observance. It is indispensable to guarantee to the people their rights. It is indispensable to exercise wakeful vigilance. No bureaucratic system can accomplish this. The bureaucracy has already forfeited the confidence of the country. Neither is any monarch, however great, able to know everything, to act for all, and alone to be responsible before God and the nation for the destinies of his fatherland.

Do not trust, sire, to negligent and wily servants, but repose confidence in chosen representatives of the nation. Hasten to convoke them to a permanent chamber, endowed with legislative powers and qualified to see that the laws are not broken, that the treasury is



SERGE WITTE, PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS.
(One of Russia's strongest men.)

not robbed, and that the milliards accumulated from the nation's mites are employed suitably and for proper purposes.

*A Battle
on the
Hun River.*

After General Mistchenko's raid to the west of the Hun and Liao rivers, in his attempt to cut the Japanese communications, in the middle of January, there had been quietness between the armies in Manchuria until January 25, when a general engagement began on the Japanese left flank, and continued for six days. It is not quite clear which army attacked first, but the engagement seems to have been part of a determined effort by General Kuropatkin to break through the Japanese lines or to turn their left flank in the direction of Liao-Yang. This much is known,—the second army, under General Gripenberg, was repulsed, with a loss of more than 15,000 men. The Japanese lost 7,000. After the encounter, which was severe and bitter, and during which both armies suffered much from the cold, the original fortified lines had been resumed without material changes. Serious disagreements had been reported between General Kuropatkin and General Gripenberg, the former accusing the latter of useless sacrifice of troops, and the latter complaining that his chief did not properly sup-

port him. General Grippenbergh afterward resigned, and was succeeded by General Baron Kaulbars, who, some months ago, had been announced as the commander of the third Russian army. The official report for the first year of the war, issued by the Russian general staff at St. Petersburg, February 1, showed that 130,000 officers and men were in the hospitals, and that between 48,000 and 50,000 had been killed on the field of battle.

*The
Naval
Situation.*

There had been a lull in the major naval activities of Russia and Japan for several weeks preceding Admiral Togo's departure from Tokio (on February 15) with a secret destination, but (it had been generally believed) with the intention of attacking the Russian Baltic fleet. Admiral Rozhstvenski had been cruising in the Indian Ocean, along the northern coast of Madagascar, causing considerable anxiety to the French governor-general because of delicate questions of neutrality. Some peace rumors had been started by reports that orders for coal and supplies, originally intended for the Baltic fleet, had been countermanded by the Russian Government. But this had been denied. On the other hand, the so-called third Pacific squadron, consisting of four battleships and one cruiser, had left Libau, on February 15, to reënforce Rozhstvenski. Japan had announced that colliers accompanying the Baltic fleet, no matter what their nationality, would be fired on and sunk by her warships. With the fall of Port Arthur and the release of the blockading fleet, the scene of naval activity in Japanese waters had been transferred to Vladivostok, which, it had been announced early in February, was completely blockaded by the Japanese. The rather protracted sessions of the North Sea Commission, in Paris, had been taken up with the presentation of voluminous evidence, the Russian officers persisting in their testimony that they saw Japanese torpedo-boats off the Dogger Bank. The chorus of praise for General Stoessel, and his defense of Port Arthur, is not so general, and popular indignation at the report of his impending court-martial has calmed somewhat, owing to the report, on no less an authority than the Peking correspondent of the London *Times*, that "if General Stoessel had not been a coward and a traitor, Port Arthur might have held out until Easter." There was plenty of food and ammunition, and 25,000 able-bodied soldiers in the fortress. It was the cowardice of the officers, the *Times* correspondent tells us, which brought about the capitulation. "If the real hero of the defense, General Kondratshenko, had lived, there might have been a different story to tell."

*Japanese
Medical
Skill.*

The remarkable success of the Japanese in controlling disease, by maintaining almost perfect sanitary conditions in the field, has been referred to before in these pages. The report of the officer in charge of statistics with General Oku's army, issued on January 29, gives some interesting confirmation of the Japanese reputation in this respect. The figures show that from May 6 to December 1 last there were treated in the Japanese forces 24,642 cases of disease, of which only 40 resulted fatally; 18,578 patients recovered, 5,609 were sent to Japan, and the remainder were undergoing treatment when the figures were compiled. There were only 193 cases of typhoid and 342 of dysentery, although 5,070 cases of beri-beri were reported. The casualties during this period were: killed, 5,127; wounded, 21,080; missing, 406. Sixteen per cent. of the wounded died, 19 per cent. recovered in the field, and 65 per cent. were sent back to Japan. This record is remarkable; much better than ours in the Spanish war under more favorable circumstances. Rarely has the world seen such an efficient combination of the qualities of the warrior with the scientific care of health.

*Japanese
Training.*

The heroism and remarkable warlike qualities of the Japanese may be a surprise to Western nations; but back of the splendid patriotism and loyalty to Emperor and country is the fine physical development, the result of the application, for generations, of Samurai ideals. The first training of a youth under this system was to be thrown, at the age of twelve, naked into the snow and ordered to box or fence himself warm. The now famous jin-jitsu originated thus. This fine physical training and patriotism was shown in the attack on Peking, in 1900, when General Fukushima and his command were the admiration and envy of all Europe. It is better, the Japanese are saying, that Japan should fight now, because her soldiers are still under the influence of the old training. In twenty years, owing to industrial and economic conditions, the Japanese will be as flabby and useless for soldiers as most of the Continental European armies are to-day. The Japanese army, we may add, in answer to a query by a REVIEW reader, is organized on the German system, with slight modifications. The Emperor is the commander-in-chief. He is represented by two marshals, at present, Oyama and Yamagata. There are ten full generals,—Kuroki, Oku, Nodzu, Nogi, Kodama, Katsura, Yamaguchi, Hasegawa, Nishi, and Sakuma. Then come lieutenant-generals; then major-generals. The most famous major-general is Fukushima.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 21 to February 17, 1905.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 21.—The Senate adopts a resolution to proceed with the impeachment trial of Judge Swayne.... The House passes the Indian appropriation bill; Speaker Cannon appoints a committee of seven to manage the Swayne impeachment case.

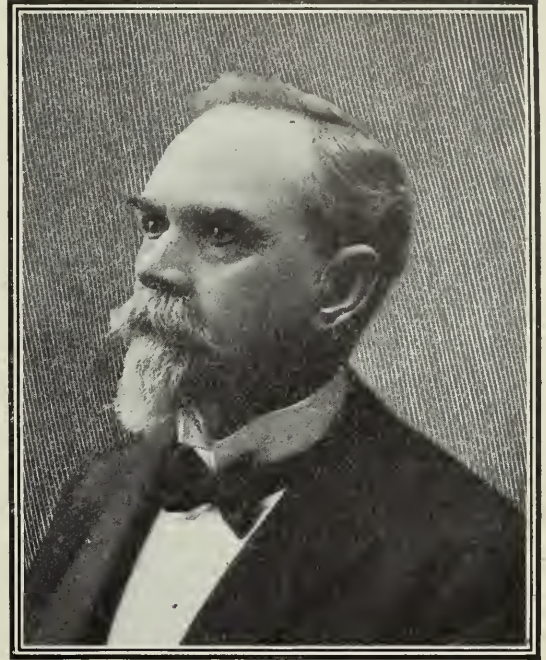
January 23.—The Senate passes the fortifications appropriation bill.... The House devotes the day to District of Columbia business.

January 24.—The Senate is sworn in by the chief justice as a court for the impeachment trial of Judge Swayne.... The House considers District of Columbia affairs.

January 25.—The Senate debates the army appropriation bill.... The House passes the District of Columbia and Military Academy appropriation bills, and sends the fortifications bills to conference.

January 26.—The Senate passes the army appropriation bill.... The House considers the agricultural appropriation bill.

January 27.—The Senate continues discussion of the Statehood bill.... The House passes the agricultural appropriation bill, and sends back to the Committee on Military Affairs the army appropriation bill.



JUDGE CHARLES SWAYNE.

(United States district judge for the northern district of Florida, against whom impeachment proceedings have been begun before the United States Senate.)



HON. ROBERT WATCHORN.

(New commissioner of immigration, port of New York.)

January 28.—The House adopts a resolution authorizing an investigation of the iron and steel industry by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor.

January 30.—The House adopts the conference report on the legislative appropriation bill and begins consideration of the Post-Office appropriation bill.

January 31.—The Senate passes a bill to prevent the overcapitalization of corporations in the District of Columbia, and a bill to prevent express companies carrying obscene literature.

February 3.—Judge Swayne, through counsel, enters a plea of not guilty in the impeachment proceedings before the Senate.... The House passes the Post-Office appropriation bill.

February 4.—The House passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

February 6.—The Senate receives the reply of the House managers to Judge Swayne's plea of not guilty in the impeachment proceedings.... The House begins consideration of the Townsend-Esch railroad-rate bill.

February 7.—The Senate passes the Statehood bill, providing for the admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one State and New Mexico as another.... In the House, Mr. McCall (Rep., Mass.) attacks the railroad-rate bill.



PATIENTS IN ONE OF THE FOUR GREAT JAPANESE MILITARY HOSPITALS.

(This hospital is equipped to care for 15,000 wounded men.)

February 8.—The electoral vote is canvassed by both branches in joint session, the result being announced as 336 for Roosevelt and Fairbanks and 140 for Parker and Davis. . . . The Senate discusses the Hay-Bond treaty in executive session. . . . The House continues debate of the railroad-rate bill.

February 9.—The Senate considers the agricultural appropriation bill. . . . The House, by a vote of 326 to 17, passes the Townsend-Esch railroad-rate bill.

February 10.—In the Senate, the taking of testimony in the Swayne impeachment trial is begun; the arbitration treaties are considered in executive session. . . . The House begins consideration of the bill providing a form of government for the Panama Canal zone.

February 11.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the arbitration treaties with various nations, after having adopted an amendment changing the word "agreement" to "treaty." . . . The House passes five bills for the better protection of life on steamboats, recommended by the commission on the *Stoecum* disaster.

February 15.—The Senate, in executive session, receives from President Roosevelt the treaty with Santo Domingo (see page 293). . . . The House considers the naval appropriation bill.

February 16.—The House passes the bill for the government of the Panama Canal zone, and returns to the Senate the wheat-drawback amendment to the agricultural appropriation bill, with a statement that it invades the constitutional prerogatives of the House.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 21.—After calling on President Roosevelt at the White House, William J. Bryan, announces his approval of the President's views on railroad-rate legislation.

January 22.—The annual report of the commissioners of education of Porto Rico shows that there are accommodations for only one-fifth of the children of school age.

January 23.—Senator Smoot, of Utah, refuses to testify before the Senate committee concerning the endowment ceremony of the Mormon Church.

January 25.—In the Delaware Senate, an Addicks Republican is chosen President *pro tem.*, thus breaking a deadlock. . . . Governor La Follette, of Wisconsin, declares that he will not accept his election as United States Senator unless the railroad legislation is enacted by the Wisconsin Legislature (see page 299).

January 27.—Samuel H. Piles (Rep.) is elected United States Senator by the Washington Legislature.

January 28.—Secretary Taft makes an argument before the House Committee on Ways and Means for the reduction of the tariff on Philippine products.

January 30.—The United States Supreme Court, by a unanimous decision, declares the beef trust illegal.

February 1.—United States Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, is indicted on six counts for alleged bribery in connection with land-fraud cases.

February 2.—Attorney General Moody, in an opinion rendered to Secretary Shaw, holds that a drawback of 99 per cent. of the duty may legally be allowed on exported flour made in part from imported wheat. . . . Judge Charles H. Darling resigns as Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.



THE FUTURE EMPEROR OF JAPAN.

(Eldest son of the crown prince, born in Tokio on April 29, 1901.)

February 3.—The Interstate Commerce Commission finds the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railway Company guilty of "flagrant and willful violations of law" in granting rebates to the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. . . . Attorney General Moody justifies President



ADMIRAL SHIBAYAMA.
(Japanese naval commander at Port Arthur.)

Roosevelt's action in regard to the distribution of Indian school funds.

February 6.—President Roosevelt signs the bill providing for construction of railroads in the Philippines.

February 8.—August W. Machen and others, convicted of postal frauds, are incarcerated in the West Virginia Penitentiary.

February 9.—Attorney-General Moody appoints ex-Attorney-General Judson Harmon, of Cincinnati, and Frederick F. Judson, of St. Louis, to investigate the alleged granting of rebates by the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad Company.

February 11.—Representative J. N. Williamson, of Oregon, is indicted for conspiracy to defraud the Government of public lands.

February 13.—New indictments against United States Senator Mitchell and Representatives Hermann and Williamson are returned by the federal grand jury at Portland, Ore.

February 15.—The Kansas House of Representatives passes a bill for a State oil refinery.... Chicago Republicans nominate John M. Harlan for mayor.... The Rhode Island Legislature elects Judge William W. Douglas chief justice of the State Supreme Court.

February 16.—In accordance with the resolution of the House of Representatives, Commissioner Garfield, of the Federal Bureau of Corporations, takes action to begin an investigation of the methods of the Standard Oil Company in Kansas.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

January 21.—President Loubet, of France, asks M. Rouvier to form a new cabinet.

January 22.—The striking workmen of St. Petersburg, led by Father Gapon, move toward the Winter Palace Square in order to deliver their petition to the

Czar in person; they are everywhere met by detachments of troops, and are shot down by hundreds as they try to press onward (see page 303).

January 24.—The French cabinet is completed, M. Rouvier taking, besides the premiership, the portfolio of finance, M. Delcassé remaining as minister of foreign affairs, and M. Berteaux as minister of war.

January 25.—The Czar appoints General Trepoff, by decree, to be the new governor-general of St. Petersburg; Maxim Gorki is arrested at Riga.

January 26.—Premier Balfour, of Great Britain, speaking at Manchester, declares that there has been no change in his opinion of the fiscal question, and that there will be no dissolution of Parliament until the government is defeated.

January 27.—The Hungarian ministry is defeated at the general election.... In France, Premier Rouvier makes a statement of the policy of the new cabinet to the Chamber of Deputies.

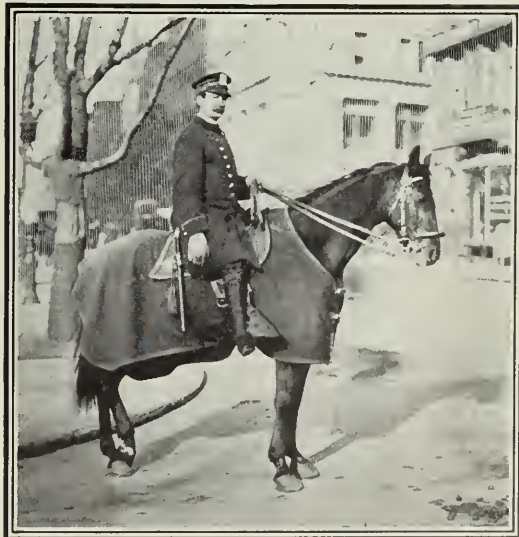
January 29.—The city of Warsaw is under mob rule, the troops being unable to suppress the revolt.

February 1.—It is announced that Prince Mirski, the Russian minister of the interior, has resigned office.... Premier Tisza presents the resignation of the Hungarian cabinet to the Emperor.

February 2.—The committee of Russian ministers, appointed to devise the best means for giving effect to the Czar's declaration for reform, recommends an increase of the powers of the Senate over the ministers.

February 6.—Soisalon Soininen, procurator-general of Finland, is assassinated at Helsingfors.... The Assembly of the Nobles at St. Petersburg, sends an address to the Czar, urging that representatives of the people should have a share in the government.

February 14.—The British Parliament is opened by King Edward, who reads the speech from the throne.



ONE OF NEW YORK'S MOUNTED POLICEMEN.
(These officers direct the movements of traffic in congested thoroughfares.)

February 16.—The Supreme Court of Venezuela reaffirms its decision against the American Asphalt Company.

February 17.—Grand Duke Sergius, of Russia, is assassinated at Moscow.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 21.—A protocol is signed between the United States and Santo Domingo (see page 293).

January 23.—An outline of the plan of the United States Government for administering the finances of Santo Domingo is made public.

January 24.—China makes a general denial of Russia's charges of violations of neutrality; counter-charges against Russia are set up.

January 25.—The North Sea Commission resumes its session at Paris; British witnesses are heard.

January 30.—The British ambassador to Russia asks for a prompt explanation of the attacks on the British consul and pro-consul at Warsaw.

February 1.—In its commercial treaty with Germany, Russia accepts the Brussels Sugar Convention, and gives promise that no restrictions will be placed on Jewish salesmen.

February 4.—A British proposal to establish a Christian governor-general in Macedonia, is reported to have been coldly received by all the powers except Italy.... It is authoritatively announced in Washington that the United States will not assume the control of the finances of Santo Domingo until the agreement with that country has been ratified by the Senate.

February 8.—It is announced that no further loans will be granted Turkey by France, owing to complications arising from a German contract to supply artillery for the Porte.... The British Privy Council hands down a decision, granting to the United States leave to appeal in the case of the *Kitty Dec*, captured by a Canadian cruiser.

February 13.—The North Sea case is closed before the International Commission, Paris.... It is announced at Washington that the arbitration treaties between the United States and foreign powers will not be presented to the governments with which they were negotiated as amended by the United States Senate.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

January 27.—General Kuropatkin reports the capture of Sandepas, a strongly fortified village, and of positions near Shakhe.

January 29.—The fighting in Manchuria results in a Russian defeat, Kuropatkin's troops having been driven out of Sandepas; Marquis Oyama announces that all

the Russians on his left have been forced back across the Hun.

February 5.—It is reported that both armies in Manchuria are strengthening their positions.

February 8.—Admiral Togo hoists his flag on the *Mikasa*.

February 12.—The Japanese resume the bombardment of Lone Tree Hill, and the railway between Harbin and Mukden is cut.

February 14.—More Russian repulses in Manchuria are reported.

OBITUARY.

January 22.—Lord Kinross, president of the Court of Session in Scotland, 67.

January 23.—Rudolph Siemering, the German sculptor.

January 24.—The Rt. Rev. Richard Lewis, bishop of Llandaff, Wales, 83.

January 26.—Sir Francis Pakenham, K.C.M.G., 73.... Charles Lockhart, one of the directors of the Standard Oil Company, and at one time president of the corporation, 86.

January 27.—Judge John M. Hall, formerly president of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad, 63.

January 29.—Dr. Edward L. Cunningham, said to have been the oldest surviving graduate of the Harvard Medical School, 96.

February 1.—Oswald Achenbach, the German artist, 78.

February 2.—M. Henri Germain, president of the board of directors of the Credit Lyonnais, 81.

February 3.—Elbridge Gerry Dunnell, formerly Washington correspondent of the *New York Times*.

February 4.—Louis Ernest Barrias, the French sculptor, 64.

February 6.—John T. Michau, of St. Joseph, Mo., a well-known student of archaeology, 54.

February 7.—Joseph H. Manley, the well-known Republican leader of Maine, 62.

February 8.—Rear Admiral Frank C. Cosby, U.S.N., retired, 65.

February 9.—Adolf von Menzel, the German artist, 90.... The Earl of Kenmare, 80.... Chief Justice Pardon E. Tillinghast, of the Rhode Island Supreme Court, 68.... Ex-Federal District Judge Henry W. Blodgett, of Illinois, 84.

February 10.—Charles Hackley, of Muskegon, Mich., lumberman and philanthropist, 68.

February 11.—Ex-Congressman Leonard Myers, of Pennsylvania, 78.... Sylvester Scovel, war correspondent, 36.

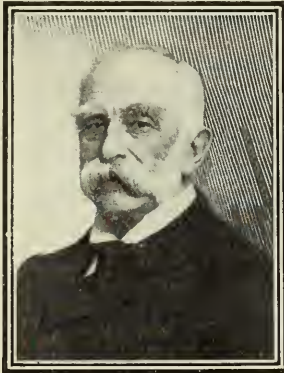
February 13.—William Cowper Prime, the well-known art collector, of New York City, 80.

February 14.—James C. Carter, one of the most prominent members of the New York bar, 78.... Prof. Alpheus S. Packard, of Brown University, 66.

February 15.—Gen. Lew Wallace, of Indiana, the author of "Ben Hur," 78.... Rev. H. A. Schauffler, D.D., of Cleveland, 68.

February 16.—Jay Cooke, a noted financier at the time of the Civil War, 83.

February 17.—Grand Duke Sergius, uncle of the Czar of Russia, 48.



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THE LATE JAMES C. CARTER.

(Long regarded as the leader of the New York bar.)

SOME INTERNATIONAL CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.

THE South American press is giving more attention than ever to the affairs of the United States, and the personality and policies of President Roosevelt are under constant discussion in the Latin-American republics. The first cartoon on this page reflects the old-time feeling against us that exists in Chile. It is, of course, an absurdly illogical cartoon, since everything in our present South American policy is directed toward the strengthening and preservation of the republics, and nothing could be further from our views than the absorption of South American republics. We are interested, rather, in helping them to keep free from European aggression. On the following page is a cartoon of similar import, from Buenos Ayres, and entitled "The Yankee Peril." It is to be regretted that South American public opinion is led astray by organs at once so ill-informed and so prejudiced.



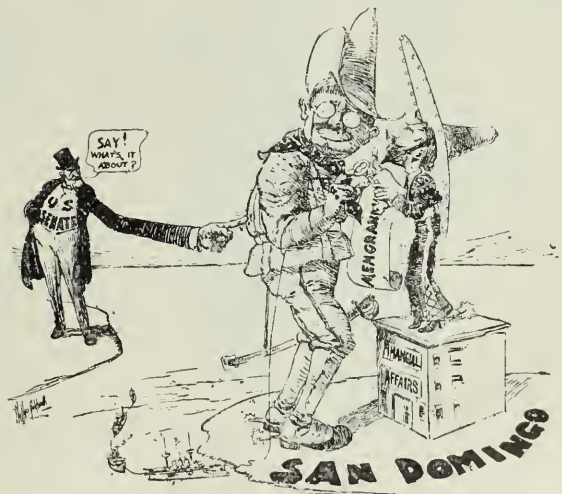
PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S FORTHCOMING FEAST,—A SOUTH AMERICAN VIEW OF THE LATEST APPLICATIONS OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

From *Sucesos* (Valparaiso, Chile).



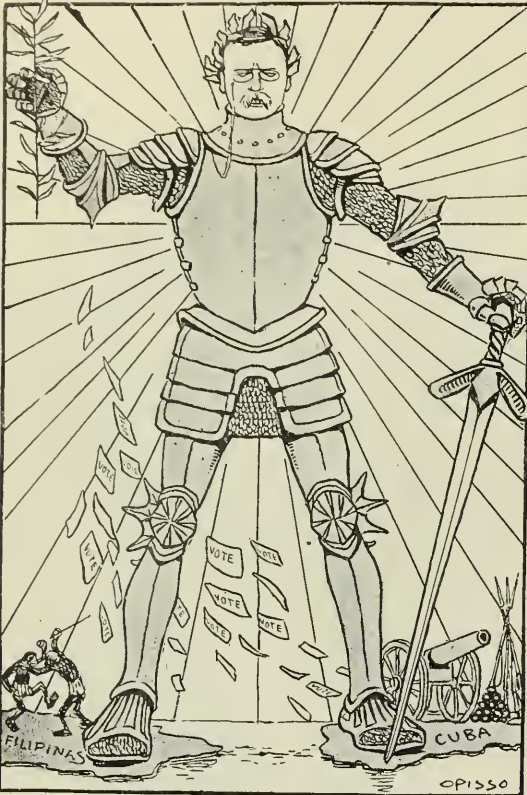
THE PARTIES AND THE PRESIDENT'S RAILROAD POLICY.

From the *Post* (Washington, D. C.).



THE SENATE TO THE PRESIDENT: "Say! What's it about?"

From the *Herald* (Boston).



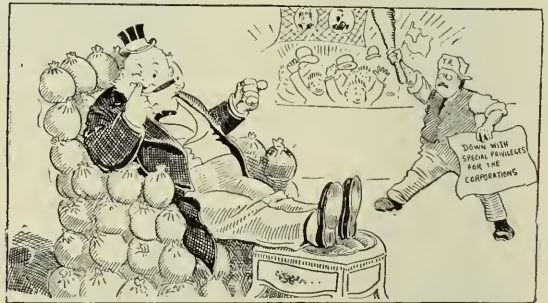
ROOSEVELT AS THE RISING SUN OF YANKEE IMPERIALISM.
(A Spanish view.)
From *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona).



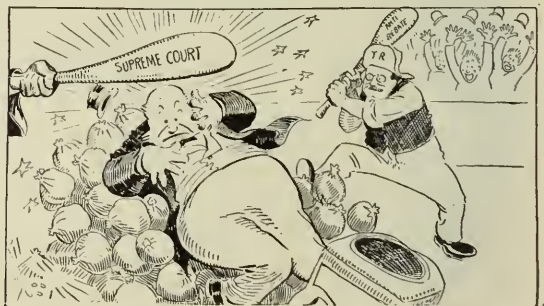
THE YANKEE PERIL AS ONE ARGENTINE JOURNAL SEES IT.
From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Ayres).



WHICH WAY?
He will make no mistake if he follows the footprints
From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



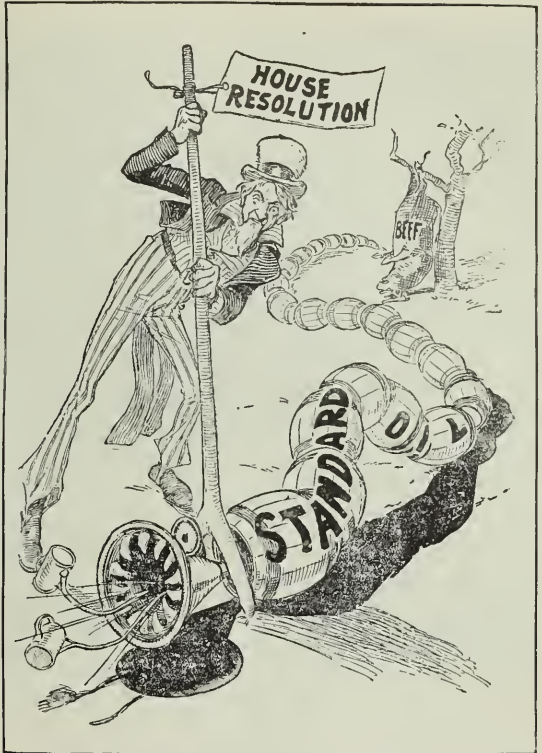
During the Presidential campaign, the trusts considered it
talk for political effect.



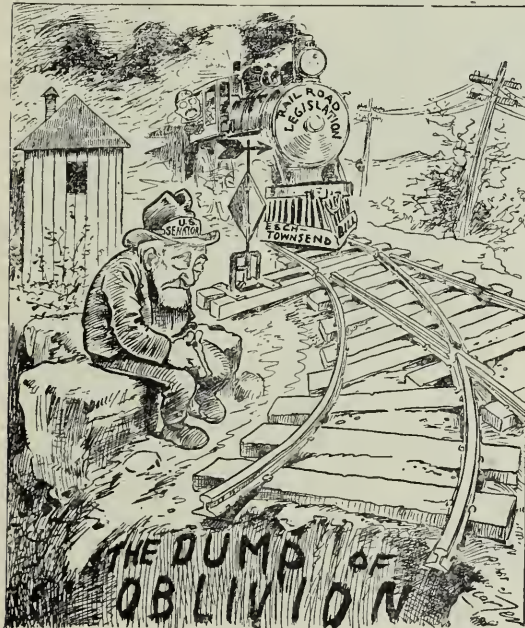
At the present time, they think Roosevelt was really
in earnest.
THE ILLEGAL TRUST IS BEGINNING TO WAKE UP TO AN
UNPLEASANT FACT.—From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



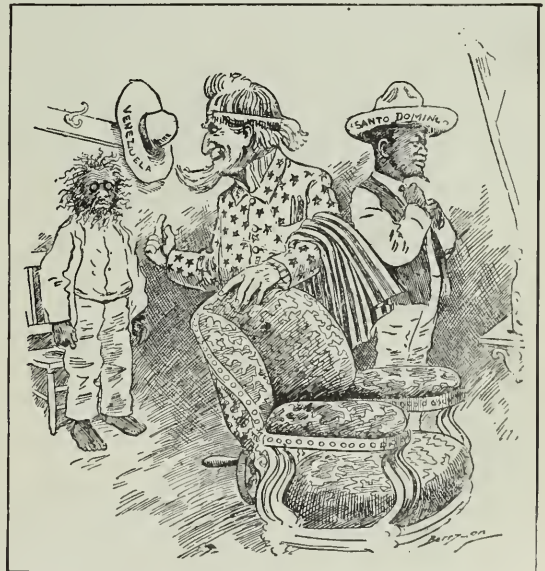
LAYING FOR THE RELIEF TRAIN.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



UNCLE SAM: "Now squirm: it's your turn."
From the *Telegram* (New York).



ASLEEP AT THE SWITCH.
From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



UNCLE SAM INVITES VENEZUELA TO OCCUPY A CHAIR IN THE INTERNATIONAL BARBER SHOP, JUST MADE VACANT BY SANTO DOMINGO.—From the *Post* (Washington).



"ORDER REIGNS IN ST. PETERSBURG."—From *Fischietto* (Turin).



THE BEAR AND HIS ROYAL KEEPER.

With his ammunition gone, how long can the keeper ward off the infuriated beast?

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



POUR LE MÉRITE.

THE MIKADO (to the Czar): "May your Majesty long continue your 'tranquillizing' methods. In the meantime, deign to accept this decoration as Japan's best friend."

From *Punch* (London).



THE CZAR AND THE PEOPLE.

THE RUSSIAN PEASANT: "Little Father! Little Father!"

THE CZAR: "Well, well! Just as I thought I had him asleep!"—From *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

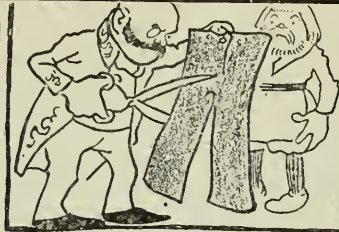


THE ST. PETERSBURG MASSACRE.

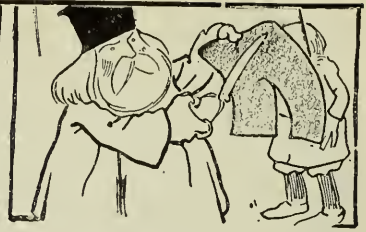
REACTIONARY RUSSIAN (to the Czar): "Don't be alarmed, Sire, nothing unusual has happened. It is only the exaggerations of the sensational press."—From *Vie Illustrée* (Paris).



As the peasant had worked it out.



The minister of justice reduces it.



The Church finds it too long



The Dowager-Empress must also use the scissors.



The "Little Father" takes his turn.



Behold what remains!

THE RUSSIAN REFORM GARMENT AFTER THE AUTOCRATIC TAILORS HAVE HAD THEIR SAY.—From *Floh* (Berlin).



JAPAN AS THE LITTLE SCHOOLMASTER OF THE EAST.

LITTLE SCHOOLMASTER: "It's a shame to whip this boy so often, when he has so much trouble at home, but he's got to learn that geography lesson."

From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



PEACE ON EARTH!

Some of the first designs submitted for the proposed Palace of Peace at the Hague.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

SANTO DOMINGO AND THE UNITED STATES.

BY JOHN BASSETT MOORE.

ON Saturday, the 21st of January, there appeared in a late edition of an evening newspaper, in the city of New York, a telegraphic report from Santo Domingo, the capital of Santo Domingo (officially known as the Dominican Republic), that Commander A. C. Dillingham, U.S.N., whose presence at Santo Domingo on a special mission had previously been announced, and Mr. Dawson, the American minister, had concluded with the Dominican government an important agreement. In further dispatches from Santo Domingo, published in the press on the morning of Sunday, the 22d of January, it was stated that the agreement was in the form of a protocol; that, under it, the United States was to guarantee the integrity of the Dominican territory, undertake the adjustment of foreign claims, administer the finances on certain lines, and assist in maintaining order; and that the arrangement was to take effect on the 1st of February.

From these statements the inference was widely drawn that there existed an intention to treat the protocol as a perfected international agreement, as if it did not fall within that clause of the Constitution of the United States which empowers the President to make treaties by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. Promptly, on the 22d of January, however, a formal statement was issued by Mr. Loomis, Assistant Secretary of State, in which the paper reported to have been signed at Santo Domingo was described as a "memorandum of a proposed agreement;" and the significance of this phrase has since been more fully disclosed by the announcement made in the Senate by Mr. Cullom, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, that no treaty or agreement had been "fully executed," but that the "proposed contract," or whatever it might be called, was "in the way of execution, for the purpose of sending it to the Senate." The statements of Mr. Loomis and Senator Cullom require no confirmation; but it may be observed that some of the clauses of the protocol, as signed at Santo Domingo on the 20th of January and published in the *Gaceta Oficial* of the next day, were of such a nature that the agreement must necessarily have been regarded at Washington as tentative rather than definitive.

Since we are assured that the administration has not proposed and does not propose to assume

important obligations toward Santo Domingo, by means of an international agreement, without consulting the Senate, we are relieved from the necessity of participating in the constitutional discussions by which the question of policy has unfortunately been so largely obscured and supplanted. The question of methods, provided they be constitutional, is one of detail. The end in view may, no doubt, be accomplished by a treaty; nor can there be any doubt that it could be as fully accomplished by a joint resolution of Congress, without any elaborate agreement with the Dominican government; but these are matters into which it is not my purpose to enter. The essential fact before us is, that the United States has at length been brought face to face in Santo Domingo with a situation which calls for definite and specific action, and which cannot be evaded. The simple truth is that government has broken down in Santo Domingo. In spite of the unsurpassed riches of its forests, fields, and mines, the country has gradually descended from stage to stage of fratricidal contests and political and social disorders, till it has apparently become incapable of unassisted self-regeneration. With revenues which, if they were properly collected and administered, would be ample for all legitimate purposes, the government is obliged daily to borrow at ruinous rates the money required for its ordinary expenses, and the only creditor who is repaid is the daily lender. To the payment of principal and interest of the general debt, domestic and foreign, nothing is devoted.

A RETROSPECT.

Such conditions are not wholly new in Santo Domingo; but the misfortunes produced by them have gone on accumulating for sixty years, till a crisis, which was bound to come sooner or later, has at length been reached. The American commissioners,—Benjamin F. Wade, Andrew D. White, and S. G. Howe,—who visited Santo Domingo in 1871, reported that, since the country achieved its independence, only one administration had lasted during its entire constitutional term, and that, after it came to an end, a "period of anarchy," lasting six years, soon ensued. In 1861, the country was occupied by Spain; in 1865, the Spanish forces, acting under a law passed by the Cortes, were withdrawn, and

"anarchy again followed." And so the story has continued to run. During the long administration of Heureaux the disorders that arose were repressed by the sternest and often the most arbitrary measures, but the evils of the political system were not corrected. Indeed, it was under Heureaux that the rankest growth occurred of the baleful practice of preserving peace by means of "*asignaciones*,"—unlawful gratuities paid to actual or potential opponents of the existing government to induce them to refrain from exercising the profession of revolutionist. On July 26, 1899, Heureaux was assassinated. In May of the preceding year, a steamer called the *Fanita*, with men and arms, left the United States, ostensibly to aid the Cuban insurgents, and as the United States was then at war with Spain, the expedition was understood to have obtained substantial support from the American Government; but it did not go to Cuba. Its nominal commander, "Captain Rodriguez," as events proved, was Señor Juan Isidro Jimenez, a Dominican, bent on revolution. A landing was made at Montecristi. Most of the members of the expedition were captured and shot, but Jimenez escaped, and afterward renewed his revolutionary enterprises.

On the assassination of Heureaux, the vice-president, General Figuero, took charge of the government at Santo Domingo; but at the end of August, 1899, he resigned, and the members of his cabinet abandoned their positions. A new revolution had been started in the interior of the island, and on the 5th of September its chief, Gen. Horacio Vasquez, entered the capital and became the head of a provisional government. This government lasted till the 20th of November, when Jimenez succeeded Vasquez as "constitutional," or elective, President, with Vasquez as vice-president. Señor Ramon Caceres, who had shot Heureaux, was appointed governor of Santiago and delegate of the government in the interior. The government of Jimenez, though it succeeded in repressing certain minor uprisings, was, after a severe contest, overthrown in May, 1902, by a revolution led by General Vasquez, the vice-president, who again became President of a provisional government. In the following October, local outbreaks began to occur. They continued till March, 1903, when, during the temporary absence of President Vasquez, an independent revolution was started at the capital under Gen. Alejandro Wos y Gil, who, on April 18, 1903, became President of a provisional government. On the 20th of July he was duly installed as constitutional President; but on the 24th of November he was overthrown by a revolution under the lead of General Morales, who

then became the head of a provisional government. When Morales assumed the reins of power a tripartite revolution was in progress, participated in by the Wos y Gil, or government, party, the Jimenez party, and the Vasquez party. These disturbances continued up to the summer of 1904. Marauding bands roamed over the country; the capital was besieged; the house of the American diplomatic representative was repeatedly pierced by shells; American naval vessels were fired upon, and one non-commissioned officer was killed, as the American diplomatic representative declared, deliberately; an American merchant steamer, proceeding under the escort of a naval launch to her dock, was fired upon by the Jimenez faction; the unfortified town of San Pedro de Macoris, inhabited largely by foreigners, was taken and retaken three times, and was twice bombarded; American sugar estates were preyed upon by roving partisans, and the owners daily stood in dread of the application of the torch to their cane; the American railway, running from Puerto Plata to Santiago, which had previously been exempt from attack, was seized by revolutionists, the tracks torn up, and a station burned. Since June, 1904, there has existed a nominal peace, but the enemies of the government have in places maintained a defiant position, and actually collected and used the revenues, and it is a matter of general belief that but for the restraining presence of an American man-of-war at Puerto Plata, an open revolution would have been in progress in the north since the middle of December.

THE GREAT INTERESTS AT STAKE.

That conditions so destructive and dangerous should, if possible, be abated is manifest. Nor are the interests at stake small. To say nothing of the vast concern of the Dominicans themselves in the establishment of law and order, the accumulated foreign commercial and industrial interests are so considerable that their sacrifice is not to be contemplated. The American vested interests alone are commonly valued at \$20,000,000. The great sugar estates are owned chiefly by Americans and Italians. It is estimated that around San Pedro de Macoris, where in the late disturbances the estates were much damaged by roving bands, American investments in the sugar industry amount to \$6,000,000. Extensive banana plantations are also owned by Americans; the United Fruit Company holds more than 18,000 acres, representing an investment of more than \$500,000. There are two completed railroads, one of which is owned by British subjects, while the other, running from Puerto Plata to Santiago, was

chiefly constructed and is now held and operated by the Company of the Central Dominican Railway, an American corporation. The exportation of woods is chiefly in the hands of Americans. The oil fields of Azua are being developed by an American company. The wharf privileges of the three principal ports are owned by foreigners—Americans and Italians. Four great commercial houses are owned or controlled by Germans, and one by Italians. One of the two steamship lines that regularly ply between Dominican and foreign ports is that of the American firm of W. P. Clyde & Co., while the other is French. It is sometimes suggested that, when citizens of a country go abroad and engage in business, they must be held to assume all the risks of disorder and injury in the country to which they go, and can look to the local authorities only, no matter how inefficient or malevolent they may be, for protection; but it suffices to say that no respectable government acts on any such theory.

PROTECTION OF THE CREDITORS.

While commercial and industrial interests in Santo Domingo require protection, so also do the interests of the country's creditors. These interests deserve just consideration, but the problem they present is not so difficult as is sometimes supposed. The Dominican public debt is often said to amount to from \$32,000,000 to \$35,000,000, but it would be impossible to substantiate these figures except by including unliquidated claims at an enormous overvaluation. The Dominican bonded debt held on the Continent of Europe,—chiefly in France and Belgium, and to a small extent in Germany,—amounts to about \$14,817,697, exclusive of overdue interest aggregating about \$750,000. Under a contract made with the Dominican government in 1901 by committees of bondholders in Paris and Antwerp, and ratified by the Dominican Congress,—a contract which has received the support of the French and Belgian governments,—interest is payable on the principal of the bonds at a fixed sum per annum, on a sliding scale; but the bonds are redeemable at fifty cents on the dollar. It is not improbable that the entire debt could, with the consent of the French and Belgian governments and the bondholders, be capitalized on that basis, if the establishment of a sinking fund and the payment of a reasonable rate of interest were assured by the administration of the revenues by the United States. There are also holdings of Dominican bonds in England, which the British Government has heretofore manifested its intention to protect; but as these bonds are held by interests allied with the

San Domingo Improvement Company of New York, they are now protected by the international award rendered on the 14th of July last, under the protocol between the United States and the Dominican Republic of January 31, 1903. Under this protocol the Dominican government agreed to pay, in full settlement of all claims of the San Domingo Improvement Company and its allied American companies, and for the transfer of all their properties, rights, and interests, the sum of \$4,500,000, on terms to be fixed by three arbitrators, who were also to prescribe the manner in which the moneys should be collected. The gross amount to be paid was fixed in the protocol at the instance of the Dominican government. The bonds of the American companies were thrown in at fifty cents on the dollar and other claims were compromised or relinquished. The arbitrators (Judge George Gray, the Hon. John G. Carlisle, and Señor Don Manuel de J. Galvan) fixed the amount of the monthly installments, in which the principal sum was to be paid, and awarded that, in case the Dominican government failed to make the requisite payments, they should be directly collected, by an agent to be appointed by the United States, at Puerto Plata, and, in case the revenues there should be insufficient, or in case of any other manifest necessity, or if the Dominican government should so request, then at the ports of Sanchez, Samana, and Montecristi.

In addition to the bonded debt, there is a floating interior debt of about \$3,230,000, not including arrearages of interest. Of this debt about \$2,500,000 belongs to resident merchants of European nationality, the larger part being held by the representatives of a deceased Italian merchant named Vicini. There are also liquidated German, Spanish, and Italian claims (other than Vicini), amounting to about \$375,000, which are secured by definite contracts and the assignment of specific revenues. The total bonded and liquidated debt of the republic amounts to about \$25,000,000. Beyond this there are the unliquidated claims to which I have heretofore adverted.

HOW FINANCIAL OBLIGATIONS HAVE BEEN "DODGED."

For the payment of the interest on bonds embraced in the French-Belgian contract, the monthly revenues of the southern ports of Santo Domingo and San Pedro de Macoris are pledged to the amount of \$25,000, and agents of the bondholders are authorized to receive the money, as well as to advise the Dominican government in financial matters. Other creditors also hold

specific pledges of the revenues. These pledges have, however, in the past few years proved to be worthless. Nothing was paid on the American award till the latter part of October last, when the agent appointed by the United States took charge of the custom-house at Puerto Plata.

In this relation it is important to understand the condition of things in the Dominican Republic with regard to the collection of the revenues. Many years ago the government, being unable to raise money on ordinary security, adopted the practice of vesting the power of collection in its creditors. Duties are settled in *pagarés*, or promissory notes, duly indorsed, and payable usually in a month or two months. In order to secure loans, these *pagarés* were handed over to the creditor, who collected the money directly from the importer or exporter. This expedient, which was designed to protect the creditor against the government itself as well as against its enemies, was in vogue when the government in 1888 sought financial relief in Europe. Such relief was obtained from Westendorp & Company, bankers, of Amsterdam, who in that year underwrote and issued, at 83½ per cent., 6 per cent. gold bonds of the Dominican government to the amount of £770,000 sterling, the government creating a first lien on all its customs revenues, and authorizing the Westendorps to collect and receive at the custom-houses all the customs revenues of the republic. Under this contract, which was ratified by the Dominican Congress, the Westendorps created in Santo Domingo an establishment, commonly called the "Regie," which collected the duties directly from the importer and exporter and disbursed them, the Westendorps sending out from Europe the necessary agents and employees. It was further stipulated that the Westendorps should, in case of necessity, have the right to constitute a European commission, which it was understood was to be international in character. The power of collection and disbursement was exercised by the Westendorps down to 1893, when it was transferred to the San Domingo Improvement Company, of New York, which continued to exercise it till January, 1901, when the company was, by an arbitrary executive decree issued by President Jimenez, excluded from its function of collecting the revenues, though its employees were permitted to remain in the custom-houses till the end of the year.

THE GOVERNMENT NOT REALLY BANKRUPT.

As an assurance to the foreign creditor, whose legal security was thus destroyed, Jimenez constituted in the same decree a "Commission of Honorables," with whom the sums due to for-

eign creditors, including the American companies, were to be deposited; but their capacity as depositaries was not destined to be tested. Late in 1901, it became known that out of the reported revenues of the year, amounting to \$2,126,453, the percentages for the domestic debt had not been set aside, and that no payment had been made on the floating interior debt, but that the Jimenez "revolutionary" claims had been paid without previous warrant of law, and that there existed a deficit. Since that time, with the exception of comparatively small amounts, nothing whatever has been paid to the foreign creditor. The omission, however, has not been due to lack of revenues. It has been due to conditions which, if all the debts of the republic were with one stroke wiped out, would continue to prevent the government from meeting its ordinary expenses. The revenues have been seized and dissipated by the government and its enemies in "war expenses," and in the payment of "*asignaciones*" and "revolutionary claims."

It is misleading to call the Dominican republic bankrupt. The public debt, if properly adjusted, would scarcely amount to more than a third as much per capita as that of some other countries of lower commercial and industrial capacity. On the other hand, the taxes, which are almost exclusively confined to customs duties, amount to little more than \$4 per capita, as compared with \$5 in Haiti, \$6 in Salvador, \$7.50 in Roumania, \$8 in Greece, \$9 in Costa Rica, \$10 in Portugal, and \$15 in Uruguay. The Dominican Republic figures as a bankrupt, not for want of resources, but simply because its revenues either are not collected, or, if collected, are worse than thrown away.

THE SUPPORT OF SOME STRONG POWER NEEDED.

That foreign governments will stand by and permit such conditions to continue cannot be expected. They have already manifested their desire to intervene. The interests of their citizens, including the creditors of the Dominican Republic, render interposition in some form inevitable. There are certain writers who have sought to maintain that intervention, at any rate by force, is inadmissible in the case of public debts, no matter what may be their origin. Force, it is said, has been abolished for the purpose of collecting private debts, and should also be abolished for the purpose of collecting public debts. The analogy would be excellent if it had any foundation, but it appears to rest on nothing but the assumption that because imprisonment for debt has been abolished, the use of coercion to compel the payment of private debts no longer exists. This inference is altogether erroneous. While the body of the

debtor may not be taken, his property is laid hold of by legal processes having behind them the whole force of the state, and is devoted to the discharge of his obligations. I do not wish, however, to advocate the use of force as a general method of collecting international claims, or the assumption by the United States of the functions of a debt-collecting agency; nor in reality is this question in any proper sense involved in the present discussion. The question of debts and claims is but one of the incidents of the situation, the primal fact being that the Dominican Republic, by reason of its feeble and distressful plight, requires the succor and support of some strong power, in order that it may be enabled to fulfill its necessary duties. The Dominican government has itself invoked the assistance of the United States, and the question simply is whether the United States shall not only refuse such aid, but also forbid any other interested power to give it.

There can be no doubt that the mass of the Dominican people long for relief. No one can fail to be impressed with their courtesy, integrity, and willingness to labor; and, when not excited by ambitious and desperate leaders, they are peace-loving. If given an opportunity to till their fields and carry on their industry, unharmed by the pestilence of revolution, they would, with a proper system of public education, which they have heretofore lacked, exhibit a capacity for a higher civilization; and they have among them accomplished men, who, if law and order could once be firmly established, so that their voice could be heard, would make capable rulers.

It is manifest that we have here a perfect example of the conditions described by President Roosevelt in his last annual message, in which, reiterating the sentiments expressed in his Cuban letter, he said:

It is not true that the United States feels any land hunger or entertains any projects as regards the other nations of the Western Hemisphere save such as are for their welfare. All that this country desires is to see the neighboring countries stable, orderly, and prosperous. Any country whose people conduct themselves well can count upon our hearty friendship. If a nation shows that it knows how to act with reasonable efficiency and decency in social and political matters, if it keeps order and pays its obligations, it need fear no interference from the United States. Chronic wrong-doing, or an impotence which results in a general loosening of the ties of civilized society, may in America, as elsewhere, ultimately require intervention by some civilized nation, and in the Western Hemisphere the adherence of the United States to the Monroe Doctrine may force the United States, however reluctantly, in flagrant cases of such wrong-doing or impotence, to the exercise of an international police power.

“ACTION MUST BE TAKEN BY THE UNITED STATES.”

There may be persons who, afflicted with a sort of xylophobia, can see in this statement, which may fitly be termed the Roosevelt corollary from the Monroe Doctrine, only another obtrusion of the “Big Stick.” It is true that this corollary, if broadly construed, might lead the United States into extravagant measures; but the same thing may be said of every general statement of policy. The Monroe Doctrine itself, by reason of the generality of its terms, is susceptible of extravagant constructions; and yet there is no principle in the support of which, when properly applied, the American people are more united. The vital principle of the Monroe Doctrine is the limitation of European influence and control in the Western Hemisphere. If a situation similar to that now prevailing in Santo Domingo existed in a European country, it would be dealt with by a combination of European powers or by some one power acting alone as their delegate. In Santo Domingo, European powers have material interests similar to those of the United States; but, in view of its settled policy, the United States would now be unwilling either to permit the measures necessary for the reestablishment of order and credit to be taken by European powers or to take them itself in conjunction with such powers. The situation, in a nutshell, is that either the United States must take the necessary action or it must not be taken at all. According to the Roosevelt corollary, action must be taken, and it must be taken by the United States. A ready test of whether this position should be commended or condemned may be furnished by putting into concrete form the converse proposition, which would run substantially as follows: “Chronic wrong-doing, or impotence which results in a general loosening of the ties of civilized society, though much to be deplored, must in America be permitted to continue unchecked, since it is not the policy of the United States either to interfere with such things itself or to permit any other power to do so.”

SANTO DOMINGO HAS REQUESTED AID.

I venture to say that such a proposition does not represent the views which the people of the United States now hold or ever have held. It happens that we have in Santo Domingo itself the strongest evidence directly to the contrary. I refer, not to the efforts that have repeatedly been made since 1853 to obtain special rights in Samana Bay or to attempts to annex the country, but to the fact that in 1851 the government of Haiti was induced to desist from hostilities against the Dominican Republic and virtually to

concede its independence through the joint intervention of England, France, and the United States. In February, 1850, the minister of foreign affairs of the Dominican Republic solicited the mediation of those three governments for the purpose of putting an end to the civil strife with Haiti. They agreed to act together, the basis of their coöperation being defined in instructions given by the British Government to its consular representatives. The general object of the powers was declared to be "to stop the effusion of blood" and to end "hostilities abhorrent to humanity, destructive to commerce, and threatening," by stirring up jealousies or differences between "the great powers interested in this question," to disturb the good understanding between them. To this end they decided to insist upon an immediate cessation of hostilities, and, in case the Haitian government should refuse, then to warn it that they would feel themselves justified in immediately taking such steps as their interests and those of humanity might seem to render proper. This plan received the entire adhesion of the very conservative administration of President Fillmore. Mr. Webster, who was then Secretary of State, in an instruction of January 18, 1851, to a special agent to Haiti and Santo Domingo, said :

The material interests of the three countries [France, Great Britain, and the United States] are largely involved in the restoration and preservation of peace between the contending parties in Santo Domingo. France is a creditor of the government of the Emperor Soulouque to a large amount. She cannot hope for a discharge of her debt when the resources of his country, instead of being developed by pacific pursuits and in part, at least, applied to that purpose, are checked in their growth and wasted in a war with a conterminous state. Great Britain and France are both interested in securing that great additional demand for their productions which must result from the impulse to be expected for industry in Haiti and the Dominican Republic from a termination of the war ; and the United States have a similar interest. . . . If the Emperor Soulouque shall insist upon maintaining a belligerent attitude until all his demands shall have been satisfied by the opposite party, you will unite with your colleagues in remonstrating against this course on his part. If the remonstrance shall prove to be unavailing, you will signify to the emperor that you shall give immediate notice to your government, that the President, with the concurrence of Congress, may adopt such measures, in coöperation with the governments of England and France, as may cause the intervention of the three powers to be respected.

When Mr. Webster wrote these instructions,

Great Britain and France had agreed, if the advice of the powers was not taken, immediately to institute a hostile blockade of the Haitian ports. In this act of war the President of the United States was unable to take part without the authority of Congress, and it was to this fact that Mr. Webster referred when he stated that, in case the Haitian government should refuse to yield to remonstrance, the President would lay the matter before Congress, in order that the United States might be enabled to coöperate with the governments of England and France in measures to "cause the intervention of the three powers to be respected." To-day, public opinion in the United States would be adverse to such a concert with European powers on an American question ; besides, fortunately, in the present situation in Santo Domingo, the government of the country asks for the aid of the United States, so that no question as to the use of force against the titular government arises. The measures to be taken by the United States would in no wise be hostile to the Dominican government or its people. Their territorial integrity would be respected, but their finances would be adjusted ; their administration of the revenues would be reformed, so that the custom-houses would no longer form centers and sources of supply of revolutions ; and their government, while it would be enabled to discharge its obligations, would also be placed on a constitutional and legal basis.

After four years of effort through diplomatic and consular agencies to maintain a government in Samoa, the United States, from 1889 to 1901, under a treaty ratified by the Senate, endeavored to maintain, in conjunction with Germany and Great Britain, a cumbersome and unworkable tripartite administration in that distant island group. This artificial contrivance broke down of its own weight ; but since 1901, when all the islands except Tutuila, which was reserved to the United States, passed under the single administration of Germany, order and tranquillity have prevailed. The tripartite experiment is not to be commended ; but if the United States could take such risks with regard to a remote island group in the South Pacific, in which its interests were comparatively slight, it does not seem to be an extravagant thing to lend its aid to the rehabilitation of a neighboring community in which its interests have always been conceived to be of exceptional importance.



THE RISE OF LA FOLLETTE.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

OF all the new men brought into the national arena by the great political campaign of last year and the ensuing Senatorial elections in various States, none has been more in the public eye, nor is likely to attract more attention in the near future, than Robert Marion La Follette, thrice elected Governor of Wisconsin, and now chosen by the legislature of that State to sit in the United States Senate as colleague of the brilliant and famous John Coit Spooner.

Senator La Follette comes into the broad national field the most striking, most interesting, most promising representative of the new movement that is now under way in the Republican party. In speaking of this movement and La Follette's connection with it, it is not our purpose at the present time to discuss its wisdom or to make predictions as to its success. In writing a short chapter of the history of our times, it is necessary to take cognizance of the fact that this movement exists. It is a movement that has already made a stir, and which, in all probability, must be reckoned with by the party at large in the coming years. In fact, it is even now to be reckoned with, since in one of its most important aspects—government regulation of railway rates—it has already invaded the domain of federal politics and legislation.

A PROTEST FROM THE MIDDLE WEST.

This movement within the dominant political party may be called an instinctive but definite self-assertiveness on the part of the men who compose the foundations of the party organization. It is a welling up from the masses, from the people, who are not content with the manner in which the leaders have been managing affairs. It had its beginning in a desire to take party control away from men who, as parts of the managing organization, often called "the machine," maintained a close corporation in manipulation of party affairs and in distribution of rewards, and were too intimate with and subservient to railroad companies and other capitalistic combinations. It rapidly spread to agitation against the corporations themselves, chiefly railroads, that stood in the way of the desired reform because their safety and the continuance of their power over legislation and administration lay wholly in the preservation of the old order. In short, it is a movement to emancipate the party from the domination of the

established "system," and to make the party more directly responsive to the popular will. So this movement, originating in a wish of the rank and file to depose the "machine" leaders, was naturally forced into war upon the allies of the "machine," the railways.

The protest against the old order of things has appeared, almost simultaneously, in Wisconsin, in Iowa, in Minnesota, in Nebraska, in Michigan, in Missouri. In one State it has taken one form of expression; in another, another form. In Wisconsin it has taken all forms. There it has gone the whole length. In the House of Representatives, the other day, when the railway-rate bill was under debate, Mr. Hepburn, of Iowa, eloquently warned the managers of the great railway corporations, who seem busily engaged combining all the railways in the country under the direct control of a mere handful of financiers, that it would be wise of them to yield obedience to this law, for if they did not the people would be roused and we should have revolution—not a revolution of violence and destruction, but a quiet revolution worked at the ballot-box.

THE WISCONSIN LEADER.

Well, they have had their revolution in Wisconsin. This new man, this rising man, this man of performance and promise, La Follette, was the leader, the soul, the genius of it. He made it, and it is making him. For years La Follette has led a life of battle. He comes to the Senate a stormy petrel of popular agitation. In his wake lie the wreck of one of the most powerful political machines the country has ever seen and the ruins of a politico-railway combination long deemed invincible. His progress from comparative obscurity to his present proud position of leader of the Republican party of Wisconsin and the master-mind in all the affairs of that State has been marked by one continuous struggle. It has been fight all the time, and then fight again. If La Follette had not been a fighter to start with, the exigencies of his career would have made a warrior of him. He has become so accustomed to battle that it is doubtful if he can be happy in the repose and calm of peace; hence the prediction, so often heard of him, that when he gets going in the United States Senate there will be a rattling of the dry bones.

Robert Marion La Follette is the son of a farmer in Dane County, Wisconsin. His father was a Frenchman, his mother an American woman. The father died when Robert was young. As the eldest boy, the care of a farm and a family devolved upon him. He struggled like a little man to support and educate his brothers and sisters. They secured education. Robert graduated at Wisconsin University in 1879. He was then twenty-four years old; as a large boy and young man, he had been working on the farm for the family. He entered politics and the law almost immediately, being admitted to the bar and elected district attorney for Dane County the following year. From 1889 to 1901 he was a Representative in Congress, and, as a member of the Ways and Means Committee, helped frame the McKinley tariff law.

AN ADROIT AND ABLE POLITICIAN.

Great was the amazement when it became known in Wisconsin that "Bob" La Follette aspired to be Governor of the State. Twice or thrice he tried for the Republican nomination for governor, and the machine ran over him. But it was noticed that each time he gathered strength. He had developed wonderful capacity as a leader. Not only had he the gift of oratory to a remarkable degree, and was thus able to charm and attract the masses, but he knew how to organize and direct all who were drawn within the circle of his influence. He left the large cities, where the machine was invincible, and drove up and down the muddy country roads, speaking in schoolhouses or by the wayside. He soon had a larger personal acquaintance than any other man in the State. It is told of him, and I believe with truth, that for years he kept a card index of all the men in Wisconsin he ever met. It was arranged by localities; and on his way to a county or township he would con his cards, refreshing his memory as to the men there he had once met, that he might call them by their first names or renew acquaintance in other familiar and flattering fashion. It is not surprising that in time his personal following became a force which he could wield, that scores of thousands of farmers and workmen and small shopkeepers knew him as "Little Bob," and worshipped him.

THE CHAMPION OF PRIMARY REFORM.

Like the true leader, he knew it was not enough to denounce the old system; he must have something to put in its place. He recognized that all through the State, particularly in the rural districts, there was discontent with the dominant organization; but in rallying the mass

against the oligarchy he must have a definite, a workable, programme,—an ideal.

So he set out for primary reform. The people were to be made more powerful than the politicians by wiping out the caucus and giving every man a free and untrammelled vote for all party candidates. Thus, he rallied and led a formidable host; he built up from the bottom, where men were thickest and most easily manipulated, as must every man who is to prove his genius for revolution. Meanwhile he did not forget to pay attention to the caucuses and the county conventions. So well had he done his work that the last time the machine beat him for the governorship nomination his friends claim they did it by means of bribery.

AND YET A "MACHINE" POLITICIAN.

Then he was nominated and elected. "Little Bob" became "the little governor" in the familiar and affectionate words of his admirers. As governor, he at once attempted to pass a primary-election law through the legislature, but was defeated by the manipulation of the machine and the railroads. They endeavored to deprive him of a second term, but he fought fire with fire. He took a leaf out of their book and organized a political machine of his own through the State patronage. With the instinct of the born revolutionist, every time his enemies assaulted his works he sprung upon them a new issue designed to rally popular support to his cause,—first and all the time it was primary reform; then it was a proposal to compel the railroads of the State, notorious tax-shirkers, to bear their proper share of the burdens of the State. On these issues he won his first and second elections.

A NEW ISSUE—RAILROAD RATES.

Then came the third and most sensational battle of all,—that of 1904, which attracted the attention of the entire country. As usual, La Follette had a new issue for his opponents to meet. It was railway-rate reform. The railroads of Wisconsin, in common with those of other Western States, had been giving "commodity" rates for the purpose, primarily, of building up certain industries. It is only fair to say that they did contribute much to the prosperity of the State. But inevitably abuses crept in. Favored shippers were accorded concessions which their rivals could not get. In some instances, direct rebates were paid on traffic within the State; in the majority of cases, rates were cut. The railroad managers went in to destroy this revolutionist, this radical of the radicals, and between them and him it was war



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HON. ROBERT M. LA FOLLETTE, GOVERNOR OF WISCONSIN AND UNITED STATES SENATOR-ELECT.

to the knife. They accused him of more flagrant abuse of the State patronage than the old machine had been guilty of. He accused them of using cut rates as a power over the heads of shippers for political purposes. A large number of shippers did use their political influence against La Follette, and while the majority of them did so conscientiously, in the belief that he was too radical and a menace to the prosperity of the State, there is evidence that some of them

were enjoying cut rates on their raw material or finished product.

THE WISCONSIN CAMPAIGN OF 1904.

The progress of that memorable campaign is still fresh in the public memory. Naturally, under these conditions, the party was split in twain. Thousands of good citizens sincerely fought La Follette, thousands shouted for him. Feeling ran high, and in the end became bit-

ter. La Follette clearly had a majority of the delegates in the State convention, but the "Stalwarts," or opposition, bolted under the leadership of Senators Spooner and Quarles, Representative Babcock, and others. The contest was carried to the National Republican Convention at Chicago, and that convention decided it, not upon its merits, but in deference to the fame and prestige of the able national statesmen who led the bolters. If the truth should always be told, then it is proper to add that the railroads of the country took a hand in sympathy with their much-vexed brethren in Wisconsin, and the jury was packed before the convention assembled at Chicago. In saying this, no censure is meant for Senators Spooner and Quarles. The former was in the struggle against his will; with him it was a warfare of inheritance and association, not of choice. But being in it, he fought valiantly.

The Supreme Court of Wisconsin decided the legal-ballot controversy in favor of La Follette, and then the Stalwarts attempted to beat the governor at the polls. Few States have ever experienced a campaign so bitter as was this one. Forty or fifty thousand earnest Republicans voted against La Follette, but plenty of Bryan Democrats rallied to his support, and he was triumphant by a large majority. The revolution was complete. La Follette not only had his third term, but at the polls the people adopted his primary-election system. Moreover, the new legislature was responsive to his will, and at last accounts it was about to enact a law creating an appointive State railway commission, with power virtually to manage all the railways within the State. During the campaign, last fall, Mr. La Follette told me that while he would like to go to the United States Senate, he would never do so till his work in Wisconsin was finished. In the completeness of his recent triumph, in the knowledge that all the reforms for which he had battled were either won or about to be won, he regarded his home-work as done, and rounded out his victory by taking a seat in the United States Senate.

A RADICAL IN THE SENATE.

His career in the upper branch of Congress the whole country will watch with keen interest. That he is to be heard from there can be no doubt. But the well-known restraints of that body will, for a time at least, serve to hide his light under a bushel of Senatorial traditions. Some observers think he is in line for the Presidential nomination in 1908; but a more careful view is that he is generally regarded as too radical for that, though actually he is not as radical as

he seems. He is not a wild-eyed reformer. His dreams are not of Utopia. He is reasonable, and intensely practical. The size of the figure he is to cut on the national stage must be determined by the tendency of his party. He, more than any other man in the country till President Roosevelt took hold of it, popularized the issue of government control of railways, of curbing the political power of corporations, of the abolition of special privilege. Just now, as the railway-rate bill in Congress demonstrates, the trend of Republicanism is progressive, toward government control of common carriers, in favor of "doing things." If this spirit continues and dominates, La Follette should be a prophet not without honor in his own country. But what if there be reaction to conservatism, with radicalism left to its instinctive and natural champions, Bryan and the re-Bryanized Democracy?

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS.

The man who has achieved the most extraordinary personal triumph, one of the most noteworthy known to the history of American politics, is a little Americanized Frenchman. He is short and slight, but, through rigid physical discipline, every muscle in his body is like a spring of steel. He eats little or no meat, and not much of anything. He is like a diminutive gladiator, ever ready to enter the arena. His endurance is phenomenal, as his speaking campaigns, twenty hours a day along country roads, have shown. His temperament is highly nervous, but his self-control well-nigh perfect. The fires of his eloquence,—he is a favorite lecturer throughout the Northwest,—are equaled only by the intensity of his practical methods. He loves and hates indomitably. He has never made money, and has borrowed of friends to support his militant-political career. Many of the most highly respected Republicans in his State say he loves his own way so well it is impossible to consult with him or to get on with him. My observation has been that he is easily consulted in frank and friendly fashion, but wholly unamenable to manipulation. His personal relations with his colleague in the Senate, Mr. Spooner, are *nil*, this unfortunate state of affairs being due largely to a personal remark which La Follette believes Spooner once made, and which Spooner says he never uttered. The Little Napoleon of Wisconsin is not quite fifty years old, looks much younger, has been married twenty-three years to a most charming woman, and of his interesting children, one, Miss La Follette, is on the stage and is now acting with Miss Rehan in New York.

THE DOOM OF RUSSIAN AUTOCRACY.

BY E. J. DILLON.

[Dr. Dillon has recently written for this REVIEW on the following subjects: "Has Russia Any Strong Man?" (April, 1904); "Russian Poverty and Business Distress as Intensified by the War" (October, 1904); and "The Dawn of the New Era in Russia" (January, 1905). The present article was written, in response to a cabled request, soon after the riots of Sunday, January 22, of which Dr. Dillon was an eye-witness.]

THE Russian revolution, long foretold, has at last begun in earnest. The first episode in what threatens to be a long series of mighty upheavals will be dated the 22d of January, 1905, and may be classed by historians as a victory for the autocracy. A Pyrrhic victory, a wanton massacre, a suicidal deed. It was the nation's baptism of blood, the first overt act in the sanguinary struggle between monarch and people, which can end only in the disappearance of one-man rule in Russia. True, the contest was certain to be waged in any case, whatever attitude the government might have taken on that historic Sunday. The average observer who knew anything about Russian affairs had long since foreseen the coming of the crisis, and even the short-sighted could see that its advent was nigh. But the issue might have been tried and decided without the effusion of the innocent blood of the people, and without the fateful identifications of autocrat and autocracy which are among the most painful results of the crime and folly that characterized the fourth Sunday of the new year.

The Czardom in Russia, which was a sufficiently practical system of government when first instituted, had long ceased to be felt as other than an irksome burden. It had become a paralyzing drag on the activity, a terrible drain on the vital forces of the people, and even the obtuse and ignorant masses were rapidly becoming conscious of the fact. For that reason education, which was gradually opening their eyes to political good and evil, and enabling them to compare their own material misery and spiritual darkness with the prosperity and enlightenment of other nations, was systematically hindered in all its forms. And even people of the upper classes learned only very late in life, if at all, that the Czardom, when first established in Muscovy, was essentially a limited monarchy, and that instead of developing on those lines, instead of slowly and judiciously qualifying the people to govern themselves, it usurped and misused every known function of authority, and deprived the multitude of almost every vestige of right, until at last it seemed as if in Russia state

omnipotence were wielded by a weak-willed boy and Church infallibility were claimed by a fallen spirit. What can be urged in favor of a cultured and Christian government which in the twentieth century forbids professors of high schools to proclaim the fact that the Emperor Paul was murdered by his subjects, and orders them to teach the students that he died of a wound which he accidentally inflicted upon himself while eating his dinner; of a state which imprisons for thirty, forty, or fifty years in murky, dank, stone cells upright, conscientious Christians who hold that Luther's teaching is a nearer approach to the doctrine of Christ than Orthodoxy? Yet that treatment has been meted out to men and women down to this day. The sufferers bowed to the inevitable, and deplored that "God is in heaven and the Czar far away."

SPIRITUAL AND MATERIAL BANKRUPTCY OF THE OLD RÉGIME.

But these are mere details. In every essential of real government the theocratic autocracy had miserably failed. The people were and still are kept in a semi-savage state which excites the pity or the loathing of civilized outsiders, who from time to time visit the country districts. Their worship is fetichism, their dogmas are gross superstitious beliefs, their notions of life and the world childish, their dwellings are "black holes," their food is insufficient for normal human life. And to remedy these grievances practically nothing was being done. On the contrary, ever since the present Emperor came to the throne, his ministers have been, not only keeping the masses where they were, but thrusting them down still lower in the slough of despond. Increased taxes were imposed upon the peasantry from which the upper classes were exempted; special laws were framed to debar the children of the lower orders from the school-rooms; as though the tillers of the soil were minors, a body of guardians was instituted with power to deal summarily with them and stand generally *in loco parentis* to whole districts, and the late minister of the interior, Plehve, was en-

gaged in restoring as much of serfdom as is still possible in Russia when his life was suddenly taken. The peasants silently endured it all, regretting that God was in heaven and the Czar far away.

The war with Japan made things immeasurably worse than they had been. A new triple tax was automatically levied upon the peasants without the need of a law or an imperial ukase. Every district in which troops were mobilized was forced to deprive itself of its best workingmen, who were sent to the front; to pay all the expenses of mobilization, which in other countries are defrayed by the state; and, over and above, to provide for the wants of the necessitous when war had made them widows, orphans, or cripples. And in spite of these vast sacrifices, there was no advantage gained, no victory won, and no hope of an early peace! There was no discharge in that war, which was a quarrel of the autocracy, not of the people. And the autocrat, like the daughters of the biblical horseleech, kept crying ever, "Give, give." Some of the recruits and reservists kicked against the pricks; they hid, deserted, committed suicide, killed each other, but the government punished the survivors, and drove one and all like cattle to the millet fields of Manchuria; for "God was in heaven and the Czar far away."

VIOLENCE THE ONLY ROAD TO REFORM.

There appeared to be no help from heaven or earth, no surcease of sorrow this side of the grave for the despairing muzhik. But when night seemed darkest the first gray streaks of dawn appeared, bringing promise of day. Help came—not from the Little Father, but from the hands of an obscure assassin, Sozonoff, whose bomb put a sudden end to M. Plehve's career, and may be truly said to have changed the whole course of the Emperor's policy and of Muscovite history as well. Russian society has already proclaimed the fact and canonized the man. His name has been enrolled in the list of heroic tyrannicides together with those of Brutus and Charlotte Corday. And that fact is painfully eloquent; it is a condemnation without appeal of the system of government which knows no checks and offers no guarantees, which is characterized by open repression from above and secret violence from below, mass massacres and individual assassinations. God being in heaven and the Czar far away, only armed troops and the desperate bomb-thrower seem near enough to harm or to help.

Plehve's disappearance was a fateful event. For it marked the end of a system as well as the death of a man. The system was coercion pure

and simple, checked by troubles in universities and high schools, by peasant risings in the country districts and workmen's strikes in town, by the massacre of crowds and the assassination of state officials. It was a system of thoroughness applied to the heroic treatment of mere symptoms, and the results were in harmony with the aim and methods. Plehve put down riots and disorders, destroyed opposition, silenced complaints, and called the result tranquillity. But it was only silence, ominous silence. For, once the safety valves were shut and sealed, the explosions began and continued until one of them swept himself away. And people are now beginning to see that, together with Plehve, the autocracy was burst up. For the Czardom had had no such resolute, methodical man in recent times. He kept his eye fixed on the goal and walked straight forward, regardless of consequences. He put system, organization, power, will, and perseverance in the service of absolutism, and probably obtained the highest results that a clever combination of all these can give; he certainly achieved a more complete success than any Russian bureaucrat can ever again hope to win for that obnoxious cause. For that reason, every one felt that what he failed to accomplish was unfeasible. Hence the long interregnum that ensued. For weeks and weeks there was no minister of the interior.

PRINCE MIRSKI GIVES RUSSIA BREATHING-SPACE.

Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski, the murdered minister's successor, brought a change of scene with him and a message of confidence. Plehve had treated the bulk of educated Russians as public enemies, against whom espionage, treachery, violence, and death were permissible. Hence all the best men still living in the empire were to be found in exile or in prison. Of these Prince Mirski recalled many, and promised to treat the rest with justice. In the nation he professed to put implicit confidence. At first the people could hardly realize the significance of his words. Like a fly cramped in the palm of a boy's hand, it failed to use the liberty thus suddenly bestowed. But when the prison portals opened on untried prisoners, when the press began to express frank thoughts on current events, when espionage was relaxed and men saw that they could breathe freely, they resolved to accept the proffered hand and to work together with the government. The result was the famous congress of the zemstvo presidents and the list of their demands. What this petition amounted to was a reasonable request that the system of repression enforced by Plehve, Sipyagin, and their predecessors should be made impossible

for all time. It did not go very much beyond that. But the champions of autocracy, especially the grand dukes, and several other dignitaries, headed by Pobyedonostzev, scenting danger to the principle of absolutism, sounded the alarm. The Czar thereupon restricted the relative freedom accorded to the press, several newspapers were punished, all were forbidden to write about a constitution, and the air was full of ugly rumors of a contemplated reaction.

But a reaction seemed and probably was and is impossible, except as a mere episode in a struggle between monarch and people. As a system of government it was inconceivable thenceforward. And to prove this, banquets were arranged, lectures delivered, meetings called, balls given, and private meetings convened, at which representatives of all the educated classes loudly condemned one-man rule, clamored for peace with Japan, criticised the government, and encouraged each other to persevere in fighting the good fight. University professors, masters of grammar schools, official assemblies of the nobility, provincial zemsky congresses, members of the liberal professions, petitioned the minister or the Czar to listen to the voice of those who had signed the petition of rights. The growth of the new spirit might be likened to the gathering of a storm. It was rapid, natural, unconscious. No single actor in that national drama had a rounded conception of the whole play, and most of them would have indignantly thrown up their parts if they had had an inkling of the real significance of the work they were engaged in. Thus, officials, officers, civil servants, professors, academicians, and privy councillors came smiling to banquets, never dreaming that they would there sign a document requesting the Czar to abandon part of his prerogatives. Most of them would have remained away had they foreseen such a negation of their principles, such a breach of the proprieties. But in the course of the repast somebody conceived the idea of drawing up a declaration against absolute government and handing it around for signature. At first dismay was depicted on the countenances of the assembled notables. They wrinkled their brows, shrugged their shoulders, read the paper, and passed it on disapprovingly. A few minutes later they were almost snatching it from each other's hands, and signing it with effusive delight. All were filled with the revolutionary spirit which had suddenly descended upon them, and they began to speak with tongues foreign to them before. Then the public hardly recognized in them the men whom they had heretofore known as bureaucrats.

THE CZAR'S UKASE AND ITS SHAM REFORMS.

Meanwhile the Czar's answer to the petition of rights was daily and hourly expected, and rumor was very busy as to its character. One day it was said to contain a clause establishing two legislative chambers; on the morrow, it was reported to embody a harsh refusal to grant any concessions. Some light was thrown upon it by a pamphlet on the condition of the peasantry which was issued by M. Witte, suggesting incisive reforms in agrarian legislation and condemning Plehve's proposals as oppressive. It was understood that Prince Mirski and the Emperor had approved the principles laid down in this booklet, and that the ex-finance minister would be charged with carrying them out. Thence it was inferred that Witte was reinstated in favor, and that his influence would be thrown into the scale of liberal reform.

Finally, the Emperor's answer came, and with it disenchantment. It promised all the reforms for which the Russian monarch considered his subjects were ripe, but these were very few and very slight. Not one was thorough. No liberty of conscience, no liberty of the press, no liberty of association, no control of the public purse, no voice in legislation, no guarantee that law would be substituted for arbitrary orders. The peasants, who were least ripe, came in for the lion's share of reforms. The curious part of the matter was that, having frankly admitted the need of radical improvements, the Emperor allowed his government to issue an official communication stigmatizing the agitators who had obtained the ukase as public enemies! Nothing could well be more ungracious than that sally unless it was the conduct of those provincial governors who refused to allow the imperial ukase to be published while disseminating the *communiqué* broadcast. And as if that was not disappointment enough for liberal Russia, a few days later another official document was issued explaining away the promised peasant reform, and generally the whole imperial ukase, and "with his Majesty's approval." That was the last drop that caused the cup to overflow.

CONCESSIONS MUST BE WRESTED BY FORCE.

Behind the scenes the battle had been fought of which the ukase and the documents that followed it were but the outer tokens. It was M. Witte who had drawn up the Russian Magna Charta, of which the first draft contained a clause creating an elective representative assembly. It was a very mild institution, if we may judge by the fact that it was unanimously approved by all members of the council. Afterward, Grand

Duke Sergius and the finance minister Kokoffseff, in their zeal for autocracy, emasculated it, and as nobody else cared to break a lance for it in its new and mutilated form, it was struck out, to the great joy of the Czar. Thus, the old grand ducal influence got the upper hand again. Prince Mirski, having repeatedly tendered his resignation, was told by his imperial master that he must stay on and harvest in the fruits of which he had sown the seeds.

The minister of justice, Muravieff, the only man of brains then left in the government, seeing the ship in danger, prudently left it betimes. He induced the Emperor to transfer him to the diplomatic service, and send him as ambassador to the Quirinal. Obviously, then, nothing would be changed, the new experiment of ruling instead of misruling would not be proceeded with, and everything would remain as it was. All that the government really wanted and waited for was a victory in the far East, which would enable it to enter into the plenitude of its former authority. And the people? Would they, too, wait for new chains to be forged? God was doubtless still in heaven and the Czar was still far away, but they remembered that the only relief they had theretofore experienced had come neither from heaven nor from the throne, but from one of themselves, who was now confined in a moist, noisome dungeon of Schlüsselburg.

On the festival of the Epiphany,* which will long be remembered in the annals of autocracy, another such "criminal" rose up in his place. On that day, as the Czar and the imperial family were gathered together at the solemn blessing of the waters of the Neva, one of the guns used to fire the salutes was loaded with case-shot and pointed at the little rotunda where the Emperor stood, and it failed by an error of a mere millimetre to kill or wound several of the highest personages in the land. This abortive attempt was certainly not the outcome of an army plot, but it was doubtless the work of a man who knew what he wanted and did his utmost to effect his end. Astonishment was the prevalent feeling in the Russian capital—astonishment at the ocular demonstration that even on such solemn occasions there is no real protection for the Autocrat of all the Russias from the hand of any man who is ready to lay down his life.

NO REDRESS FOR THE STRIKERS.

But before the public had recovered from its stupor it received a still more violent shock. The operatives of some steel works in the capital suddenly struck work in consequence of a

misunderstanding with their employers on a subject of slight import. They were all members of a very curious association organized by the police for the purpose of arresting the spread of social democracy and revolutionary principles. In Moscow, a few years back, the police founded the first democratic society of this hybrid type, gave its members large exclusive privileges, took their part against their employers even when the latter were in the right,—and all this on the sole condition that they should belong body and soul to the autocracy, and make war by fair and unfair means on their brother operatives who favored the liberal movement. The head of the St. Petersburg association was a young priest, George Gapon, who had received the chaplaincy of a forwarding prison from the late M. Plehve, who also helped him to a post of influence among the workingmen. Gapon himself states that as there was no other means of devoting himself to the service of his fellows, he stooped beneath the humiliating yoke. He expected that in another two or three months the workingmen would be ripe "for manly action." Meanwhile he preached to them, catechised them, aroused and gratified their interest in matters that lay outside the province of Russian operatives, and acquired an almost absolute power over them. All at once the dismissal of four "hands" aroused the ire of their comrades; the moderate demand that they should be kept on was rejected by the firm, after which the men, turning out the lights, struck work.

Father Gapon put himself at the head of the operatives and appealed to the inspector of works. In vain. Then he deliberately added to the list of his demands a clause asking for an eight-hour working day and other reforms; he presented that to the minister of finance. But here, too, he was bowed out. He was, they said, trampling on etiquette and ignoring traditions. Besides, the obstacles in the way of reforms were of a political character, and could not be removed. "Down with the political obstacles, then!" exclaimed Father Gapon; and his operatives repeated the sentiment. That was the turning-point at which the demonstration became a political movement. The tens of thousands who had struck were now joined by scores of thousands, their demands put in writing were improved upon by claims formulated by word of mouth, and the political landmarks of centuries were swept away in a couple of hours. As the director of the Putiloff works, the government inspector, and the minister of finance had all turned a deaf ear to the workingmen, Father Gapon proposed that they should

*The 6th of Russian January and the 19th of ours.

appeal to the Czar. Was he not the Little Father of his subjects, or, at least, of the Russian and Orthodox section of them? They would go, then, in procession on Sunday, bearing the holy cross and the Czar's portrait aloft in sign of their nationality, religion, and loyalty. The Little Father would see that they came by their rights. *If he granted but one demand* in their long list they would worship him, they said.

“VLADIMIR'S DAY IN ST. PETERSBURG.”

Hitherto workmen and educated classes kept apart, the former regarding the latter with distrust. But on the night before the historic Sunday, a number of literary men gathered together in the office of a newspaper and discussed the situation. Being well versed in Russian history, they were anxious to keep the people out of harm's way. Therefore, they adjured the workmen to abandon their intention to proceed to the Winter Palace, lest they be fired upon by the troops. But the workmen's representatives answered that it was too late. Then a deputation was sent to Prince Mirski, and to M. Witte, beseeching them in the name of patriotism, religion, and humanity to do their utmost to hinder the effusion of blood. But they received no encouragement. Prince Mirski would not see them, and M. Witte could not help them. There was no head in Russia, no responsibility, nothing but blind fate and its occasional instruments.

The fateful Sunday dawned bright and frosty. From the outskirts of St. Petersburg came the workmen in units, tens, hundreds, thousands, unarmed and hopeful. But all the bridges and other avenues to the city had been occupied overnight by Cossacks, guards, soldiers of the line, policemen. Bivouac fires burned brightly in the snow-covered streets, rifles were stacked, troops were dancing, playing, laughing. Artillery was ostentatiously wheeled over to the Basil Island. St. Petersburg, in a word, wore the aspect of a city taken by a foreign invader. But the workmen had no misgivings. God might still be in heaven, but the Czar, to whom they had given due notice of their peaceful intention, was now no longer far away; he would surely come from Tsarskoe-Selo to St. Petersburg and hear the heart's desire of these the least of his children! Had he done so he would have succeeded in accomplishing what neither Grand Duke Vladimir, with his anti-Nihilistic League, nor Grand Duke Sergius, with his Loyal Workmen's Democratic Association, had effected; he would have carried the lower classes with him almost to a man and deprived the Liberals of the support both of the peasantry and of the

workmen, without whom no revolution is possible in Russia. It was a rare opportunity, worthy of a great or a good monarch. Many of the extreme revolutionists trembled lest the Czar would go, as Nicholas had gone, to his rebellious subjects fearlessly and bravely. But he stayed in the apartments of his palace instead. He had put the Grand Duke Vladimir in command, and this personage is reported to have exclaimed, “If I am not Nicholas the Second, I shall be a second Nicholas!” And he was. He gave his orders to Prince Vassilchikoff, who carried them out to the letter.

A general staff was got together; the city of St. Petersburg was divided into sections, of which each one was assigned to a body of the troops; officers gathered around a green table on which lay an outspread map; adjutants came and went continually; in a word, the game of war was being played elaborately. Then the “invading army” was attacked in sections and driven back with great slaughter,—individuals of both sexes and all ages. The man who carried the Czar's portrait was shot dead; the likeness pierced; the priest Gapon, arrayed in his vestments, was borne down by his falling comrades; men, women, children, were shot, not like the Japanese, who are made prisoners if unarmed, but like wild beasts. Boys perched on the boughs of leafless trees, women clinging to the iron railings of public gardens, babies in their mothers' arms, passers-by who ran into adjacent houses for shelter, were slain deliberately, mercilessly, gleefully. I saw Cossacks grinning as they began their bloody work; I saw others joke when the dead were carried past them; and I heard of others who boasted of inhuman deeds. . . . God was still in heaven, but the Czar far away. Aye, further than he has ever been since Russia became an empire. An abyss now separates him from his people. And if the Grand Duke Vladimir was not Nicholas the Second, he was in many respects a second Nicholas.

THERE IS NO LITTLE FATHER.

The innocent people who had been shot like public enemies were buried like dogs. The hospital authorities refused the names of the slain, even to parents and relatives. They made a pretense of communicating the time of burial, but always interred the bodies secretly during the night. Many persons disappeared completely. On Sunday night, Father Gapon characterized the situation briefly in this letter:

Comrades, Russian Workingmen: There is no Czar. Between him and the Russian nation torrents of blood have flowed to-day. It is high time for Russian workmen to begin without him to carry on the struggle for

national freedom. You have my blessing for that fight. To-morrow I will be among you. To-day I am busy working for the cause. (Signed) FATHER GAPON.

A large part of Russia publicly expressed its sympathy with the capital. Strikes were organized in Moscow, Riga, Reval, Kovno, Warsaw, and other places. The Council of the High Schools informed the government that until the present *régime* was changed they could not teach; the doctors, that they could not cope with epidemics; the lawyers, that they could not hope for the establishment of law; the zemstvos of Kharkov and other cities, that the country would go to rack and ruin and the throne of the Czar be shattered,—in a word, all Russia has declared plainly and emphatically that, come what may, the autocracy must cease.

But the Autocrat ignored these signs, and continued his avocations unmoved. Even on the days when organized murder was taking the place of statute law, his Majesty was receiving generals and dignitaries, as if all were well with Russia and the Romanoffs. The men who had endeavored to hinder the bloodshed,—Hessen, Annensky, Kareyeff, Peshekhonoff, and others,—were arrested as would-be ministers of a mythical provisional government. The second best-hated man in all Russia, General Trepoff, was appointed to be governor-general of St. Petersburg, with dictatorial powers; notices were published by the authorities that Japan and England had organized all these strikes, both in Russia and in Germany, and had sent \$8,160,000. "Alas!" exclaimed the Liberals, "what a vast pile of money must have stuck to the palms of the grand ducal set!"

Even the Most Holy Synod solemnly repeated the calumny. Five hundred cells were made ready for prisoners. Ladies and girls were seized at night and hurried off to prison. Spies flitted about from house to house. *Agents provocateurs* attacked private dwellings and looted shops. The workmen were maliciously incited against the students by the police,—in a word, the halcyon days of Plehve seemed to have come back for a time. But only for a time.

FORECAST OF THE FUTURE.

The revolution has not failed; it has only begun. It is likely to prove a slow process in a country where the troops are with the ruler against the people, and in Russia it is certain to assume a peculiar character of its own. Un-

happily, the authorities imported a deplorable element into the struggle when they taught by example that killing and murder for political purposes are no crimes. The situation is sufficiently characterized by these salient facts. All sections of society, from the peasant and the workman to the Czar, proclaim that Russia cannot go on as she is going. Law must take the place of caprice. The Czar himself in his ukase openly confesses all this, and more than this. The whole nation has since assured him that autocracy cannot save the country, but that the country may save the Autocrat if he be wise in time. The alternatives now are the abolition of the one-man *régime* of the Romanoffs or the ruin of Russia. And Nicholas II. refuses to give up his prerogatives.

Between these two, then, the nation and the Czar, the struggle will now be carried on. The first encounter took place on Sunday, January 22, between the troops of the autocracy and the unarmed multitude, and the autocracy, in possession of brute force, won the day. The people will now resort to force, but to force aided by cunning, and the next episodes of political justice may perhaps be classified by friends of the autocracy as crimes. But in matters of that kind public opinion is deemed to be the right rule of conscience, and in Russia public opinion approves the violent deed of Sozonoff. Great progress can hardly be made in the contest before the war with Japan is concluded, the troops return home, and the financial bills are presented for payment. Then the day of reckoning will be nigh. For financial insolvency bids fair to accompany spiritual bankruptcy. Meanwhile it is possible, and personally I regard it as almost certain, that Nicholas II. will convoke an assembly of notables on the model of the zemsky assembly convened by the first Czar of the Romanoff dynasty. That, however, will not satisfy the legitimate demands of his people. Yet it is in the highest degree improbable that the Emperor will grant a constitution; though an autocrat, he never so powerful, cannot carry on a campaign against a foreign enemy, thousands of miles away, and at the same time wage war on his own people at home. Even Archimedes needed a fulcrum. At present nearly all Russia has recorded its opinion in unmistakable terms that the game which is now being played by the autocracy is not worth the candle. Why, to quote a Russian saying, go to hell to light a cigarette?





THE CITY OF WASHINGTON, FROM THE CAPITOL.

A CIVIC AWAKENING AT THE NATIONAL CAPITAL.

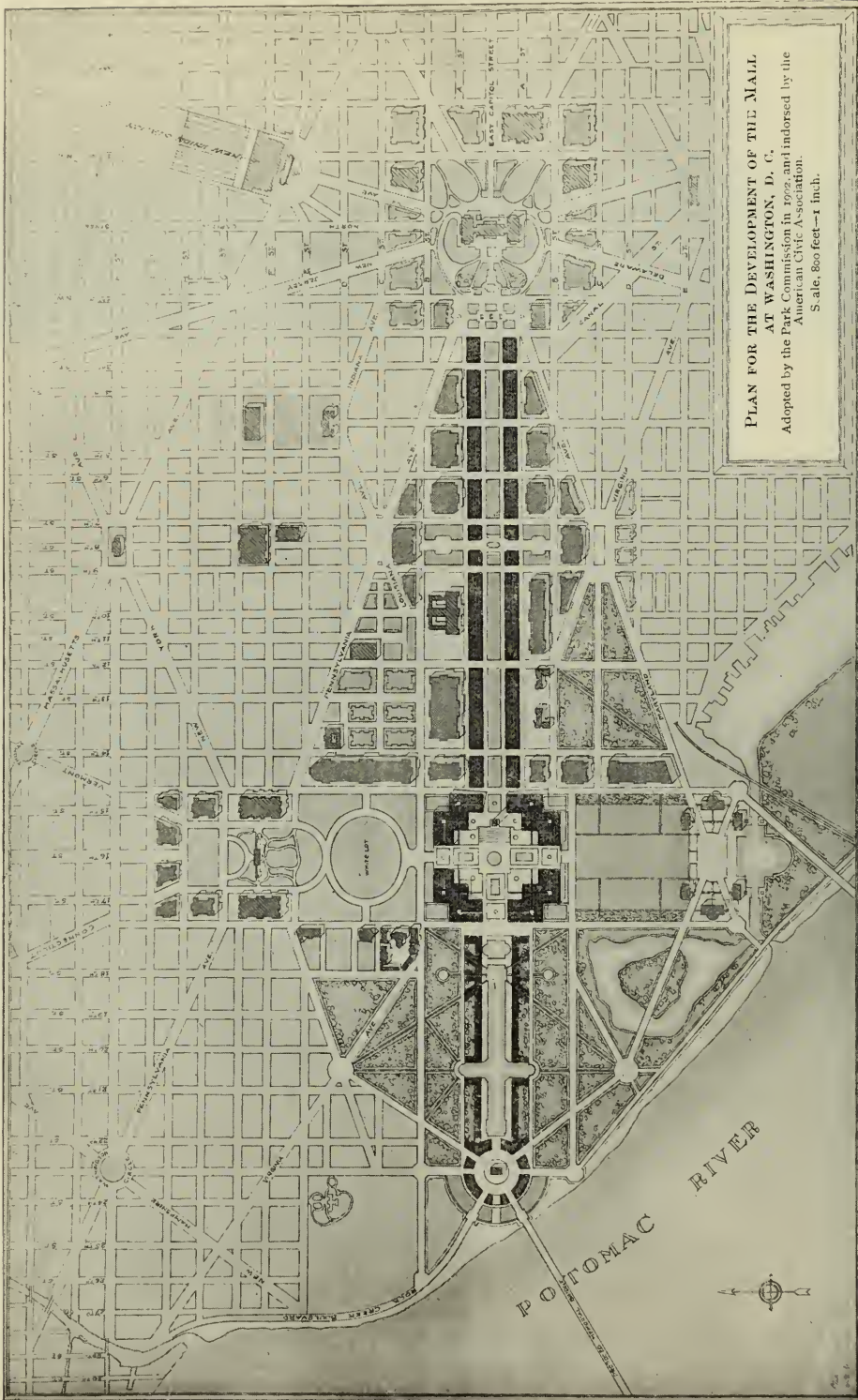
BY MAX WEST.

BESIDES being the seat of the federal government and the Mecca of politicians and sight-seers innumerable, Washington is a civic entity very much like any other rapidly growing American city. Its chief municipal peculiarity lies in its form of government, which makes Congress its city council and gives it, instead of a mayor, three commissioners of the District of Columbia, appointed by the President. The United States, which owns fully half the real estate in the District, pays one-half of the District's expenses, and in like manner Congress is jointly responsible with its own citizens for the welfare and progress of the capital. That Washington is just now going through a remarkable development is therefore due partly to the enterprise of its own citizens and partly to the enthusiasm and initiative of the late Senator McMillan, who long presided over the destinies of the capital as chairman of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia. When the centennial of the establishment of the seat of government at Washington was celebrated in December, 1900, it was felt that the time had come for the development of a new and greater Washington which should be worthy to be the capital of a great nation. The Senate Committee on the District of Columbia appointed a commission of eminent architects and landscape gardeners to report a comprehensive plan for the development and improvement of the park system of the District. This commission, consisting of Messrs. Daniel H. Burnham, Charles F. McKim, Augustus St. Gaudens, and Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., visited Euro-

pean capitals for inspiration, but after making a study of the original plan for the federal city as conceived by Washington and mapped by L'Enfant, declared itself in favor of rehabilitating and extending that masterful plan. This involves cutting a broad boulevard through the center of the Mall to connect the Capitol with the Washington Monument and the White House, and as a necessary corollary, the removal of railroad tracks from the Mall and the building of a union railway station northeast of the Capitol grounds. The commission's plan included the grouping of future public buildings and memorials, the establishment of recreation centers, and the unification of the entire park system by appropriate connecting driveways. An interesting collection of models, sketches, etc., was prepared and placed on exhibition to stimulate the interest of the public. It was never intended that the whole of this vast plan should be carried out at one time, but it was thought desirable to have a definite ideal toward which to work in the future improvement of the capital.

THE GREAT TERMINAL PROJECT.

Inaugural visitors this year will find several extensive improvements under way in accordance with the Park Commission's plans. The one which is most radically changing the face of the map is the union railway terminal project, which involves the abolition of all the grade crossings in the city and the erection of a monumental station north of Massachusetts Avenue (a quarter of a mile from the Capitol),



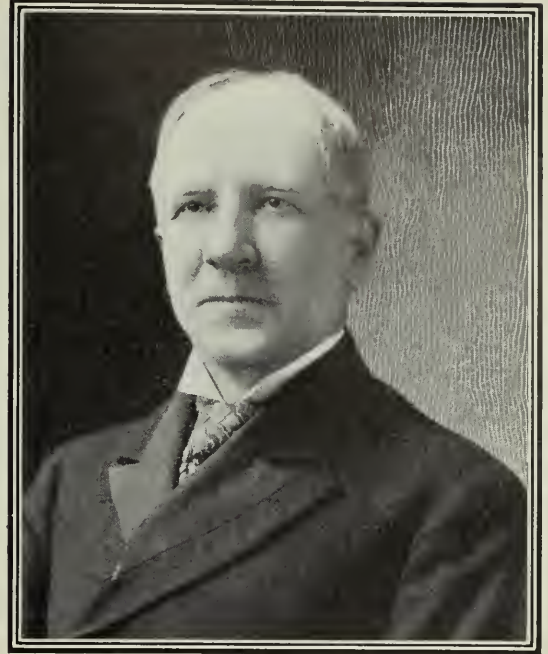
PROPOSED EXTENSION OF LENFANT'S PLAN FOR THE LOCATION OF PUBLIC BUILDINGS AT WASHINGTON.

(This is the scheme of development recommended by the Park Commission appointed under authority of the Senate; the improvements now under way are planned in accordance with the commission's recommendations.)

which trains from the South will reach by means of a tunnel nearly a mile long through Capital Hill, between the Capitol and the Library of Congress. The station is to be a magnificent edifice of white granite, a few feet longer than the Capitol itself, and costing four million dollars to build. It will front on a broad semi-circular plaza, from which streets will radiate in such a manner as to avoid congestion of traffic, it is hoped, even at inauguration time. Where now all is chaos there will be twenty-nine parallel tracks for passenger trains, and room for nine more as they are needed. It augurs well for the appropriate execution of this great project that Mr. Burnham, of the late Park Commission, is the architect of the new union station, which promises to be unsurpassed in completeness, convenience, and elegance, as well as in magnitude, and to constitute a fitting vestibule to the national capital.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS UNDER WAY.

Just south of Pennsylvania Avenue at Fourteenth Street, in the triangle north of the Mall designated by the Park Commission for public buildings of a local character, work has been begun on a building for the offices of the District government, now inadequately housed in rented quarters. The two million five hundred thousand dollars proposed for this purpose will permit the erection of a handsome building of granite or marble. In the Mall, just south of the present main building of the Department of Agriculture, ground has been broken for a new and permanent building for that department, which will bring under one roof the various bureaus and laboratories now scattered from F Street northwest nearly to C Street southwest. After much discussion, the new building has been so located as to leave the broad open space through the Mall for which the Park Commission contended. Near at hand, on the opposite side of the Mall, rise the walls of the new National Museum, which is to be somewhat larger than the Library of Con-



HON. HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND.

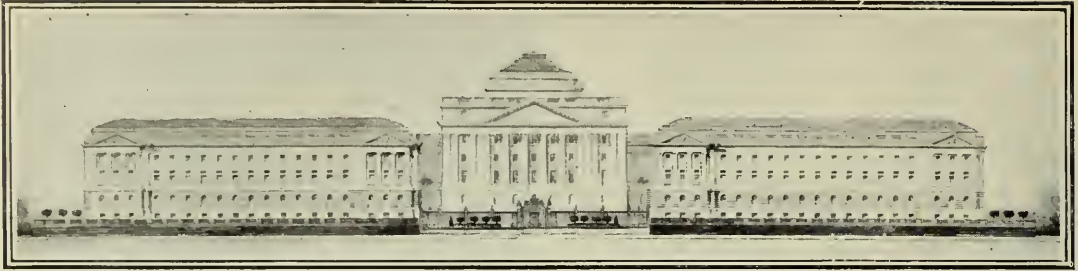
(President of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia.)

gress, though less expensive, and in which will be displayed thousands of specimens now stored away in the basement of the old museum, for lack of space to exhibit them. South of the Capitol grounds work has been begun on the office building for the House of Representatives, which, with the Senate building, for which land has been secured on the north, marks a partial realization of the Park Commission's plan for a group of legislative buildings surrounding the Capitol.

By the time these buildings are completed provision will doubtless have been made for several other much-needed public buildings. The new Department of Commerce and Labor is scattered about in rented buildings, the



THE PROJECTED UNION RAILWAY STATION.
(D. H. Burnham & Co., architects.)



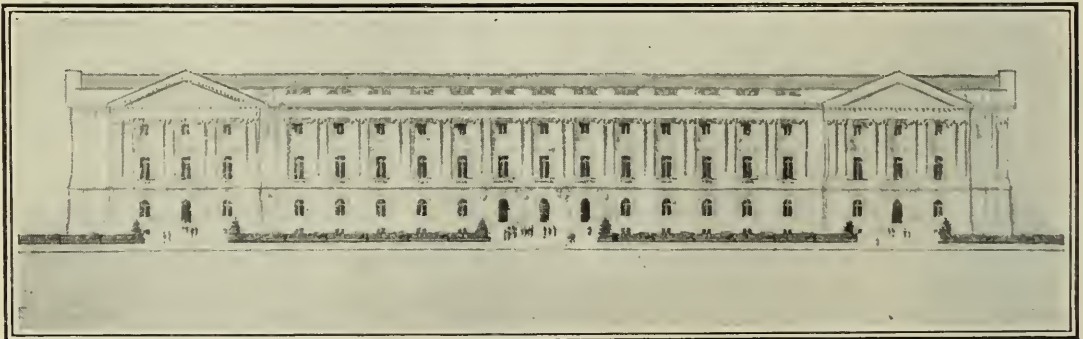
THE NEW BUILDING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.
(Rankin, Kellogg & Crane, architects.)

Department of Justice is without a permanent home, the Navy Department has expanded into a rented annex, and many other government offices, such as the Geological Survey, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the Civil Service Commission, the Isthmian Canal Commission, etc., occupy rented quarters in a manner as expensive as it is undignified. It is not to be expected that these conditions will be allowed to continue indefinitely, though it will be many years before the architects and builders can catch up with the growth of the public business. The citizens of Washington propose to erect a mammoth building for conventions and inaugural balls, and to have it ready for 1909; Congress will be asked to contribute to this enterprise the steel frame of the government building at the St. Louis Exposition.

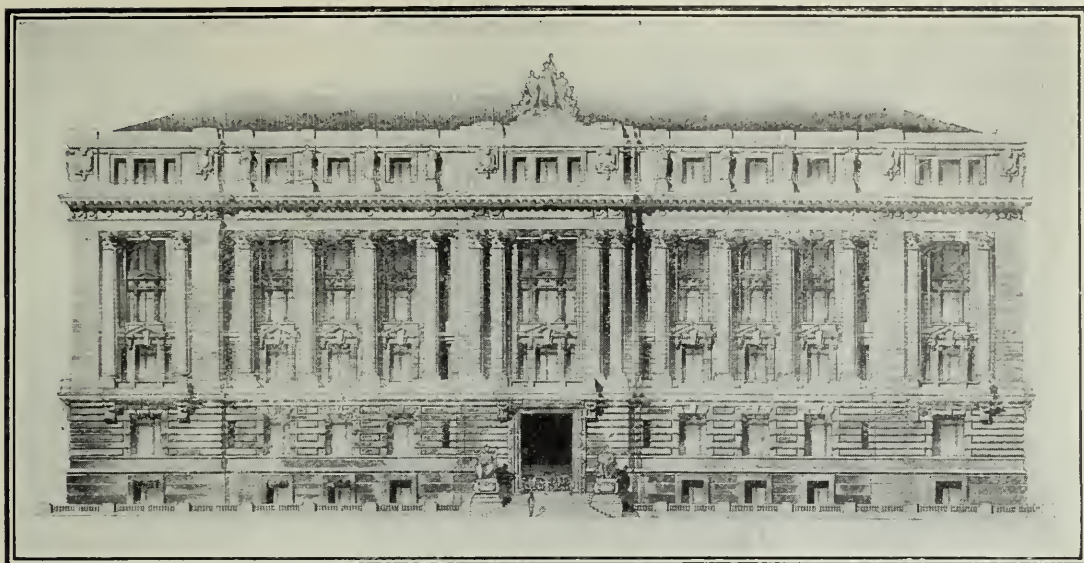
IMPORTANT MUNICIPAL WORKS.

Of the improvements now under way in Washington there are several of a less ornamental or less conspicuous character than the public buildings above mentioned, but of even greater importance to the residents of the District. South of the Soldiers' Home grounds, an extensive sand filtration plant is nearing completion, and a short distance to the west is a handsome new pumping

station, said to be the finest in the country. Beginning next autumn, the people of Washington will have clean water to drink and to bathe in, and the filtration of the water-supply will doubtless be followed by a diminished death-rate here, as it has in other cities. An improved system of sewage disposal is being developed, at a cost of five million dollars. The sewage of the city is to be carried under the Anacostia River and emptied into the Potomac below Alexandria. The elimination of grade crossings, already mentioned as a feature of the terminal project, is a measure of public safety to which the public treasury is contributing liberally. The station plaza, too, is being provided for partly by the District and partly by the railroads forming the Washington Terminal Company. To replace the old Long Bridge across the Potomac a railroad bridge has been completed, and a highway bridge is well under way, as also are the new Anacostia bridge and the Connecticut Avenue bridge across Rock Creek. The Massachusetts Avenue viaduct over Rock Creek was recently completed, and the Aqueduct bridge across the Potomac widened. The municipal improvements now under way are estimated to cost \$17,604,000, and there is pressing need for still other works, such as the reclamation of the malarial Anacostia flats, a Dis



OFFICE-BUILDING PROPOSED FOR THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.
(Carrère & Hastings, architects.)



THE MUNICIPAL BUILDING PLANNED FOR THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

(Cope & Stewardson, architects.)

trict hospital, a high-pressure fire-protection service, and a new aqueduct to Great Falls. Sites have been purchased for a new police court and for a municipal almshouse, and a bill providing for public-comfort stations is before Congress at this writing. In order that necessary improvements of a permanent character may be made without throwing the whole burden upon current revenues, the District commissioners have recommended to Congress a system of advances from the national treasury to take the place of the long-term bonds issued by other municipalities.

EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENTS.

Washington is proud of its public schools, which are recognized as among the best in the country, although the teachers' salaries are still so low, even after some slight increases have been made, that experienced teachers are constantly being lost to other cities. It was just a century ago this year that the Washington public-school system was established, with a board of trustees headed by President Jefferson. The schools have been fortunate, not only in having the foremost citizens of the District on their governing boards, but also in the high character of their superintendents and teaching force. The methods of study have been progressive, and the spirit of the schools is noticeably wholesome and pleasant. Through evening lectures the benefits of the schools are now extended to adults. Among the schoolhouses recently dedi-

cated are two handsome buildings devoted to manual training, which are already so filled to overflowing that extensions have been asked for. A commodious new building for the Business High School is now being erected. The kindergartens in the public schools have been supplemented by three excellent free kindergartens supported by Mrs. Phœbe Hearst; and though her support has now been withdrawn, it is hoped that means will be provided to continue them. The school gardens of the public schools are supplemented by the work of the City Gardens Association, which promotes the cultivation of vacant land by the needy and by the young.

The Public Library of the District of Columbia, after a brief existence in rented quarters, now occupies an attractive building given by Mr. Carnegie, and is entering upon a new era of usefulness under its enterprising new librarian, Mr. George F. Bowerman, lately called from Wilmington. Under his method of displaying the best books upon open shelves, the circulation is rapidly increasing and the proportion of fiction rapidly falling off. Lists of books in the library on various subjects are published in the local papers, and a special effort is made to interest mechanics and artisans in the literature of their trades. On the second floor of the library building is a lecture hall, which is coming to be used more and more for public lectures and meetings of various organizations of a public character. Mr. Carnegie has offered to build a number of



THE ARMSTRONG MANUAL-TRAINING SCHOOL.

branch libraries when the sites are provided, but thus far all available funds are being devoted to the development of the central library, and the only branch is a small one managed by volunteer workers at Neighborhood House, the social settlement in southwest Washington. This settlement has recently come into the use of an additional building, which enables it to extend its work by the organization of industrial classes.

The George Washington University (formerly the Columbian University) seems to be endowed this year with new life, as well as a new name. Architects have been called upon to submit plans



THE PUBLIC LIBRARY OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.



A GLIMPSE OF LITTLE-KNOWN WASHINGTON—VAN STREET, IN THE SOUTHWEST SECTION.

(The dwellings on the left were erected by the Sanitary Housing Company. Note the contrast in the facing row.)

for a new group of buildings to be situated southwest of the State, War, and Navy departments,—the central building of the group to be provided by the George Washington Memorial Association, at a cost of five hundred thousand dollars. The university's plans for development as a great institution of learning are even more noteworthy than this outward sign of growth. Having thrown off its denominational allegiance, the university now aims to confine itself to grad-

uate and professional work, and to surround itself with colleges founded by separate denominations or other organizations, which will have the benefit of university affiliation and the university degree. Meanwhile the Methodists are still at work on their university in the northwestern part of the District, while the Catholic University, in the northeast, is constantly growing and expanding. The Young Men's Christian Association is building a handsome new edifice, and banks and business houses are rapidly improving the business streets with substantial buildings.

HOUSING AND PLAYGROUNDS.

Two important needs of Washington which are now attracting public notice are improved housing and public playgrounds. In both directions some progress has already been made through the initiative of public-spirited citizens, without aid from Congress. An investigation of alley conditions made several years ago by the Civic Center led to the organization of the Sanitary Improvement Company, which has erected several long rows of two-family houses, in which flats of from three to five rooms rent at from \$10 to \$15 a month, with a rebate of one month's rent a year when no repairs are necessary. These dwellings are occupied by the better class of



THE MCKINLEY MANUAL-TRAINING SCHOOL.

working people, and have been imitated by private landlords, who ask higher rents for very similar accommodations. The Sanitary Improvement Company has from the very beginning paid 5 per cent. on the investment, to which rate its dividends are limited, besides accumulating a surplus fund. The Sanitary Housing Company is a newer corporation, promoted by the leading spirits of the older company to meet the need for a cheaper class of tenements. Its first row of flats, on Van Street southwest, is in striking contrast to the tumble-down barracks, a relic of war times, to which the colored residents of that street are accustomed. For three rooms and bath the rent is only \$7 or \$7.50 a month; for four rooms and bath, \$8 and \$8.50. For nine years the leading citizens and civic organizations of Washington have been urging Congress to enact legislation to help along housing reform by authorizing the condemnation of houses unfit for human habitation, and by widening inhabited alleys into minor streets. The only unsanitary dwelling which it has been possible to condemn under existing laws was one which was also structurally unsafe, and threatened to fall over on some passer-by.

Mr. Charles F. Weller, the energetic secretary of the Associated Charities, keeps the need of improved housing and of playgrounds before the public by means of mass-meetings and lantern-slides, and his efforts have already borne some fruit in the equipment of eleven small playgrounds by private philanthropy on borrowed land, public reservations being used in two cases. Last summer a trained supervisor was employed, and a public field-day held at the close of the season. Congress has now been asked for a small appropriation to continue and extend this work. To make a small amount of money go as far as possible, Mr. Weller organizes a winter training-class of volunteer playground assistants for the following summer.

The expanding activity of the Associated Charities is one of the most notable features of the civic life of Washington. The four committees on the improvement of housing conditions, playgrounds, summer outings, and the prevention of tuberculosis represent "the broadening sphere of organized charity" of which Mr. Robert W. de Forest spoke at the last annual meeting. In the crusade against tuberculosis a dispensary has been established, with volunteer physicians to give advice, and an important educational work is being carried on with lectures and pamphlets.

GOVERNMENT BY TRIUMVIRATE.

There is no more efficient municipal administration anywhere in America than that pre-

sided over by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, who are men of the highest character and ability; and notwithstanding the seemingly undemocratic form of government, there is no city in which representative public opinion is more effective in influencing administrative action. There are many citizens of Washington who regard the appointive triumvirate as an illogical arrangement for the capital of a republic, and who object on principle to being disfranchised; but the present arrangement works so well in practice that there is no considerable demand for a change to government by the citizens. A substitute for representative government is found in the citizens' associations, by which the interests of various sections and suburbs are discussed and laid before the proper authorities. The Board of Trade, the Business Men's Association, the Civic Center, and the new Commercial League are disinterestedly public-spirited organizations devoted to the welfare and advancement of the city as a whole. By frequent hearings before the commissioners or the District committees of Congress, as well as by memorials and public meetings, these associations, and others formed for special purposes, make their influence felt. The newly organized Public Education Association has added its energy to that of the older organizations in attempting to secure legislation providing for compulsory education, prohibiting child-labor, establishing a juvenile court, etc.; and in the movement against child labor a separate citizens' committee has also been organized.

It is in getting needed legislation from Congress that the public-spirited citizens of Washington meet with their greatest discouragements. Progressive legislation to which there is no particular objection fails session after session simply from the pressure of public business. It is inevitable that members of Congress should in general be less interested in District affairs than in those more interesting to their constituents, or matters of national concern; but President Roosevelt has more than once emphasized the national importance of everything affecting the capital. In his message of last December he devoted an unprecedented amount of attention to the needs of Washington, recommending in particular the creation of a commission on housing and health conditions; and in January a special message called the attention of Congress to the necessity of a new incorporation law for the District, which was promptly passed. Perhaps this may be taken as a good omen for the future. Washington is to be the most beautiful city in the world, and there are those who will not rest content until it is a model city in all respects.

THE CIVIL SERVICE UNDER ROOSEVELT.

BY WILLIAM B. SHAW.

THE President of the United States, as every one knows who has read the Constitution of his country, is commander-in-chief of the army and navy. He is also the head of an organized body of civil servants, far outnumbering our standing military and naval forces,—a body unknown to the Constitution, since the very possibility of its existence was undreamed of by the fathers of the republic. There are about two hundred and eighty thousand of these men and women who toil daily in Uncle Sam's vineyard, and they are as truly the nation's servants as are the soldiers and sailors who fight its battles. Among them are some whose lives are by no means lacking in the heroic,—some whose devotion to duty is not less noble because their service has been rendered without trumpet-and-drum accompaniment.

A CIVIL-SERVICE PRESIDENT.

It is no disparagement of the military arm of the Government to acknowledge that without the civil arm it would be powerless, and especially in a democracy like ours it would seem to be almost an axiom of successful administration that the executive civil service should be as thoroughly organized and trained to as high a degree of efficiency as the military or naval service. Yet it is only a short span of years since this truth began to be recognized by our government as a principle of conduct. Men who are hardly gray can recall the time when practically every salaried position on the Government's roster, from the department secretaryships down to the jobs of the messengers and charwomen in the corridors of the big Washington office buildings, was regarded as the legitimate loot of the place-hunter. In those days men were not esteemed for what they knew about the Government's work. It was not deemed necessary that a President should be familiar with the affairs of one or more of the executive departments. How many Presidents have entered office with any personal knowledge whatever of departmental business? For our Presidents we chose military heroes, Congressmen, or "favorite sons" of States,—never men experienced in the actual executive business at Washington. The fact is, that Theodore Roosevelt is the first occupant of the Presidential chair who has come to the office equipped with in-

timite knowledge, based on personal experience, of the practical workings of the great governmental machine. Some of the best years of his life had been given to the cause of civil-service reform,—not as an agitator on the outside, but as a practical administrator on the inside, holding the important post of president of the Civil Service Commission, facing grave problems of organization and method, of which the doctrinaire reformer had little conception, and gaining through it all an experience that has proved a valuable asset in the still broader responsibilities of the Presidency. That experience, supplemented as it was by his term of office as Assistant Secretary of the Navy, familiarized Mr. Roosevelt with the routine of executive business, so that now, as the head of the whole governmental system, his relation to the personnel may be likened to that sustained by an army's commander to the subordinate officers in successive gradations of rank through which he has himself risen.

It is only natural, then, that those who are working for the improvement of the national civil service should count on the Roosevelt administration as an active and vigilant ally. We have a President in office who knows as well as a man in his position can know what the system is and how it works,—its merits and its defects. Its problems and its difficulties he has made his own. He has had a hand in reforming its abuses, and more than once he has come to its defense when it was set upon by powerful enemies. Perhaps the inauguration of a "civil-service President" marks an appropriate time for a rapid survey of the conditions under which the government's work is performed by its army of civil servants. Changes more far-reaching, possibly, than the American public suspects, have within a few years so transformed those conditions that government employment in Washington and elsewhere now presents wholly new phases. Moreover, most of the discussion of the subject heretofore has been confined to the political or theoretical aspects of the situation, to the neglect of certain more concretely human aspects.

THE CHANGES OF TWENTY YEARS.

When Mr. James Bryce wrote "The American Commonwealth" he did not think it worth while to include a chapter on the public service, as he

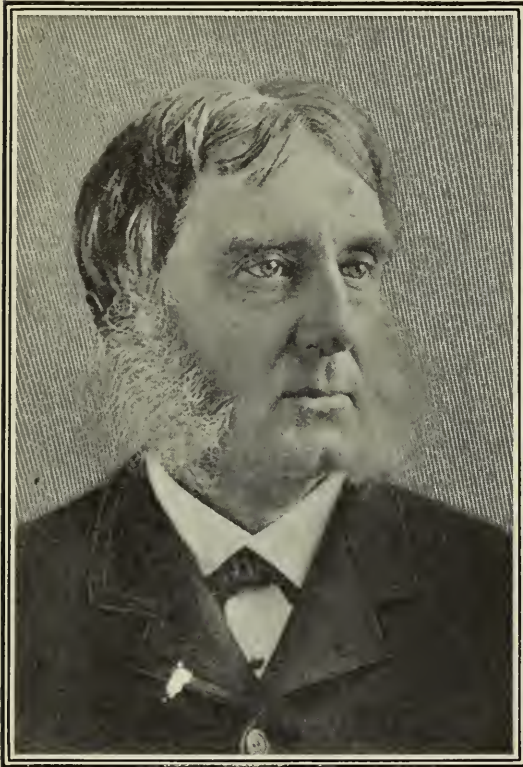
would almost certainly have done in writing a similar treatise on any of the European states; but it is not recalled that anybody noticed the omission. The truth is, that twenty years ago in this country, governmental employment, with a few exceptional instances, was anything but a dignified calling. It offered few attractions to the educated youth of the land. Its rewards were transitory at best. Every official's fortunes, however humble, depended on the coming and going of Presidents, Senators, and Repre-

official duties at election time and devote all his energies to electioneering for his party. What wonder that under such conditions the maxim that "public office is a public trust" seemed merely an empty platitude!

This state of affairs had developed gradually during the first century of the Republic's life, and it was not to be radically altered in a day. Some of the attendant evils are still with us. Yet it requires but a brief sojourn at the national capital to convince one that the general situation, as respects office-holding and all forms of public employment, is very different to-day from what it was, for example, when President Garfield took office and virtually sacrificed his life to the spoils demon. One now finds in the service of the Government hundreds of university-trained men who have entered on avenues of advancement in the public service that vie in attractiveness with academic careers. Furthermore, thousands of the purely clerical positions in the departments are filled by men and women who in training and equipment for their duties would do credit to the best-managed business houses in the land.

WHAT THE LAW OF 1883 SOUGHT TO ACCOMPLISH.

An inquirer seeking a reason for this transformation (and it is nothing less) in the conditions affecting public employment in Washington and throughout the United States, will be told that the chief cause is to be found in the operation of the Civil Service Act of 1883, known for some years after its passage as the Pendleton Act, in recognition of the fact that it was fathered by the venerable Democratic Senator from Ohio. The passage of this law was the most effective blow ever dealt at the spoils system in this country. Yet its immediate results gave little promise of the increasing potency which has developed with each successive administration since that of President Arthur, when its machinery was set in motion. In brief, the law provided for the appointment of three commissioners, not more than two of whom should be adherents of the same political party, and made it the duty of the commission to aid the President in preparing suitable rules for the government of the civil service. It was required that these rules should provide, among other things, for open competitive examinations for testing the fitness of applicants for the classified service; that appointments should be made from among those passing these examinations with highest grades; that such appointments should be apportioned in the departments at Washington among the States and Territories; that there should be an appointment on probation before absolute appointment, and that the



HON. GEORGE WILLIAM CURTIS.

(Head of the first Civil Service Commission, appointed by President Grant.)

sentatives. To the great body of our citizenship, the whole business signified nothing more than a mad scramble, every four years, for place and pelf. The Government had not impressed the national imagination by its undertakings. Little was known of the official routine. Every job at Washington was believed to be a sinecure. Every office-holder was regarded as a spoilsman, who held his place only by the favor of some other spoilsman. Every office-holder was regularly and openly assessed a considerable part of his salary for campaign expenses at every election. Moreover, he was expected to neglect his

use of official authority to coerce the political action of any person or body should be absolutely prohibited. Provision was also made in the act for investigations touching the enforcement of the rules, and a penalty of fine or imprisonment, or both, was imposed for the solicitation by any person in the service of the United States of contributions to be used for political purposes of persons in such service, or the collection of such contributions by any person in any government building.

THE MEN WHO ENFORCED THE LAW.

Now, as we look back to-day upon the immediate effects of the early enforcement of this law in the administrations of President Arthur and President Cleveland, it is hard to understand why such an outcry should have been made about it at the time, or why it should have been deemed so revolutionary in principle. Only fourteen thousand places were at first included in the classified service. This number was increased gradually during the first Cleveland administration, and more extensively in the Harrison administration, the second Cleveland administration, and the administrations of Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, until at the present time more than one-half of the total federal civil service of the country, or, to be exact, 154,093 positions, are classified subject to competitive examination under the civil-service rules. In other words, there are eleven times as many persons who now owe their appointments in the civil service to the operation of competitive tests as were included within the scope of the rules when the commission first set them in operation. More than 133,000 persons were examined last year, of whom 103,718 passed, and 50,830 received appointments. It has been found necessary to divide the country into thirteen districts for the purpose of conducting examinations. Such an increase as this could not have been achieved had not the system itself, and its administration as well, commended themselves to Congress and to the heads of departments at Washington. An indifferent or lukewarm board of commissioners might at any time during the past twenty-two years have practically nullified the law and defeated its whole purpose, but the country has been fortunate in the character of the men who have served as Civil Service Commissioners. Beginning with George William Curtis, who declined the English mission in order to take the presidency of the first Civil Service Commission in Grant's administration, under an earlier law, the men who have served the Government's interests in this important office have set excellent examples of patriotism and devotion to public



GEN. JOHN C. BLACK.

(President of the Civil Service Commission.)

duty. The commission has had Democratic presidents under Republican administrations, and Republican presidents under Democratic administrations. Some of its members have been intense partisans, and yet no charge of pernicious political activity has ever been laid at the commission's door.

During President Harrison's administration, and in the first half of President Cleveland's second administration, the president of the commission was Theodore Roosevelt. He was a Northern Republican, and he had as associates on the commission two Southern Democrats,—ex-Gov. Hugh S. Thompson, of South Carolina, and the late John R. Procter, the former State geologist of Kentucky. Mr. Roosevelt has himself said of his associates, both of whom had served in the Confederate army, that "it would be impossible for any one to desire as associates two men with higher ideals of duty, or more resolute in their adherence to those ideals." In the same connection, Mr. Roosevelt has declared that "in all the dealings of the commission in those years, there was no single instance wherein the politics of any person or the political significance of any action was so much as taken into account in any case that arose." Other com-

missioners of ability and eminence who succeeded Roosevelt were the Hon. William Dudley Foulke, of Indiana, and the Hon. James R. Garfield, of Ohio, now Commissioner of Corporations. The president of the commission at the present time is Gen. John C. Black, of Illinois, a lifelong Democrat, and with him are associated the Hon. Alfred W. Cooley, of New York, and the Hon. Henry F. Greene, of Minnesota, both Republicans. The secretary of the commission, Mr. John T. Doyle, has held his present position throughout the commission's history, from the time when the entire effects and archives of the office were transported from one Washington building to another in an ordinary pushcart, until to-day, when an entire five-story building is inadequate for the work of the bureau. The present chief examiner of the commission, Mr. Frank M. Kiggins, served an apprenticeship at departmental duties before his connection with the commission, and is familiar with the examination problem in its most practical phases. The same thing is true of other members of the examining staff.



MR. JOHN T. DOYLE.

(Secretary of the Civil Service Commission since its organization.)

HOW THE SYSTEM WORKS OUT IN PRACTICE.

This matter of the commission's personnel is important in any consideration of the improvement and reform of the civil service. All the officials of the commission, from the beginning, seem to have been animated with a desire not merely to enforce the letter of the law, but to do everything possible to make it effective in the broadest sense. A continual campaign of popular education has been necessary in order to make the great outside public understand that its own interests were cared for and guarded by the commission, while, at the same time, no little persuasion was necessary in the early years in order to bring about the hearty coöperation of the heads of departments and the bureau chiefs. After more than a score of years of enforcement, it is the all but unanimous conclusion that the law has vindicated itself and has amply justified its enactment. No head of a government department would to-day be willing to go back to the conditions of 1880, even

if the law were to be repealed to-morrow. It is quite probable that in the event of such a repeal, the first action taken in most of the departments would be the establishment of a system of competitive tests based on the examinations now conducted by the Civil Service Commission. It should not, however, be inferred that the heads of all the executive departments and bureaus are unanimous in approval of examinations *per se*. As a bureau chief said to the writer a few days ago, "The examinations do not in every case form the best test. All that can be said of them is that for the purpose intended, applicable to the great mass of clerical positions in Washington, no better means has been devised for securing a fair competitive test."

EXAMINATIONS MADE PRACTICAL.

Still, as the system has developed with the years, the practicality of the examinations has steadily gained, and the best proof of the general usefulness of the system is to be found in the fact that it brings to the various departments the types of candidates most desired. The heads of the scientific bureaus in Washington would be the first to resent any failure on the part of the commission to supply desirable material for positions in their specialties. The fact is, that under the workings of the examination system, specialists are continually coming to Washington and receiving appointments in one part or another of the service, who represent the best-trained intellects available in the country in those particular lines. Perhaps it is not fully understood outside of Washington to how great an extent the departments themselves now have in hand the framing of examination questions for these technical positions. Recognizing the fact that the department itself is the best judge of the qualifications required for appointees of this character, the Civil Service Commission has wisely sought the active coöperation of the departments in the framing of examination questions. It is decided, for example, that the Secretary of Agriculture desires to call to Washington for the government service a man trained in the study of noxious plant growths. The department itself knows better than any outsider possibly can what are the particular qualifications demanded in this position. At the same time, it is for the interest of the department that the spirit of the law should be fully observed, since better qualifications can in many cases be secured through competition than otherwise. The Civil Service Commission is notified by the department that it is desired to fill the vacancy in question, and the commission proceeds to request the department to suggest ques-

tions to be used in the competitive examination which is advertised to be held.

SIX HUNDRED DISTINCT EXAMINATIONS.

The commission itself conducts at the present time more than six hundred different kinds of examinations, and it is not to be supposed that its examiners, unaided, can cover this entire field to the satisfaction of the departments. In the case which we are considering, the Agricultural Department frames its questions and submits them to the commission; the examination is held by the commission, and in due time the names of the successful candidates are sent to the department, which then makes its own selection of one name from three. If the department had the entire management of the matter in its own hands, it is difficult to see how it could make the test more practical or secure better results. In fact, the methods of the commission in the matter of examinations, from start to finish, all tend to the most practical results attainable. In the preparation of questions, the thing kept constantly in view is the nature of the duties to which the candidate will be assigned on appointment. The whole object of the test is to ascertain the candidate's qualifications for those particular duties. In the case of the special technical positions to which reference has been made, the difficulty experienced by an outside examiner in comprehending the nature of these specific duties is overcome by reference of the whole matter to the authorities directly concerned. Thus, the whole object of the law is secured, the department attains its end, the can-

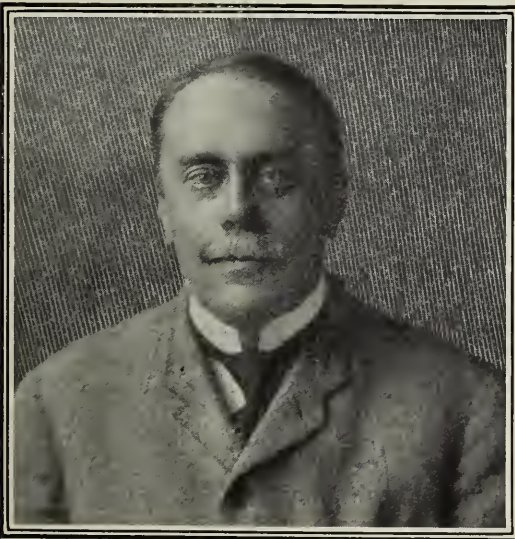
didates are subjected to the fairest possible tests, and the general good of the service is promoted.

TESTS FOR MECHANICAL AND EXPERT POSITIONS.

Turning from these positions, in which the highest form of technical ability is required, to the far more numerous places for which certain specific, practical tests are necessary, we find

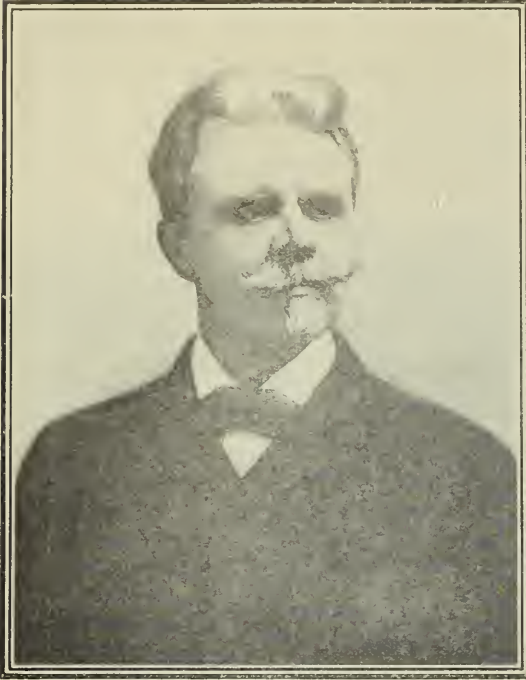


COMMISSIONER ALFORD W. COOLEY.



COMMISSIONER HENRY F. GREENE.

that the commission has steadily increased the efficiency of its examination system. The public has sometimes been led to suppose that persons applying for mechanical positions are subjected to purely literary tests. Nothing could be further from the truth. In examinations in mechanical trades, the subjects considered are not educational tests at all, but simply age, physical condition, and experience, the relative weights of which (on a scale of 100) are as follows: age, 20; physical condition, 20; experience, 60. Then, too, in classes of positions requiring expert knowledge of some particular trade or calling, the tests applied are of the most practical character. Take, for example, the examination of local and assistant inspectors of hulls, under the Steamboat Inspection Service. Here the relative weights of subjects, on a scale of 100, are: letter-writing, 10; arithmetic (comprising problems in common and decimal fractions, mensuration, and square root), 10; hull construction (comprising questions relative to the construction and strength of wood and iron hulls of vessels,



THE LATE JOHN R. PROCTER.

(President of the Civil Service Commission, 1895-1903.)

and a description of the various parts and method of joining same), 30 ; pilot rules and inland navigation, 20 ; knowledge of lifeboats and life-rafts, 10 ; experience, 20. The criticisms of the examinations that were made in the early days of the commission have vanished before every thoroughgoing investigation into the scope and character of the questions themselves.

THE CASE OF THE RAILWAY MAIL SERVICE.

The best answer to such criticisms, however, is to be found in the actual results produced by the system. As to these results, the men directly in charge of the departments and bureaus affected are, of course, best qualified to speak. Going back a few years, one of the most striking instances of the effect of civil-service examinations on the standards of government employment is the notable improvement in the efficiency of the railway mail service as recorded from year to year in the official reports. It will be remembered that this important branch of the Post Office, after having been the football of both political parties for many years, was brought under the classified civil service during President Harrison's administration, in the year 1889. Prior to that time, Republican clerks had been turned out by a Democratic administration, and,

in the early months of President Harrison's Republican administration, a large number of Democratic clerks had in turn been dismissed. The whole service was utterly demoralized, and it probably reached at that time the lowest state of efficiency in its history. It was some months after the introduction of entrance examinations before the resulting change in the character of the appointees began to make itself felt in the general efficiency of the service. After a time, however, a marked improvement was noted, and, in the opinion of those best qualified to judge, the advance was attributable mainly, if not wholly, to the application of the civil-service tests. For the fiscal year ended June 30, 1890, the errors in distribution committed by railway mail clerks amounted to the enormous total of 2,769,245. This meant that 2,834 pieces of mail matter were correctly handled to each error disclosed. Within the next twelve months, the number of errors had greatly decreased, and the number of pieces correctly handled to each error was found to be 4,261. Thereafter there was a steady decrease in the number of errors until the year 1898, when the number of errors had fallen below a million, and the number of "correct" pieces to each error was 11,960, the highest number ever reached by the service. Since that time the efficiency has been maintained at a relatively high level, the number of correct pieces to each error never falling below 10,000, and in 1904 exceeding 11,000. The sum of the whole matter is that in 1890, when the evils of the spoils system were still rife in the railway mail service, the clerks made an error to every 2,800 pieces of mail that they handled ; while in recent years, the system, being manned by appointees chosen under the civil-service rules, the ratio of errors is one to every 11,000. This is a concrete case, in which every citizen is concerned, and it invites the attention of every business man who is interested in securing as high a state of efficiency in government work as has been attained by private enterprise.

GENERAL GAINS IN ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY.

For obvious reasons, it has not been an easy matter to apply tests of this kind to the multifarious bureaus which make up the national civil service. The main difficulty is that many features of the arbitrary classification of clerkships, which was made more than fifty years ago, still survive. In most of the Government offices there is a failure to observe a logical division of duties. Thus, a \$1,400 clerk will be found performing work of precisely the same character as that performed by a \$1,200 clerk. Frequently a clerk promoted from \$1,200 to \$1,400 does exact-

ly the same work after his promotion that he did before. All this confusion in the system makes it difficult to apply any general test showing how the efficiency of a bureau or department has been affected by the operation of the civil-service law. The officials of the Treasury Department will tell you, however, that in the customs service alone there has been an actual saving, in the matter of salaries, of at least 10 per cent. This would mean an annual saving to the Government of not less than two million dollars. Some years ago, it was estimated that altogether ten million dollars was saved to the Government in the various departments through the operation of the law, by the reduction in the required number of clerkships and the increased efficiency of the new employees. If this statement was justified when it was made, the saving to-day must be far greater, since many thousand offices have been added to the classified service within the last few years. That public opinion in the country at large has been favorably impressed by these object-lessons is shown by the agitations in various States and cities for local systems similar in principle and method to the federal civil-service establishment.

THE PAY FOR GOVERNMENT WORK.

In regard to the compensation for government work, intelligent observation will probably confirm the epigrammatic statement in the newspaper witticism that has lately gone the rounds, to the effect that the pay is small for some public officials, but that some public officials are small for the pay. As a rule, the lower positions in the government service are paid more, and the higher positions less, than in private business. In most of the offices advancement is slower, but this is partly compensated for by the fact that the pay is higher on the whole in the earlier years. A man who has worked ten years for Uncle Sam will probably have had a gross income about equal to what a man of similar abilities, working the same length of time, would have received from a railroad company. At the start his salary would have been better than the railroad man's, but the latter in all likelihood would have caught up with him and outstripped him in the ten-year period. In the long run, one evens up with the other. This statement applies to the general departmental positions in Washington.

Young professional and scientific men of special qualifications are started on salaries corresponding pretty closely on the average with the salaries of "instructors" on college and university faculties. The government man has no long vacation in the year corresponding with

that of the college professor. Furthermore, he is held more closely to the observation of office hours. Washington, however, has many attractions for this type of worker. He meets many men of his own degree of education and of similar aspirations, and in not a few cases scientific men, who have proved themselves capable investigators, have been put in responsible positions, where they virtually direct the work of many subordinates, and control the expenditure of considerable funds in the interest of scientific research. A few such men in Washington have undoubtedly attained such positions far more rapidly than would have been possible on any university faculty.

Washington offers further advantages to young men of promise who succeed in passing the examinations and obtain places in the departments. There are excellent law and medical schools in the city which accommodate their programmes of lectures to the department hours. It is quite the usual thing for young department clerks to pursue a three-year course of instruction, obtain degrees in law and medicine, and then resign their clerkships to embark upon professional careers. But this is by no means the whole purpose of such institutions as the George Washington University, which, under the vigorous administration of President Needham and Dean Tucker, of the Schools of Law, Jurisprudence, and Diplomacy, is making a serious and promising effort to provide courses of instruction that will actually qualify students to fill important posts, especially in the State Department, for which no other university makes systematic provision. There is an increasing number of positions in the departments, notably in the newly organized Department of Commerce and Labor, in which a sound knowledge of the law in one or more branches is a part of the qualifications required. A man entering on an ordinary clerkship may, by three or four years of study at the law school, qualify himself for one of these semi-technical legal positions. Such a man may reasonably expect quite as good an income in the form of a government salary as the average young lawyer gets in the early years of a private practice. As a life career, on the other hand, government work, it must be admitted, is less alluring to the young man of ambition. All the higher positions in the service are notoriously ill-paid. It is not at all unusual to find in Washington officials of long experience and the most thorough equipment, controlling the disbursement of many thousands of the Government's dollars, holding places of actual responsibility, and receiving a yearly stipend of \$2,700, or even less. In some of the scientific bureaus there are

compensating advantages, but in the general run of departmental positions, it is hard to discern any rewards at the top that are really worth striving for from the bottom. Most of the plums are on the lower branches of the tree.

FACTS ABOUT THE PERSONNEL.

A great mass of information about the executive civil service, much of which it is impossible even to summarize in a magazine article, has recently been collected and published in Census Bulletin No. 12, by the Bureau of the Census. From the data thus compiled, it appears that of the 271,169 officers and employees in the service on June 30, 1903, 25,810 were employed within the District of Columbia, of which number 20,813 were included in the competitive class. The total number in the competitive class outside the District of Columbia at that time was 113,716. It also appears from these statistics that the ratio of men and women employed in Washington is 2.73 to 1, that outside of Washington it is 18.36 to 1, and that in the entire service it is 10.29 to 1. From the tabulation of salaries, excluding those classes of employees receiving less than \$720 a year, and also those receiving more than \$2,500 a year (most of whom are Presidential appointments), the approximate average annual salary of the Washington employee is \$1,212, of those employed outside of Washington, \$1,010, and of the entire service, \$1,053. It is found that the average periods of service of employees were 10.55 years in Washington, 6.38 elsewhere, and 7.10 years in the entire service. In Washington, 5.54 per cent. of the employees have served more than thirty years, while in the entire service the percentage is only 1.97. A comparison of the length of service of employees in the executive service with that of the employees of the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad, and the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad, revealed the fact that the government service contains a larger proportion of employees who have served over ten and less than twenty years; but, of those who served a longer period, the railroad companies can show a larger proportion.

As to the geographical distribution of government employees, the Eastern and central States of the Union are more fully represented than any other sections of the country among those who take examinations and receive appointments in the service. While Mr. Roosevelt was a Civil Service Commissioner, he made strenuous efforts to fill the quotas of the Southern States, which had long been far behind the North and West in this regard. Much of the old prejudice against the administration of the law was overcome by Mr. Roosevelt's efforts, and

it is believed that Southern young men and women are no longer deterred from entering the examinations by any feeling that they will fail to receive fair treatment. Nevertheless, the South is still backward in this respect, and the reason assigned by those who have given the matter special attention is that for the majority of Southern youth the opportunities for securing the kind of training necessary for a successful candidate in the examinations are relatively inferior to those possessed by young people in the North and West. Stenography and typewriting are almost invariably demanded at the present time as qualifications for a Washington clerkship. Throughout the Northern States, the facilities for qualifying in these branches have greatly multiplied within a few years, so that it is now possible for a young man or a young woman, even in the rural districts of Eastern or middle Western States, to secure a fair training in stenography and typewriting. This, however, is still impossible in large regions of the South.

THE MORAL CHARACTER OF APPOINTEES.

A few months ago, the statement was carelessly made in an American magazine, that not five hundred of the Washington office-holders looked upon their offices as sacred trusts to the people. The author of the statement declared that public opinion among the civil-service employees regarded as clear gain anything that could be gotten out of the Government, whether an hour's time or a railroad pass for betraying the Government's interest under the care of the employees. Against such cheap and wholesale charges should be arrayed the undoubted consensus of opinion among those who have frequent business dealings with the departments, as well as among many disinterested observers in Washington who have had opportunities to study the facts that the average government employee is neither more nor less moral than the average man or woman employed in private business in any of our American cities. It will be recalled that in the post-office scandals of the past few years, the officials indicted have in every instance been political appointees; not one of the employees in the classified service has been found guilty of any form of corruption. The Government requires of all applicants for positions in its service just such indorsement of character as would be demanded by the head of any business house. It would be as reasonable to make wholesale charges of dishonesty against 98 per cent. of the employees of the New York Central Railroad Company, as to make such charges against 98 per cent. of Washington officialdom.

THE POST OFFICE: ITS FACTS AND ITS POSSIBILITIES.

BY R. R. BOWKER.

UNCLE SAM meets his folks face to face at the post office. It is the post which brings each citizen, who may have no other relations with his government in mind, into daily touch with the United States. The United States Post Office Department is the largest business system and does the largest single business in the world. In the year ending June 30, 1904, it transmitted through 71,131 post offices approximately 9,500,000,000 pieces of postal matter, an average of 115 to each man, woman, and child in the country, received from all sources \$143,582,624, and paid out \$152,362,116, leaving a deficit of \$8,779,492 to be paid from taxes.

The British Post Office, in the year ending March 31, 1904, transmitted through 22,850 post offices 4,300,000,000 postal pieces, an average of 101 to each person in the United Kingdom, received from postal (exclusive of telegraph) service, not including \$1,300,000 estimated service to other departments of the government, \$77,500,000, and paid out \$55,500,000, leaving a profit of \$22,000,000 in reduction of taxes. The German Post Office, including Wurtemberg and Bavaria, which have separately administered postal systems, transmits yearly through 38,000 post offices approximately 6,200,000,000 postal pieces, an average of 107 per person, receives approximately \$125,000,000, and pays out \$110,000,000, yielding a profit of nearly \$15,000,000. But Uncle Sam must send a letter 2,800 miles as the crow flies, or over 3,000 miles as the letter goes, from corner to corner of his big country, while the greatest distance within the German Empire is under 850 miles, and in Great Britain from Land's End to John o' Groat's House, within 600 miles, or less than the 630 miles from our commercial center, New York, to our center of population, now within a few miles of Columbus, Ind.

EARLY POSTS.

The post, so called from the posts (from *positum*, placed) set along Roman roads to mark points where couriers were to be ready for dispatches, is a modern institution only in its wonderful popular development. Henry VIII. had a master of posts; Charles I. made letter-carrying a

government monopoly at from twopence to sixpence in England, according to distance, eightpence to Scotland, and ninepence to Ireland; and so early as 1680 a "penny post" served London. Queen Anne instituted a general post office at London, and included among the chief offices one in New York and others in America. The colonies had themselves, however, established posts in the seventeenth century, the General Court of Massachusetts having ordained in 1639 that "Richard Fairbanks his house in Boston" should be the place for all letters "brought from beyond the seas or to be sent thither." "provided that no man shall be compelled to bring his letters thither except he please;" and a monthly post was established between New York and Boston in 1672. Virginia required each planter to convey dispatches from his plantation to the next, and in 1692 a Virginian, Thomas Neale, was appointed by letters patent from William and Mary to establish post offices in America, becoming thus the first general postmaster for the colonies. Benjamin Franklin was appointed in 1737 postmaster of Philadelphia, and in 1753 was commissioned jointly with William Hunter as Deputy Postmaster General for the colonies, whereupon he organized a penny post in Philadelphia, visited every post office then established in the colonies except that at Charleston, S. C., and by 1774 was able to report a yearly profit of £3,000 for the royal exchequer. In that year his obnoxious patriotism caused his removal by the king, whereupon the American patriots took care that the king should get neither their letters nor their pence, by using private expresses.

The Continental Congress, the next year, made Mr. Franklin its Postmaster General, and gave him authority to establish posts from Falmouth, Me., to Savannah, Ga. When President Washington, in 1789, appointed Samuel Osgood the first Postmaster General of the United States, there were but 75 post offices all told, which number was increased to 195 in 1792. In that year the rates for letters were fixed at from six cents for 30 miles up to twenty-five cents for 450 miles and over,—rates so high that again private expresses were largely utilized until lower rates were established in 1845, resulting from Rowland Hill's reform in England

ROWLAND HILL'S POSTAL REFORM.

The rates in England had been increased to four pence for 15 miles and up to seventeen pence for 700 miles and over. But in the year of Victoria's accession, that genius of the posts, Rowland Hill, suggested his plan of postal reform, and in 1840 the postage stamp and the "penny post" came into full effect. Weight instead of distance was made the postal standard,

THE POSTAL UNITED STATES OF THE WORLD.

For it is the practical and peaceful post that has realized, in one respect, the dream of a United States of the World. In October, 1874, a postal conference at Berne established an international postal union, including the united states of Europe, our own country, and Egypt, with a central office at Berne, and with provision for a three-yearly conference. In June, 1878, the postal treaty of Paris established a new convention, under the name of the Universal Postal Union, to which almost every country in the world except China has now given its adhesion. All these countries send representatives to the Postal Congress,—a world-parliament, of which the next session will be held in April of this year, at Rome. Under this system an international rate of 5 cents for a letter, the equivalent of 2½ pence in England, 20 pfennige in Germany, 25 centimes in France, Italy, etc., and 2 cents for a postal card, or 1 penny in England, 8 pfennige in Germany, and 10 centimes in France, has been established throughout the world, and, in fact, a penny post, or two-cent rate for domestic letters, and a one-cent or half-penny rate for domestic post-cards, has also been established in most postal countries. A not less remarkable generalization is found in the adoption of green for the one-cent or half-penny stamp, red for the two-cent or penny stamp, and blue for the five-cent or 2½-pence foreign-rate stamp.

AN INTERNATIONAL POSTAGE STAMP.

A truly international postage stamp, which can be bought in any country and used in any other country of the Postal Union, has yet to be adopted, difficulties of international accounting having so far been in the way. It is the usual practice that the country of sending includes in its postal revenues stamps sold for international mails, on the theory that there is a fair balance of trade between countries. It has occurred to the writer that a five-cent stamp and a two-cent stamp which would fulfill international purposes could be made by adding to the ordinary form of postage stamp an ungummed coupon about the size of the mileage coupon used on American railroads. This could be detached from the letter by the post office officials, so that the country sending the letter could col-

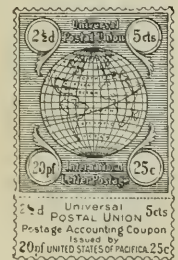


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THE PENNY POSTMAN.

(Original sketch by W. M. Thackeray.)

and the penny postage stamp prepaid a letter, weighing not over half an ounce, anywhere in the United Kingdom. Thackeray sent to his friend Mr. Hill a prophetic caricature of a little cockney postman bowed down under his burden of the penny post,—a sketch which came into the possession of the present writer through the daughter of Sir Rowland Hill and the daughter of Thackeray, and has remained unpublished until now. Thus Rowland Hill, who was afterward knighted in recognition of his great service to the nation, became the founder of the modern postal system, which culminated in the establishment, through the Universal Postal Union, of a uniform postal system throughout the world.



PROPOSED INTERNATIONAL LETTER STAMP.

lect its proper revenue from the country selling the stamp. This would permit a two-cent international stamp to be used for domestic postage within any country by travelers, as well as for mailing a postal card abroad.

UNITED STATES POSTAL FIGURES.

Under the first Postmaster General, the 75 post offices of 1789 served an average of 52,400 persons each. Under his forty successors, there has been an increase of post offices from 1,025 in 1800-01, serving an average of 5,000 persons each, to a maximum of 76,945 in 1900-01, or a post office for less than each thousand of population. The increase in rural free-delivery routes, making unnecessary many fourth-class offices, has reduced the number to 71,131 in 1904. These are connected by 31,513 mail routes, 496,818 miles in length, with annual travel in 1904 of 505,585,526 miles. Of these 421 were electric car routes, covering 4,945 miles. A hundred years ago, the yearly postal receipts were about half a million dollars, out of which as high as \$100,000 profit was returned to the Government. In 1900, the receipts passed the hundred-million point, but showed a deficit exceeding \$5,000,000. The largest deficit, in 1897, exceeded \$11,000,000, but it is estimated that the deficit for 1905 will exceed \$14,000,000.*

When, in 1845, our American Post Office made a half-hearted adoption of Rowland Hill's reform, letter postage became 5 cents per half-ounce under and 10 cents over 300 miles; in 1851, the rate was made 3 cents under and 6 cents over 3,000 miles; in 1863, the rate became 3 cents for all distances, and in 1883, 2 cents; finally, the weight unit at the 2-cent rate was increased to one ounce. The 1-cent postal card came into use in 1872.

CLASSIFICATION OF MAIL MATTER.

Under the present classification, written communications, including all matter of the nature of individual correspondence, even though printed, and all matter closed against inspection, constitute the *first class*, at the rate of 2 cents for each ounce or fraction thereof, up to the limit of four pounds, or 1 cent for postal cards or private mailing cards (officially

* Of the \$152,362,416 total expenditures in 1904, \$67,931,429 was paid for the transportation of domestic and \$2,516,053 for foreign mails, \$43,311,645 to postmasters and assistants, \$20,561,208 for city delivery, and \$12,640,070 for rural free-delivery service. Thus, out of an average cost of 1.6 cents per piece of postal matter, approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ cent was for transportation and $\frac{1}{4}$ cent for local handling and delivery. Of the \$143,582,624 receipts, \$131,943,132 came from the sale of stamps, \$5,697,198 from second-class postage (newspaper pound rate paid in money), \$3,111,573 from box rents, etc., and \$2,528,402 from money-order business.

known as "post-cards"). "Drop-letters" at rural post offices, not involving free delivery, may be posted at 1 cent each. The domestic rates extend to Canada, Mexico, Cuba, possessions of the United States abroad, the "Panama Canal Zone," and the United States Postal Agency at Shanghai, China. Periodicals "entered at the post office as *second-class matter*" can be prepaid by publishers or news-agents in bulk, at the rate of 1 cent per pound. The *third class* includes, at the rate of 1 cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof, or 8 cents per pound, to a limit of four pounds, except in the case of a single book, books, papers, and other printed matter, including "point" for the blind, and proof-sheets and manuscript copy therewith; but periodicals of the second class may be sent individually at 1 cent for four ounces, or 4 cents per pound. Books printed for the blind may be sent between public libraries or public institutions and blind people, free of postage. The *fourth class* includes merchandise at the rate of 1 cent for each ounce or fraction thereof, or 16 cents per pound, to a limit of four pounds, except that seeds, plants, etc., may be sent for 1 cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof. The difficulty and needless cost of discriminating between third and fourth class matter, and the prohibitory rate for the latter, have induced the department to recommend the inclusion of both these in a new third class, at the rate of 1 cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof, or 8 cents per pound, a wise proposal, which is now pending before Congress. Third and fourth class matter must be prepaid by stamps, except that under a recent law 2,000 or more identical pieces may be prepaid in money without stamping.

NEWSPAPER POSTAGE.

With the purpose of encouraging the printing of newspapers for the education of the people, it was early provided that newspapers should be sent free of postage within thirty miles, and later, within the county of publication, except at letter-carrier offices. In 1879, a "bulk rate" of 2 cents per pound was enacted for periodicals "entered at the post office as second-class matter," permitting publishers to prepay periodicals in bulk without affixing individual stamps requiring individual cancellation, a saving both to the publisher and to the post office. This second class was defined by law to cover "newspapers and other periodical publications, regularly issued, at stated intervals, and as frequently as four times per year, bearing a date of issue and numbered consecutively, issued from a known place of publication, without substantial binding, and originated and published for the dissemina-

tion of information of a public character, or devoted to literature, the sciences, arts, or some special industry, and having a legitimate list of subscribers,"—exclusive of "publications designed primarily for advertising purposes, or for free circulation, or for circulation at nominal rates."

Foreign periodicals were included, and later, publications of institutions of learning, etc. In 1886, this bulk rate was reduced, perhaps as a sop to papers of political power, to 1 cent per pound, a rate below average cost, which reduction further stimulated the Post Office Department to hedge about this second-class rate with restrictive regulations. These restrictions were aimed especially against cheap libraries or books issued serially, which the Supreme Court has recently decided may not be classed as periodicals; the "return privilege" accorded to news agents; extravagant numbers of "sample copies;" periodicals from institutions of learning which are really private affairs; and advertising sheets with circulations forced by nominal rates or premiums, such as are published in great numbers at Augusta, Me. The aggregate amount of periodicals mailed free or at pound rates in 1904 was 610,149,073 pounds, or over 305,000 tons.

Unfortunately, in the endeavor to prevent abuses, "such regulations as the Postmaster General may direct" have developed and degenerated into an elaborate and perplexing system of restrictions, now so complex and detailed as to occupy 24 pages of the Postal Rules and Regulations of 1902, arbitrarily applied and resulting in a petty interference with the periodical press comparable only with Russian censorship. This bureaucratic spirit has come to such a pass that well-known periodicals have been "held up" in the post-office for days because a page of illustration or advertisement was slightly shorter or narrower than other pages, and the legitimate business of the country has been subject to incessant annoyances. When President Roosevelt's attention was called to these absurdities, with an apology that such trivialities should be brought before the President of the United States, he expressed with characteristic vigor his regret "that such trivialities should exist to be brought before the President." But even the hands of a President may be tied by red tape, and the appeal found lodgment, as usual, in the pigeonholes of the very official appealed from, the statutory provision that "the Postmaster General shall have the determination of appeals from the action of the several Assistant Postmasters General" being practically a dead letter. The Third Assistant Postmaster General, though pursuing this policy of restriction, says, sensibly,

in his recent report that "it would undoubtedly facilitate the work of the department and subserve the interests of the publishing business if the conditions of admissibility were made to depend upon considerations of a more material and less ideal character, and class and class distinguished only by physical tests."

RATE COMPLEXITIES.

The law itself provides a sevenfold confusion of rates for periodical publications of the second class: first, free to actual subscribers within the county of publication, except through letter-carrier offices; second, at 1 cent a pound to all offices, letter-carrier or otherwise, except the office of publication if that be a letter-carrier office; third, the same rate for weekly publications even at the letter-carrier office of publication; fourth, at 1 cent per copy for "news papers," except weeklies, for delivery by the letter-carrier office of publication; fifth, at 1 cent per copy for other periodicals within two ounces in weight for delivery by the letter-carrier office of publication; sixth, at 2 cents a copy for the same exceeding two ounces in weight,—all these six rates applying to publisher or news agent only; a seventh rate of 1 cent for each four ounces or fraction thereof being payable under all these circumstances by the public for "second-class" periodicals, though for other printed matter the rate is 8 cents per pound.

The contradictory result is that weeklies printed in New York will be delivered in New York, San Francisco, or elsewhere for a cent a pound; that any other periodical published in New York will be delivered in San Francisco or anywhere except New York for 1 cent a pound, but in New York, if a "newspaper," must pay 1 cent for a copy of any weight, or if not a weekly or a "newspaper," 1 cent a copy under two ounces, or 2 cents a copy thereover. These complexities, which probably are not paralleled in any postal system in the world, are the direct result of haphazard and piecemeal legislation. "This multiform classification rate," says the Third Assistant Postmaster General, "is a relic of the days when the postal business was in a more or less primitive state. In this day of business methods, in government service the lack of business simplicity and uniformity is keenly felt." As free county circulation is now of diminishing importance, a simple uniform system might include all regular periodicals formally registered in the second class at the rate of 1 cent per pound to all regular subscribers, and 2 cents per pound for all other copies; or at the rate of 1 cent per pound except for delivery by carrier, which should be at 2 cents per pound.

THE PARCELS POST.

A "parcels post" has been a chief lack of our postal system. In Great Britain, a parcel up to three feet in length may be sent for threepence, or 6 cents, for one pound or less, and a penny, or 2 cents, for each additional pound, making thirteen pence, or 26 cents, for the maximum weight of 11 pounds. The presence in the Senate of the United States, as Senators from New York, of the chairman of its greatest railroad corporation and the president of an express company, is cited by critics as indicating a reason why the Post Office Department is not authorized by the law to obtain better rates from railroads and to compete with express companies in sending parcels.

Since 1878 there has been no reduction in the rate provided by law for railroad transportation of mails, which figures out, per ton-mile, \$1.17 on a minimum of 200 pounds per day, 18.7 cents on a daily average of 5,000 pounds, and 5.8 cents on each additional 2,000 pounds average; though an express company will carry for other patrons a hundred pounds a thousand miles for \$3.50, being 7 cents per ton-mile (involving scarcely half that payment for railroad transportation), and the railroads themselves carry a hundred pounds of freight a thousand miles for from \$1 down to 35 cents, being from 2 cents down to .7 cent per ton-mile. A passenger is individually ticketed and 100 pounds of baggage individually checked at the mileage rate of 2 cents per mile, equivalent to 16 cents per ton-mile, while commuters are carried as low as $\frac{1}{2}$ cent a mile, or 4 cents per ton-mile. These figures suggest the need of a revision of contracts, which would largely offset the postal deficit and fully justify and make possible a proper parcels post.

There is now pending in Congress a bill promoted by the Postal Progress League, establishing a parcels post at the rate of 1 cent for each three ounces, 5 cents for a single pound, and 2 cents for each additional pound, making a maximum of 25 cents for an 11-pound parcel. The British parcels post insures a parcel up to \$10 without charge, and for a registration fee of 4 cents up to \$25, with 2 cents additional fee for each \$50 up to \$600; and in some countries packages may be mailed C. O. D. for an additional fee, the valuation being collected and returned through the post office.

The proposed consolidation of third and fourth class matter into a new third class at 1 cent for two ounces, or 8 cents per pound, would furnish a domestic parcels post to the limit of four pounds, and the objection that the cost of the possible 3,000 miles of land transportation in this country would involve loss on heavier par-

cels might be obviated by the adoption of a zone system corresponding to the standard time zones, under which a single rate might prepay within a single zone or between two adjacent zones; a once-and-a-half rate to a third zone, and a double rate to a fourth zone; so that a parcel might be sent from New York to Chicago for 8 cents, to Denver for 12 cents, and to San Francisco for 16 cents, a pound.

We have for some time had parcels-post arrangements with Mexico, the West Indies, and certain Central and South American states, and with Newfoundland, New Zealand, and Hongkong at a price of 12 cents per pound (to Chile and Bolivia, 20 cents). A parcels post with Germany has been experimentally established, and the arrangement with the American Express Company, to which the British Government was driven by the attitude of the United States, will presently be replaced by parcels-post arrangements with Great Britain and France. To all the countries of the Postal Union, an American may send commercial papers for 5 cents for the first ten ounces and 1 cent for each additional two ounces, being 8 cents per pound, and samples of merchandise at 2 cents for the first four ounces and 1 cent for each additional two ounces, being also 8 cents per pound.

FREE-DELIVERY SERVICE.

The city free-delivery system, established in 1863, is now extended to 1,100 letter-carrier post offices, and the special-delivery system, established in 1885, by which the special-delivery 10-cent stamp insures immediate delivery by messenger, is now in use at all post offices. But the great boon to the country has been the rural free-delivery service (described and illustrated in this magazine for January, 1903), which, with the electric trolley, the telephone, the telegraph, and the traveling library, has done so much to relieve the isolation of that third of our population connected with agricultural pursuits, and to bring to them the comforts and conveniences of city life. This service, which began experimentally in 1897 with 44 routes and an appropriation of \$40,000, has increased until in 1904 there were 24,566 routes, in every State of the Union, delivering over 900,000,000 pieces of mail matter, at a cost of \$12,640,070, or about $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents each. This cost is more than the receipts from such matter, and in itself exceeds the postal deficit, but its value to the community is such as to render it one of the best investments that the post office can make, if any service whatever is to be conducted below cost.

The proposal of last year to prohibit rural carriers from carrying merchandise has been wisely

replaced this year by a recommendation for a low postage rate on packages not exceeding five pounds in weight mailed from a local post office for delivery on a rural-delivery route from the same office, to be paid by a special stamp at three cents per pound or fraction thereof. An even rate of one cent for four ounces might be more in line with other postal rates and of greater convenience to the people. The new plan will be of further benefit to the rural community, and though for some years there will be an increase of expense over return, the growth of rural population and this new source of revenue may be



DELIVERY AND COLLECTION BOXES AT CROSS-ROADS.

expected to make the rural free-delivery system almost if not quite self-sustaining, and its full development may prove a chief credit of the present administration. An additional convenience has been suggested, by the use of a special telephone stamp which would authorize a rural postmaster to telephone a message to any telephone subscriber.

The registry service (first authorized by Congress in 1855), for a fee of 8 cents in addition to regular postage, prepaid with ordi-

nary stamps, insures the registration of a letter at each point of its journey, a receipt to the sender and one from the addressee, and insurance up to \$25 value. Post office money orders, first in use in 1865, can now be obtained at the 35,094 money-order offices for payment at any specified money-order office, for from 3 cents within \$2.50 to 30 cents for \$100, these rates covering also Hawaii, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands, Canada, Newfoundland, Cuba, and the United States Postal Agency at Shanghai, China.

PRICE, 2 CENTS FOR PINK BLANK (\$2 LIMIT) ; 5 CENTS FOR BLUE BLANK (\$5 LIMIT).
GOOD AT ANY MONEY POST-OFFICE TO ANY PERSON IF NAMES ARE NOT WRITTEN IN.

PLACE HERE
1-CENT STAMP
IF RECEIPT IS
ALSO DESIRED.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.
POSTAL CHECK.

PLACE HERE
1-CENT STAMP
FOR
MAILING.

ON PRESENTATION OF THIS CHECK WITH STAMPS TO
STATED AMOUNT AFFIXED ON OTHER SIDE,

Postmaster at *New York* will pay \$..... *25 cts.*
To *The Review of Reviews Co.*
Sent by *John Smith* *13 Astor Place*
Of *New Corners* *New York*
Texas

In 1904, there were issued 50,392,554 domestic money orders, to the amount of \$378,511,407, paying the Government \$2,089,250 profit.

A PROPOSED POSTAL CHECK.

A system of postal checks, good at any office, is much needed, and might be accomplished in the simplest way by the sale of blanks of postal-card size, as a red blank costing 2 cents up to a \$2 limit, and a blue blank costing 5 cents up to a \$5 limit; the back of it ruled for the affixing of ordinary stamps to make any desired amount within these limits and to give space for the post-office marks of issue and of cancellation; the obverse providing for payment to a specified person at a specified post office, or at any post office, by writing in or omitting the specific names. These checks might be sent by post for a 1-cent stamp affixed, and a receipt from the addressee returned by the postmaster for an additional 1-cent stamp affixed. Such blanks, as well as ordinary stamps, might be sold by carriers on rural-delivery routes, if not on city routes, and the system would be of large convenience to the people as well as a source of increased revenue to the Government.

FOREIGN POSTAL FEATURES.

Foreign postal systems have gone much further than our own in some respects. Great Britain, as well as several other countries, makes a postal monopoly of its telegraph, at the rate of a halfpenny, or 1 cent per word, address counted, with a minimum rate of sixpence, or 12 cents, for each telegram. But the 90,000,000 telegrams sent in 1904 involved an operating

loss of over £300,000, or \$1,500,000. Great Britain has also recently taken over the telephone service as part of the postal system, but, as in Sweden and other countries, the competitive private systems seem to give more satisfactory results. Postal savings-banks exist throughout Great Britain as well as in other countries, that country having at last report 14,362 post-office savings-bank offices, with 9,403,852 accounts, aggregating £146,000,000, or over \$700,000,000, an average of \$75 each, on which \$17,000,000 interest was paid during the year. A system of postal annuities and life insurance is connected with the British post-office savings-banks, but the use of this system at last report was confined to about 2,500 persons in a year, and its chief value seems to have been in keeping down the rates of friendly societies and regular life insurance companies.

Among other foreign features are the "blow-post," or pneumatic-tube service for quick delivery, as in Berlin and Paris,—a system less desirable here in these days of the telephone and our special-delivery service. Our own Post Office Department, however, uses pneumatic tubes for the transmission of mail matter between main and branch offices in the cities of New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, and St. Louis. In France, Italy, and elsewhere, local deliveries are expedited by the use of automobiles. Switzerland has a library post, by which packages can be sent from or to a public library at about three cents for four pounds; and in Italy, the Scandinavian countries, and elsewhere, books may be sent between the officially recognized libraries, for the use of students, free of postage. A bill for a library post at one cent per pound, promoted by the American Library Association, is now before Congress. Belgium has a curious stamp, with a detachable coupon reading, "Not to be delivered on Sunday," which is left on the letter when Sunday delivery is not required, but otherwise detached.

DEPARTMENT ORGANIZATION.

The Post Office Department, though it does a wonderful business in the interest of the people, is handicapped by a traditional and bureaucratic internal administration. The Postmaster General, who has been a cabinet officer since 1829, and has a salary of \$8,000 only, is mostly occupied in affixing to unread documents the perfunctory personal signature required by law, and in listening to political applicants, though civil service reform has much mitigated the political misuse of the Post Office. His immediate staff includes First, Second, Third, and Fourth As-



AUTOMOBILE USED IN FRANCE FOR MAIL COLLECTING.

sistant Postmasters General, the ranking Assistant on duty becoming Acting Postmaster General in the absence of the chief. Among these, the several functions of the department are divided, mostly without method, illogically and inconveniently, and a bureaucracy has grown up, without a real administrative head, which fact has been an obstacle in the way of postal progress. The House Committee on Postal Affairs holds the purse-strings, and its chairman becomes, in fact, an outside executive of the department, while the many associations of post-office employees, of which the United National Association of Post Office Clerks of the United States is a leading organization, though of excellent purpose, have devoted themselves to "influencing" Congressmen and punishing those who prove refractory.*

The Post Office Department needs, at the hands of Congress, an organization which shall bring its administration up to the standard of private corporations, with a well-paid executive of the highest ability as the right-hand of the cabinet officer; with competent superintendents of transportation; urban offices and delivery; rural offices and delivery; special delivery and registry; money orders; supplies, equipment and repairs; correspondence and records; dead letters; inspection; accounting and legal relations; making together an administrative council for the executive, as in the French post-office system.

Meantime, the spirit of bureaucracy, especially exemplified in the petty treatment of periodical publishers, under restrictions not required by law, should be replaced by common-sense business policy. The department also needs from Congress legal authorization to require from the railroads transportation rates not greater than those made to express companies, and it might not be unwise to remove the drastic restrictions in the law which forbid the use of private service for transmitting correspondence. The American public, in its righteous indignation at the uneven and often excessive rates of the telephone, telegraph, express, and railroad services, often forgets how wonderfully and effectively organized are these corporate administrations; and a comparison between these and governmental postal administration would be wholesome to both.

* Under the control and pay of the department are postmasters at 71,131 offices, 1,654 assistant postmasters, 23,410 clerks in first and second class offices, 11,621 clerks in the railway mail service, 20,761 city letter-carriers, and rural carriers on 24,566 routes; in all, over 155,000 employees, without counting others partially or indirectly employed.

A REFORMED SYSTEM OF RATES.

To represent the interests of the public, the Postal Progress League and other organizations have been formed. In 1878, the Post Office Department took the wise course of calling a conference of publishers and other large users of the mails for consultation with the officers of the department in devising what became the Act of 1879. The time has come when there should be a revision of postal arrangements with the public, not in the shape of piecemeal legislation, but in a well-considered and unified plan of reform which should command the respect of Congress and the people. The country needs a simple system of rates, a parcels post, a postal check, and the better arrangements with foreign post offices which they are eager to make. A useful pamphlet of "General Postal Information for the Public," recently issued by the Third Assistant Postmaster General, and to be had free at the post offices, illustrates too well the present complexity. Perhaps the simplest system of postal rates, of most convenience to the Government and the people, would be somewhat as follows: For letters, 2 cents per ounce, drop-letters 1 cent; for postal cards, 1 cent; for periodicals from the office of publication and books from public libraries, in bulk, 1 cent per pound without local free delivery, and 2 cents per pound with local free delivery; for periodicals and books otherwise mailed, 1 cent for four ounces, 4 cents per pound, and 1 cent for each added half pound; for all else, a simple parcels-post system, including local free delivery, at 1 cent for two ounces, 8 cents per pound, and 1 cent for each added half pound, with half-rate for rural free delivery from the local office and extra rates on the zone system for extreme distances on packages above four pounds; the abolition of the "county free" system and the restriction of the franking privilege to distinctly official correspondence; and a foreign post, uniform to all countries of the Postal Union, in accordance with the general practice, comprehensive of the best features of the postal service of other countries. Such a scheme, reforming rather than revolutionizing present methods, classification, and rates, would greatly reduce the cost of the department, possibly increase its revenue to the self-supporting point, and permit in the future successive reductions of rates. The possibilities of the Post Office as an agent for the people's good are indeed great, and the present is a favorable time for giving to our own country a postal system which shall in no respect be behind those of less-favored nations.

THE GREAT RELIGIOUS REVIVAL IN WALES.

BY WILLIAM T. STEAD.

THE revival in Wales began in Cardigan-shire. For a long time past the Welsh Christians had been moved to pray specially for the quickening of religious life in their midst. The impulse appears to have been sporadic and spontaneous. In remote country hamlets, in mining villages buried in distant valleys, one man or one woman would have it laid upon his or her soul to pray that the Holy Spirit might be poured out upon the cause in which they were spiritually concerned. There does not seem to have been any organized effort anywhere. It was all individual, local, and strictly limited to the neighborhood. The story of the very first outbreak of the revival traces it to the trembling utterance of a poor Welsh girl, who, at a meeting in a Cardigan village, was the first to rise and testify. "If no one else will, then I must say that I love the Lord Jesus Christ with all my heart." The pathos and the passion of the avowal acted like an electric shock upon the congregation. One after another rose and made the full surrender, and the news spread like wildfire from place to place that the revival had broken out, and that souls were being ingathered to the Lord. But the revival was soon to find its focus in a young theological student of the name of Evan Roberts, who has abandoned his course at Newcastle Emelyn to carry on the work of the revival throughout Wales.

I went down to South Wales in the middle of December to see for myself what was going on. I was profoundly impressed.

"The British Empire," as Admiral Fisher is never tired of repeating, "floats upon the British navy." But the British navy steams on Welsh

coal. The driving force of all our battleships is hewn from the mines of these Welsh valleys, by the men among whom this remarkable religious awakening has taken place. On Sunday morning, as the slow train crawled down the gloomy valleys—for there was the mirk of coming snow

in the air, and there was no sun in the sky—I could not avoid the obvious and insistent suggestion of the thought that Welsh religious enthusiasm may be destined to impart as compelling an impulse to the churches of the world as Welsh coal supplies to its navies. Nor was the force of the suggestion weakened when, after attending three prolonged services at Mardy, a village of five thousand inhabitants, lying on the other side of Pontypridd, I found the flame of Welsh religious enthusiasm as smokeless as its coal. There are no advertisements, no brass bands, no posters, no huge tents. All the parapher-



EVAN ROBERTS.

(The leader in the great Welsh revival.)

alia of the "got-up job" are conspicuous by their absence. Nor is there any organization, nor a director,—at least none that is visible to human eye. In the crowded chapels they even dispense with instrumental music. On Sunday night no note issued from the organ pipes. There was no need of instruments, for in and around and above and beneath surged the all-pervading thrill and throb of a multitude praying, and singing as they prayed.

The vast congregations were as soberly sane, as orderly, and at least as reverent as any congregation I ever saw beneath the dome of St. Paul's. But it was aflame with a passionate religious enthusiasm, the like of which I have never seen in St. Paul's. Tier above tier from the crowded aisles to the loftiest gallery sat or

stood, as necessity dictated, eager hundreds of serious men and thoughtful women, their eyes riveted upon the platform or upon whatever other part of the building was the storm center of the meeting.

There was absolutely nothing wild, violent, hysterical, unless it be hysterical for the laboring breast to heave with sobbing that cannot be repressed, and the throat to choke with emotion as a sense of the awful horror and shame of a wasted life suddenly bursts upon the soul. On all sides there was the solemn gladness of men and women upon whose eyes has dawned the splendor of a new day, the foretaste of whose glories they are enjoying in the quickened sense of human fellowship and a keen glad zest added to their own lives.

Employers tell me that the quality of the work the miners are putting in has improved. Waste is less, men go to their daily toil with a new spirit of gladness in their labor. In the long dim galleries of the mine, where once the hauliers swore at their ponies in Welshified English terms of blasphemy, there is now but to be heard the haunting melody of the revival music. The pit ponies, like the American mules, having been driven by oaths and curses since they first bore the yoke, are being retrained to do their work without the incentive of profanity. There is less drinking, less idleness, less gambling. Men record with almost incredulous amazement, how one football player after another has forsworn cards and drink and the gladiatorial games, and is living a sober and godly life, putting his energy into the revival. More wonderful still, and almost incredible to those who know how journalism lives and thrives upon gambling, and how Toryism is broad-based upon the drinking habits of the people, the Tory daily paper of South Wales has devoted its columns day after day to reporting and defending the movement which declares war to the death against both gambling and drink.

How came this strange uplift of the earnestness of a whole community? Who can say? The wind bloweth where it listeth. Some tell you one thing, some another. All agree that it began some few months ago in Cardiganshire, eddied hither and thither, spreading like fire from valley to valley, until, as one observer said to me, "wherever it came from, or however it began, all South Wales to-day is in a flame."

However it began. So it is going on. "If no one else, then I must." It is "Here am I, send me!" This public self-consecration, this definite and decisive avowal of a determination to put under their feet their dead past of vice and sin and indifference, and to reach out to-

ward a higher ideal of human existence, is going on everywhere in South Wales. Nor, if we think of it sanely and look at it in the right perspective, is there a nobler spectacle, appealing more directly to the highest instincts of our nature, to be seen in all the world to-day.

At Mardy, where I spent Sunday, the miners are voluntarily taxing themselves this year three half-pence in the pound of their weekly wages to build an institute, public hall, library, and reading-room. By their express request, the money is deducted from their wages on pay-day. They have created a library of two thousand books, capitably selected and well used. They have about half-a-dozen chapels and churches, a coöperative society, and the usual appliances of civilization. They have every outward and visible sign of industrial prosperity. It is a mining village pure and simple, industrial democracy in its nakedest primitive form.

In this village I attended three meetings on Sunday—two and a half hours in the morning, two and a half hours in the afternoon, and two hours at night, when I had to leave to catch the train. At all these meetings the same kind of thing went on, the same kind of congregations assembled, the same strained, intense emotion was manifest. Aisles were crowded. Pulpit stairs were packed, and—*mirabile dictu!*—two-thirds of the congregation were men, and at least one-half young men. "There," said one, "is the hope and glory of the movement." Here and there is a gray head. But the majority of the congregation were stalwart young miners, who gave the meeting all the fervor and swing and enthusiasm of youth. The revival had been going on in Mardy for a fortnight. All the churches had been holding services every night, with great results. At the Baptist church they had to report the addition of nearly fifty members, fifty were waiting for baptism, thirty-five backsliders had been reclaimed.

The prayers are largely autobiographical, and some of them intensely dramatic. On one occasion an impassioned and moving appeal to the Deity was accompanied throughout by an exquisitely rendered hymn, sung by three of the singing sisters. It was like the undertone of the orchestra when some leading singer is holding the house. They call it the Spirit of God. Those who have not witnessed it may call it what they will; I am inclined to agree with those on the spot. For man being, according to the orthodox, evil, can do no good thing of himself, so, as Cardinal Manning used to say, "Whenever you behold a good thing, there you see the working of the Holy Ghost." And the revival, as I saw it, was emphatically a good thing.

SOME RECENT TYPES OF LIFEBOATS.

BY ALFRED GRADENWITZ.

[The following account of a few of the recently invented lifeboat types is not intended to be exhaustive. Representative life-saving devices on the Continent of Europe only are considered by Dr. Gradenwitz. Mention should also be made in this connection, however, of the gasoline motor tests recently made by the Royal National Lifeboat Institution of England. In tests under all conditions of weather and weighting, near the Isle of Wight, an old type of lifeboat, newly equipped with a two-cylinder ten horse-power gasoline motor, gave complete satisfaction. This boat is now being submitted to further tests at Newhaven, in the Channel life-saving service.—EDITOR.]

SOME very interesting types of lifeboats have recently been tested in Europe. One of the cleverest is the invention of a Norwegian. It is really a life-buoy, designed by Capt. J. Dönvig, and is especially planned to permit the shipwrecked who have left the ship to steer for some days on the open sea toward a given goal, or else to sustain themselves until help arrives. This life-buoy is a hollow sphere, from which one segment, the surface of which forms the bottom, has been cut out. The sphere consists of steel plates and has a double bottom; it is fitted with an anchor, reindeer cushions for sixteen men, sails, and all the necessary accesso-



THE ENGELHARDT 21-FOOT BOAT, COLLAPSED, BEING LOWERED INTO THE WATER.



THE DÖNVIG LIFE-BUOY.

ries, as well as sufficient accommodation for a number of passengers and food. Between the two bottoms may be stored about 560 liters of drinking water. An air-pipe traversing the top is fitted with a valve for rapid opening and closing. A manhole cover has been arranged in the top.

Experiments made by the Norwegian Department of Trade, Navigation, and Industry with this buoy gave satisfaction. The buoy, it is true, seems to be more suitable for use on board large freight steamers, as the skill necessary for its handling makes it more fit for use by experienced seamen than by passengers.

The lifeboat invented by Captain Engelhardt, of Copenhagen, Denmark, has been especially designed so as to take up the least possible space. It is unsinkable with its full complement of passengers on board, even if seriously damaged. The boat is readily transported to any part of the ship and can be launched without davits. The boat is collapsible, and two men, or even boys, can in a few seconds extend the sides by simply lifting in the cross beams, and thus convert the boat-shaped rafts into a lifeboat containing oars, bread, water-tank, etc. The boat

consists of a strongly constructed pontoon of wood or iron filled with water-tight cushions of kapok, which again are placed in water-tight compartments. Kapok is the product of plants growing in Java and Sumatra, which, in addition to a minimum weight, possesses the greatest floating capacity, so as to sustain from thirty to thirty-five times its own weight in water. On this boat-shaped pontoon is placed a superstructure which can be folded down or erected, the whole being surrounded by a fender, which is also filled with kapok and water-tight cushions. If the collapsed boat be extended, the oars are released, an oval thwart fitted with cross-thwarts slides into position, and other parts drop into their places automatically.

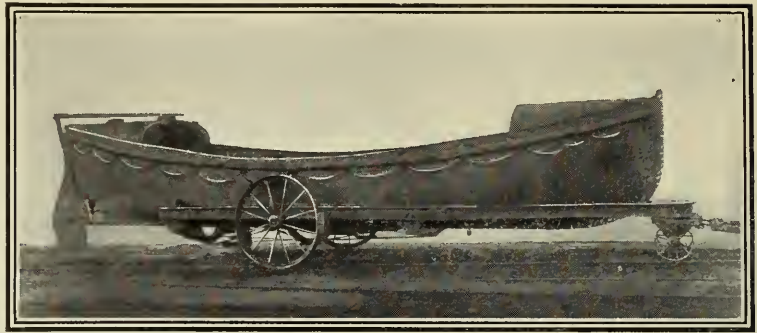
Many exhaustive tests of the boat have been made by English and American authorities, and its stability has been tried from the United States ship *Illinois* in the open sea during a recent eight months' cruise in the Mediterranean, while in the Boston Navy Yard it was dropped into the sea from a height of 28 feet without



THE ENGELHARDT BOAT EXPANDED, WITH TWENTY-TWO MEN ON BOARD, TESTING ITS STABILITY.

being in any way injured and without the mechanism being disabled.

Another very interesting lifeboat has been invented by Mr. Albert Henry, of the Rochefort (France) Arsenal. In this boat, a movable keel is made use of in conjunction with a set of water-tight compartments, and it may be operated by a gasoline motor. The most important features



THE HENRY LIFEBOAT AS TRANSPORTED ON SHORE.

of the craft are its remarkable steadiness and insubmersibility, both qualities having been proved in a series of very severe tests.

Whereas in the old type of lifeboat an iron keel 650 pounds in weight was fixed to the bottom about 20 inches below the water line, this has been replaced in the Henry boat by a system of sheet-iron pieces projecting from the bottom, and to the lower part of which an iron piece of the same weight is attached. As the leverage of the latter is about 3 feet, it is much more efficient in keeping the boat steady by lowering its center of gravity. The device is made movable up and down, and enters a chamber in the bottom automatically whenever an obstacle is struck by the keel or if the boat comes ashore; it may, as well, be drawn up by hand, by the aid of a winch. The insubmersibility of the boat is obtained by means of water-tight chambers, with light oblique walls, where food, spare pieces, etc., may be stored. These compartments are filled up with kapok bags, which can be readily removed. The boat is equipped with sails and oars in addition to the gasoline motor, which is principally intended to facilitate the entering and the leaving of a port.

Though the stability of the boat seems to be quite sufficient to keep it upright in all seas, there have been provided means to redress it should the hardly possible event occur of its capsizing. To this effect, two large air-cases are fitted to the end, which, in case of the boat lying keel upright, would produce sufficient instability to cause it to assume its normal position.

A series of interesting tests of this boat has recently been carried out in the harbor of La Rochelle, in the presence of more than 10,000 persons, among whom were delegates of various life-saving societies. The boat was put to sea on a special carriage dropped into the water from a height of 18 feet, and its steadiness and insubmersibility were fully tested.

POLITICAL MOVEMENTS IN THE NORTHWEST.

BY CHARLES BALDWIN CHENEY.

THE phenomena of recent elections and events in the Northwest are beginning to attract attention. As the situation is canvassed, State by State, in the light of the last election returns, it becomes apparent that a new force has arisen in politics. Public sentiment, usually latent and hard to ascertain, has become dynamic. It has found outlets for expression, and time-honored political methods are rendered useless in the face of this new-found power. It is all the more to be feared because it lacks organization and its decisions cannot be foretold. They are made manifest when the ballots are counted.

There were some surprising election results in the Northwest last November. La Follette's overwhelming victory in Wisconsin over a coalition of Democrats and "Stalwart" Republicans was not foreseen. Equally astonishing was the election of a Democratic governor in Minnesota, which was carried for Roosevelt by four to one. Yet these were only some spectacular features of a movement that has been stirring for years in the Northwestern States.

The characteristic feature of this movement is a breaking away from party ties and old prejudices. Political machines are losing their potency. The individual voter is asserting his right to think and to decide for himself. He is taking an intelligent hand in making party nominations, and at the same time losing his respect for the party fetich.

The tendency toward independent thought and action is manifested in more than one way. It has developed, for instance, into a general agitation for the direct primary, which has spread like a wave over the entire section. Minnesota and Wisconsin now have effective primary-election laws, general in their scope. The Illinois Legislature is wrestling with a measure to be applied to all sections but the city of Chicago. The progressive element among Iowa Republicans has taken the direct primary for one of its tenets, and the next legislative session in the Hawkeye State will see a struggle over the principle. South Dakota is in the throes of such a controversy. The new governor, a "machine" nominee, took strong ground in his message against a primary law. The legislature may side with him, but in so doing would violate the constitution. Under the initiative and referendum plan, the people of the State have brought the subject

up, and the legislature is bound to submit a primary law to a referendum vote. It is quite likely that such an act will be placed before the people at the next election.

North Dakota has taken up the question seriously. At this writing an organization has been formed among the lawmakers at Bismarck for the purpose of passing a primary law, and as the club includes a majority of the members, another State seems certain to adopt the reform. Montana's legislature, which is also in session, will vote on a primary-election law and an initiative and referendum amendment to the constitution.

WORKINGS OF THE PRIMARY SYSTEM.

The Minnesota law has been tested at two elections. While it is subject to changes, the principle seems permanently established in the North Star State. It is significant that the most important amendment proposed at the present legislative session is one extending the direct primary to the nomination of State officers.

The law now applies to Congressional, judicial, legislative, county, and city officers. The primary is held at the regular polling-place on the first registration day, seven weeks before election, and candidates get places on the ballot by their own affidavit, accompanied by a fee of \$10 or \$20, according to the territory covered. A separate ballot is printed for each party, containing all the candidates that have filed. The regular election officials have charge. The voters are required to declare their party affiliation, and then they receive the ballot of the party named.

In practice this plan does not prevent Democrats from taking part in the Republican primaries, and the reverse. In most of the Minnesota counties there is no effective minority. Only one ticket, the Republican, is placed in the field. If Democrats are to have any voice in naming county officers, they must get into the Republican primaries, and they are encouraged to take part by the candidates who benefit by their votes. This practice is not peculiar to the direct primary, however. It was habitual under the old caucus and convention system.

Opponents of the primary law, before it was tried, said that it would never secure a full expression. The voters have answered that objection.

tion. A local contest of any character will bring out a fuller vote than was formerly cast in caucuses to elect delegates. Contests usually occur, and they are decisive. The defeated candidate is barred from running as an independent, and the popular vote is regarded as a final appeal.

The usual primary vote is at least two-thirds of the vote cast at the general election, and often runs very close to the November vote. In the off-year election of 1902, the primary brought out a larger vote than the general election in a number of Minnesota counties. As the primary had settled all local matters, and there was no Presidential campaign, the vote in November was light.

THE PRIMARIES POPULAR.

There were some hotly waged contests for Congress in that year, when the primary law was tried for the first time in the State at large. In the first Minnesota District, Congressman Tawney and his opponent polled 20,467 Republican votes at the primary, and at the general election Tawney's vote was 19,551. In the Seventh District, a three-cornered contest brought out 19,576 Republican votes at the primary, and the nominee, A. J. Volstead, received 20,826 votes in November.

Hennepin County, which includes Minneapolis, made its third trial of the primary system last September. The combined Republican and Democratic vote for Congress in the county was 35,995. At the general election the two nominees received 37,846, and the total vote cast was 42,883. The primary election, therefore, brought out 97 per cent. of the combined Republican and Democratic vote, and 84 per cent. of the total vote cast seven weeks later for President.

In the city of Minneapolis, last September, the primary-election vote for mayor amounted to 34,112. The Republican and Democratic candidates at the general election received 36,634 votes. At the primary election there was an expression from 39 per cent. of all the old party voters,—certainly a fair showing of the popular will.

In the rural counties last year, the primary-election vote was not uniformly heavy, because some of the counties did not have local contests to bring out the voters. The Sixth Congressional District is a good illustration. Two Republican candidates at the primaries, in September, received 16,416 votes. This was 92 per cent. of the vote cast at the general election two years before, and 67 per cent. of the vote cast in November, 1904, for Roosevelt. There was no contest for the Democratic nomination, and the one Democratic candidate received but 3,626

votes at the primary. This was 45 per cent. of the vote cast for Parker seven weeks later.

The Minnesota law is in a formative period still. Details are to be worked out, and objectionable features to be corrected. There is agitation now for a return to the convention system in nominating district judges, who have been dragged into politics by rivalry at the primaries. There is also a sentiment against the use of the primary over a large area, as a State or a Congressional district, unless its form is modified. Campaigning over such a constituency is expensive, and advertising is the chief feature. Where the voters cannot know the candidates personally, they vote for the one who is best advertised. This works, of course, in favor of the incumbents, and so far it has been impossible to dislodge a single Congressman by a contest at the primaries. The system also results in minority nominations. To obviate all this, it is proposed to hold delegate conventions, but to select the delegates at the regular primary. This would do away with the evil of packed caucuses and fraudulent contests. The direct primary in its pure form is only ideal where it is possible for all the voters to have a personal knowledge of the candidates.

THE NEW WISCONSIN LAW.

Wisconsin has been fighting over the primary principle for six years, and the law just adopted is more radical than Minnesota's. It applies to State officers, and excludes only judges of the Supreme and District courts and the elective office of the State superintendent of public instruction.

The machinery of Wisconsin law differs from Minnesota's in two important features, both of which were in the original Minneapolis law of 1899, but were rejected when the State law was framed in 1901. In Wisconsin, candidates will secure places on the ballot by petition. To be a candidate for a State office one must file a petition signed by 1 per cent. of the voters in at least six counties. Two per cent. is required in a Congressional district, and 3 per cent. in a county or smaller division. The Wisconsin law also allows an absolutely free choice between party ballots. The voter is given one ballot of each party. He marks any one he chooses and folds it separately, the marked ballot going into one box and the unmarked into another. Not even the judges can tell whether the voter has marked the Republican or the Democratic ballot. The theory of this provision is that independent voters ought not to be required to state a party affiliation.

Wisconsin has not made a test of the new law,

but the popular vote which adopted it last November was proof that the voters want to give it a trial. The bitter State-convention fight of last May, when seven counties sent double delegations to Madison, and two Republican tickets were put in the field, prepared Wisconsin people for the direct primary. Its passage was a personal victory for Governor La Follette. The reform governor has made it a cardinal doctrine of his faith ever since he opened his fight on the old machine. He forced three State conventions to pledge the adoption of a primary law, but twice the State Senate, dominated by his enemies, blocked the bill. The third time it was only passed with the referendum clause, by which the "Stalwart" members passed the responsibility for the measure up to the people. They have accepted it.

HOW THE PARTY IS ORGANIZED.

Minnesota has had State nominating conventions along with the primary law, but Wisconsin will not need conventions at all, except to select delegates to the national conventions every four years. Party organization is maintained by a pyramid plan, each voting district selecting its committee at the primary. The chairmen of these precinct committees constitute the city and county committees. The State committees are selected at a meeting of all State and legislative nominees three weeks after the primary. At this meeting, six weeks before the general election, a State platform is also adopted. This plan is entirely an experiment. The pyramid plan of selecting party committees has been effective in Minneapolis, however, ever since the primary law was adopted.

Primary-law agitation, like the Australian ballot, has been a great political educator. It is held partly responsible for the independent spirit now stirring among the voters. It has bred contempt for machines, for machine-run conventions, and for machine-made candidates. It must be said, however, that the main factor in this new movement antedates primary-election reform. It arises from the attempt of large corporate interests, usually railroad companies, to control State action through party organizations. In the days when the Populist movement threatened a confiscation of railroad property, the success of the Republican party in the Western States was a matter of life and death to the railroads. They contributed heavily to Republican campaign funds, and were the power behind the throne in Republican State administrations. Where the Democratic party amounted to anything it was also a beneficiary. The party managers of the old *régime* got used to leaning upon

the railroads for the sinews of war. As a consequence, they were obliged to look after the interests of the companies in legislation, and even in law enforcement. The Wisconsin organization was hand-in-glove with the Chicago & Northwestern and the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul. In Iowa, it was the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy and the Chicago & Northwestern. In Minnesota, the Great Northern Railway was the great political power, as it still is in North Dakota. The Rock Island dominated Kansas, and the Burlington was a power in Nebraska.

NEW LEADERS AND NEW ISSUES.

The Populist danger is over, and the menace to railroad interests now comes from within the Republican party. The new force striving for control of the party in the Northwestern States does not assume hostility to the railroads as business interests. It objects, however, to their interference in politics and legislation. It has rallied around various reforms which the railroads do not want. The leaders of the new movement have been called "Populists" by the men of the old *régime*, and, in fact, they have been supported by the thousands of Populists who have drifted back into the Republican party. They are also backed, as a rule, by the majority sentiment of the party and the people at large, whenever it finds a full expression. Their programme includes measures that fifteen years ago were Populistic, but now are good Republican dogma as elucidated by Roosevelt. The leaders of the new movement have been called demagogues, and few of them are free from a certain tendency to "play to the galleries." However, that charge can be laid against every man who leaves the beaten track, and as long as these men are consistent and keep faith with the people, the charge of demagoguery will not ruin them. They have had to fight prestige, patronage, and campaign funds, and to make an effective stand it has been necessary to capture party organizations, to build up new "machines," and to control patronage. The new machines have sometimes been as tyrannous as the old ones, and the dethroned leaders of the old *régime* have complained bitterly of "dictatorship" and "gag rule." La Follette, of Wisconsin, has been abused as an autocrat and a tyrant.

THE REVOLT IN MINNESOTA.

Minnesota, however, is not only the pioneer in primary-election reform, but also holds the banner for independent voting. At the last election, out of a total of 322,692 votes, President Roosevelt received a plurality of 161,464, while John A. Johnson, Democratic candidate

for governor, was elected by a plurality of 7,862. The election of Johnson was the sole Democratic triumph. At the same time the Republican candidate for lieutenant-governor received 42,695 plurality, and the candidate for State treasurer 102,782 more than his opponent. The Democracy was practically unorganized, and the House of Representatives has 108 Republicans to 11 Democrats. Not over 40 of the Republicans elected had Democratic opponents. The election of Johnson was due purely to a Republican revolt, which caused from 80,000 to 90,000 Republicans to bolt their candidate for governor. It was an astonishingly emphatic protest against the acts of the State convention in July, which was dominated by the old *régime*.

The Minnesota struggle is an old one, but the latest chapter dates from November, 1901, when Gov. S. R. Van Sant started his crusade against the "merger" of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific railways, the plan of President James J. Hill, of the Great Northern, carried out through the Northern Securities Company, a New Jersey corporation. Van Sant had been nominated and elected by the old *régime*, and was supposed to be amenable to the railroad influence. His attack against the merger brought him into open conflict with the railroad element. It proved a winning card for him, however. He was re-nominated on a wave of popular approval, and though a heavy campaign fund was placed at the disposal of the Democrats, he broke all previous records with his plurality in November,—56,487.

This did not end the fight. R. C. Dunn, former State auditor and a man of strong personal following, was the one leading Republican who had openly condemned the suit against the Northern Securities. He became a candidate for governor and received the allegiance of all the politicians standing by the old *régime*. Governor Van Sant's own machine brought out an opposition candidate. Judge L. W. Collins. The pre-convention contest was the bitterest in the history of the State. The two factions were almost even when the convention met, but the Dunn forces had contesting delegations from the great counties of Hennepin and Ramsey, both carried for Collins on the face of the returns. The Dunn organization brought in a minority report on credentials, unseating the 113 Collins delegates from Hennepin, and, as the Hennepin men could not vote on their own case, this was carried, giving Dunn undisputed control of the convention. There was no bolt, but this action was resented, and the voters who had approved of Van Sant's anti-merger policy rebelled against the nomination made. The nom-

inee of the Democrats, a modest country editor, was drafted by their convention, and immediately an unorganized mass of Republicans rallied to his support. The campaign was spectacular, and the result astonished every one. It was not Johnson's election that evoked surprise, but his success in the face of the enormous Republican landslide. It was a non-partisan victory, if there ever was one, and a terrible blow to the reactionaries who had captured the Republican machine in July.

An effort is now being made to bring the factions together, win credit for the Republican party by adopting some progressive legislation, and nominate a candidate next time without an unseemly struggle. The direct-primary principle is quite likely to be applied to selecting the State ticket, but without abolishing the State convention.

RESULTS AND PROMISES.

Definite results can be claimed in both Wisconsin and Minnesota for the new movement,—sometimes, for want of a better name, called the "anti-railroad" campaign. In Wisconsin, the La Follette Republicans have adopted an anti-pass law, have changed the system of railroad taxation and increased the revenue derived by the State, and have started a fight against the rebate system. Governor La Follette has furnished the new legislature with the idea of a railroad-rate commission.

Minnesota has increased the gross-earnings tax on railroads, has given large powers to its railroad commission, and has now started a legislative inquiry into the rate question. An anti-pass bill and a two-cent passenger-fare measure are also up for action, being supported by the Democratic governor and by a knot of progressive Republicans in the legislature.

Iowa's battling forces are enjoying a temporary truce. The victory of Governor Cummins in 1901 over the federal influence and the old *régime* resulted in increasing railroad taxes, but it has accomplished little else. The distance tariff law antedates the Cummins era. The opposition to Cummins has been powerful, and now seems in control of the Republican organization. No one can foretell the outcome of the next struggle.

STATUS OF THE DAKOTAS.

South Dakota has witnessed something of the same controversy, but in that State the "machine" has been wise and wary. It has made some wise concessions to awakened public sentiment, but seems to be courting a test of strength in fighting the primary-election meas-

ure. North Dakota has for years been controlled by a small clique in close touch with the Great Northern Railroad, but the progressive element is organizing for a battle royal next year. If the primary-election law is adopted this winter, it will pave the way for an upheaval in that State.

The same independent spirit prevalent in the States mentioned is also found, in greater or less degree, in all the territory west from Michigan to Washington, and as far south as Missouri, where the reformer Folk was elected governor in spite of a general triumph for the opposite party. The new sentiment is manifested in various ways. By its very nature it is almost impossible to organize it. It is not a constant force, but it must always be reckoned with. When a real issue is presented and thoroughly understood, the popular will is sure to be registered in emphatic fashion.

LEADERS PROFIT BY LESSONS.

Under the influence of this movement, a new school of politicians is arising in the West which will yet be heard from in the nation at large. The cardinal principle of this school is,—be right with the people, free from special interests, and always deal openly and aboveboard. It is clear that the people appreciate this sort of treatment, and that it will win in the long run, rather than the devious ways of the "cute" politician. Another healthy sign is that the railroad and other corporations are taking a higher ground. They have justified their interference in politics on the score of self-defense. Many of them have suffered from double-dealing and blackmail till they are heartily sick. Most railroad officials prefer fair treatment from independent officials rather than special favors from expensive, untrustworthy creatures.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN THE BALKANS.

TWO points must be remembered when we speak of what the people read in the Balkans. One is that "the people" of that part of the globe do not read very much, and the other is that the people in the Balkans are not all alike—they are not one nation.

In dealing with what these different peoples read, it is appropriate to begin with the country whose people read most and where most people read, Roumania. There are a few hundred papers and periodicals published in Roumania, and although the circle of readers is limited, some papers have managed to live over a quarter of a century. The best of these is *Adevarul* (Truth), founded by Alex. Beldimanu, a staunch Republican and an ardent opponent of foreign dynasties. This journal was afterward sold to Constantine Milleman, one of the best journalists in Roumania. To-day, the *Adevarul* is the best daily in the land. Its editorials and literary departments are conducted in the most modern style, and it has done more than any of the other journals for the elevation of the masses. *Universul* (Universe), another daily paper, should be mentioned next, not perhaps because of its merits, but because of its popularity. It was founded by an Italian, G. Cazzavilan, a man of great business capability but without literary taste. It is the most "yellow" of "yellow" journals, full of happenings that never happen, and sensational to the last degree. The *Epoca* (Epoch), the most conservative daily, is edited by

N. Filipesen, the man who incited the anti-Semitic riots of 1897. *L'Independence Roumaine* (The Roumanian Independence) represents the interests of the higher classes, and is edited in French. *Vionta Nationala* (National Will) is the organ of the so-called Liberal party. *Tara* (Country) is a Conservative daily. Among the publications in foreign languages, we find *Patris* (Fatherland), a Greek daily; *Bukarester Tageblatt* (Bucharest Daily Journal), a German daily; *Bukarester Magyar Uysag* (Bucharest Hungarian Journal), an Hungarian weekly; *Buletino Mensile de Camera Italiana de Arte* (Monthly Bulletin of the Italian House of Arts), an Italian monthly publication whose title indicates its purpose, and *Der Wahre Hayoetz* (True Adviser), a Yiddish weekly.

The most noteworthy among the weekly, semi-monthly, and monthly publications are *Anti-Alcoholul* (Anti-Alcohol), a monthly whose title indicates its aims; *Balkanul* (Balkans), a literary weekly; *Belgia Orientului* (Belgium of the Orient), and *Veselia* (Mirth), humorous weeklies, the former more refined, the latter more popular and unrefined. *Convorbiri Literare* (Literary Talks), the oldest literary monthly, was founded by *Junimea* (Youth), a literary society whose members became leaders in the political and in the literary world. *Cronica Israelita* (Jewish Chronicle) is the weekly organ of the Roumanian Zionists.

Egalitatea (Equality), a weekly, is devoted to



SOME REPRESENTATIVE TURKISH PERIODICALS.

the interests of the Jews. *Gutenberg* is the official organ of the printers' union. *Revista Ideei* (Review of Ideas) is the only Radical publication in Roumania at present.

What the people read in Bulgaria should be considered next, because Bulgaria is the next progressive country in the Balkans. There are quite a number of publications in that little country, among which are thirty political papers and a number of weeklies and monthlies devoted to the arts and sciences. The most popular among the dailies is *Vetcherna Poshta* (Evening Post), edited by C. C. Shangov, a man of some literary ability and great business foresight. *Den* (Day) is a daily edited and published by L. Pajanov. This paper indulges in literary departments and translations from French authors. *Novimi* (News) is a daily devoted more to news, *Dnevnik* is one of the Liberal dailies, and *Bulgaria* is published thrice a week. *Zemly Republicantz* (Young Republican) is a Republican weekly. *Rabotonitchesky Vestnik* (Workers' Journal) is a Socialist weekly. *Tirgoosky Vestnik* (Commercial News) is issued daily, in both German and Bulgarian. *Vibatert* (Romance) is an Armenian journal of fiction. O.



AHMED IHSAN.

(Editor of the *Servetifunoun*, one of the best-known Turkish weeklies.)

Parsaglian, its editor and publisher, thoroughly understands Armenian life.

A glimpse into Serbia now. There are quite a number of periodicals in Serbia. They can be classified as follows: Theological, 5; legal, 2; agricultural, 3; economics, 2; medical, 2; scientific, 3; pedagogy, 3; feminist, 4. The most important are *Delo* (Deed), one of the best literary monthlies; *Serbska Kijevna* (Serbian Literary Adviser), and *Brančov Kolo* (Brančov's Ideas). Brančov Raditovitch was the best Servian poet in the middle of the nineteenth century. Then there are *Bosanska Vila* (Bosnian Nymph) and *Proshvitzka* (National Education). All these are literary. *Spomenik* deals with history and folklore. Of dailies, there are about twenty in the capital alone. Most noteworthy among them are *Samoprava* (Anatomy), organ of the moderate Radical party—now in power; *Odika* (Echo), defending the interests of the pure Radicals; *Serbska Zestva* (Serbian Flag), Liberal, and *Pravda* (Justice), standing for the interests of the progressive party. The *Tergovskiy Glasnik* (Trader) is the most serious daily. It is the only Servian daily that has correspondents in nearly every European capital.

There are scores of other magazines and papers. Besides those published in their own country, the Servians publish *Glass Kronogaza* (Spokesman of Montenegro) at Cetgue, *Dubravnik* at Ragusa, *Sroleran* (Serbian Defender) at Agram, *Serbsky Vestnik* (Serbian Courier) in Herzegovina, and *Serbska Stampa* (Serbian Press) in Bosnia.

Now let us turn to Turkey. The Turkish people read very little. There are, therefore,

more publications in the non-Turkish languages than in the Turkish. The best-known of the Turkish dailies is *Servet* (Joy). It calls itself a political journal, but let it be remembered that in Turkey politics are only of the kind that pleases the Sultan or his censor. *Hidamet* (Service) is another daily devoted to news and foreign affairs. Its editor, Dr. Ibrahim Refik, is an old journalist. *Ahenk* (Majestic) is devoted to politics and commerce. *Servetifunoun*, an illustrated weekly, deals with science, literature, and commerce, and has a political supplement where all foreign political news that the censor tolerates is published. It is edited by Ahmed Ihsan.

There are a few other Turkish periodicals,—religious, commercial, and literary. As we said before, there are more publications in foreign languages published in Turkey than there are in the Turkish language. Among these are (in Armenian) *Purzantion* (Byzantine), edited by Puziant Ketchian; *Arevelk* (Orient), a political and literary daily; *Suarhantg* (Messenger), published by Dircram Bey Djivelikan. *Manzoney Efkhar* (Good Purpose) is another daily. It is edited in both the Turkish and Armenian languages. Owing to the difficulty of learning Turkish script, and also owing to the fact that nearly all Armenians under-

stand the language, the Turkish words in the journal are printed in Armenian characters. All the above are Armenian dailies, and among the weeklies in the same tongue we find *Masis* (Mount Masis), edited by Dircran Arpiarian, in its fifty-first year. Its columns are open to the discussion of politics, science, letters, and art. *Arvelian Mamoul* (Oriental Press) is a national weekly. It was founded by Dr. Hirand Marmorian. *Pure Akin* (Pure Source) is devoted to national, political, scientific, and religious affairs. Prof. Hagapoz Djedjian is its editor.

In other languages there are *Armonia* (Harmony), a Greek daily devoted to literature, commerce, and news. It was established twenty-four years ago. *Amalthea* (Daybreak) is another Greek daily, which claims to be the oldest Greek paper in Asia Minor. Among the papers published in English, the most important is the *Levant Herald*, a political paper devoted to the interests of the English-speaking people in Turkey. The *Moniteur Orientale* (Oriental Monitor), another daily, is printed in the French and English languages. The *Courier de Smyrna* (Smyrna Courier) and the *Journal de Smyrna* (Smyrna Journal) are two French dailies.

O. LEONARD.



A FEW OF THE BEST-KNOWN SERBIAN, BULGARIAN, AND ROUMANIAN JOURNALS.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AS THE JAPANESE SEE HIM.

PRIOR to the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese war, the Japanese view of President Roosevelt, as expressed in metropolitan newspapers and magazines, had not been altogether favorable. Those maintaining a liberal or democratic view of the principles of government had been especially unfriendly toward him, regarding him as an out-and-out imperialist whose beliefs and administration ran counter to the traditional policy of the American nation. To such journals as these President Roosevelt appealed more forcibly as a strenuous leader of "rough riders" than as the sagacious executive chief of a great republic. Even his efforts to solve some of the most obnoxious social problems had not been viewed as entirely sincere, but instead had been frequently regarded as a political flirtation intended to steal the favor of the masses. The American President, some of the Japanese journals had believed, lightly harped on the string of democracy to enchant the working class, while he was essentially the "boss" of the capitalist class and, to translate literally, "an incarnation of imperialism."

A JUST AND ENLIGHTENED ASIATIC POLICY.

With the growing complexity of the diplomatic situation in the Orient, the policy of President Roosevelt, in collaboration with his adroit Secretary of State Hay, proved not only favorable to Japan, but also fair, righteous, and wise. Gradually the attitude of the island nation had been changing, until the rupture of the *entente* between Russia and Japan called forth a chorus of praise for the President. The reelection of Mr. Roosevelt, to the Presidency of the United States, has furnished Japanese journals with an opportunity to give voice to the gratitude and admiration which the Japanese now, almost to a man, maintain toward Mr. Roosevelt both as a private individual and as an administrator.

An editorial in the December issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio) calls forth the memory of the friendly relationship existing between the American republic and Japan during the past half-century, since Commodore Perry opened the doors of the then hermit nation, and congratulates Mr. Roosevelt upon his reelection to the Presidency, eulogizing him in the most enthusiastic terms.

To the editor the President is a man of conviction, undaunted and brave, and of great talent, upon whose shoulders rests the trust of the entire nation of the United States. On the first page of the magazine appears a recent portrait of the President, and on the second, his portraits at the age of eight and twenty-five. The same monthly contains another article, entitled "The Re-elected President Roosevelt," contributed by Mr. Toyabe, who has established his reputation as an excellent writer of character sketches. According to this writer, the popularity of President Roosevelt is due not so much to his personal character and quality as to his policy, which, in fact, represents the national spirit and tendency of the age. "His administrative policy, which he believes would accrue to the welfare and honor of the American nation, has been, consciously or unconsciously, one with the *zeitgeist* of the American people."

President Roosevelt has extended the influence of the United States over the western half of the globe; he has enlarged the naval equipment of his country, and has inaugurated imperialism as the guiding force of the republic in its world-movement, going a step further than the Monroe Doctrine. All these policies and movements have appealed to the predominant idea of the American nation. The imperialism of Roosevelt, however, is not similar to that of the German Emperor, which is suffused with the hue of the Roman conception of the sovereign—the divineness of sovereign power. Mr. Roosevelt's imperialism is based upon the principles of popular government and aimed at the promotion of the welfare of the people at large. His diplomacy has never been alienated from the principles of peace and justice. He has ever been on the alert to checkmate pernicious effects which are likely to emanate from the military aggression of Russia in the far East, and has been endeavoring to promote commercial interests on the Pacific by declaring the open door in China. From these facts we can easily recognize that the President's far-Eastern policy is consonant with that of Japan. His reelection to the Presidency of a republic, commanding the respect and confidence of nations, will prove to be a powerful influence in the triumph of peace and enlightenment of the world.

ADMIRATION FOR MR. ROOSEVELT'S PERSONALITY.

The utterances of leading Japanese dailies form, indeed, a great chorus of admiration for the President. The *Nippon*, an important exponent of conservative ideas, figures most conspicuously in the line. "Tremendous, indeed, must be

its influence," declares this paper, "if a powerful country like the United States inaugurates a vigorous movement under the leadership of an undaunted man like Mr. Roosevelt." Although the writer tells the world to carefully watch the movement of such an energetic man at the head of such a wonderful nation, yet in view of Mr. Roosevelt's peaceful policy in the past and the fine nature of the American nation, he is confident that the exercise of American influence in world-politics will result in the suppression of arrogant powers as well as the maintenance of humanity. "Only greedy nations which defy humanity would fear the mighty prowess of the United States. Nothing, indeed, would be more to be rejoiced over than the triumph of justice and humanity through the influence of the American nation."

The comment of the *Mainichi* (Osaka) is more cautious than that of the *Nippon*, but its sentiment is none the less the expression of the national feeling of gratitude toward the American President. "Since the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese war, the attitude of President Roosevelt toward Japan has been almost that of an allied nation. The Japanese nation should be grateful to President Roosevelt and his government, who firmly stand for the cause of Japan in the pending conflict." The *Nichi-Nichi* (Tokio), which is regarded as the spokesman of Marquis Ito, is almost as demonstrative as the *Nippon* in eulogizing Mr. Roosevelt. It says:

Our admiration of Mr. Roosevelt's personal character is not sporadic. Since Mr. Roosevelt, young and vigorous, assumed the chair of the Chief Executive of

the American Republic, his bold actions, aimed at the reformation of his administrative departments, have almost amazed the world. The *entente* between the United States and Japan has been growing more and more cordial since the beginning of Mr. Roosevelt's administration. His attitude toward the belligerent powers in the present conflict in the Orient has proved to be strictly fair and impartial. The whole world admires his unswerving and stanch effort to defend peace.

This journal considers it an unusual event in the history of the American Constitution that a Vice-President succeeds a President in the event of the latter's death, as Mr. Roosevelt succeeded the late President McKinley. This fact, according to the *Nippon*, is, no doubt, a mark of his popularity, which has been again vindicated by his reelection.

A SAFE, CONSERVATIVE PRESIDENT.

The *Jiji Shimpō* (Tokio), representing the interests of financiers and the wealthy class, believes that his reelection will give Mr. Roosevelt an opportunity to exercise his influence and execute his convictions without restraint or hesitation, as he would not expect to be elected for another term, in deference to the constitutional precedent of the United States. The suppression of the pernicious influence of the capitalist class, "which is the disease of the American economic régime," and the reformation of the tariff system in accordance with the principle of reciprocity,—these the *Jiji* believes to be among the most important reform measures which Mr. Roosevelt will have to execute in the last term of his Presidency.

WHO IS FATHER GAPON ?

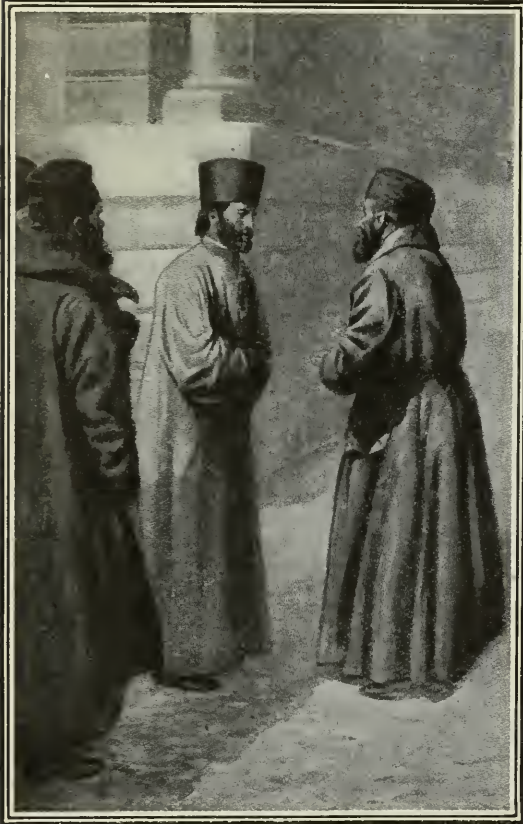
A GREAT deal of interest has been aroused throughout the world in Father Gapon, the priest-peasant leader of the strikers in Russia. Very little is known of this popular leader, who has just been unfrocked by the Church for his work as a political agitator. Mme. Katherine Bereshkovska, whose wonderful career as a reformer and agitator was outlined in one of our "Leading Articles" last month, contributes to the magazine number of the *Outlook* a study of Father Gapon, whom she regards as a type peculiarly Russian. He is not a Social Democrat, she says; he is not a Revolutionary Socialist; he is not a Liberal. He is to the peasants what Tolstoi is to the nobles. Both have faith and both are true optimists. Both regard the sacrifice of life for a noble ideal as the highest end of human existence.

Father Gapon, like Count Tolstoi, has an indestructible faith in the moral force of man—in the absolute power of his soul. God and man, man and God—they stand on heights almost equal in the eyes of the Russian peasant, and this is why nothing is impossible to the Russian idealist. So it is, more or less, with all of our idealists; but this pantheistic psychology is most strongly expressed in our two heroes of to-day. However, these two natures, similar as they are, seem to act differently under the same circumstances. Both are devoted to the interests of the people. Both are against government by Czar; but while Count Tolstoi preaches inaction and supreme self-abnegation, Father Gapon calls men to action, in the name of God certainly, but always to action, even through force of arms.

But there is a point—where they touch real life—at which the two great men separate.

One remains in the skies, surrounded by beautiful ideas and righteous thoughts; the other descends to earth, places himself at the side of his unhappy *con-*

frères, and puts in action all his force, all his sentiment, all his energy, to end the sufferings, to end the cries, the tears, the maledictions. He is no longer patient, nor does he wish to be patient, for he sees clearly that it would be a crime on his part to witness the agony of his people without making an effort to withdraw them from the precipice over which their blind patience had precipitated them. He cries, "To arms! Take what is your own!" while Tolstoi advises, "Suffer and ignore the wicked, solely." Here it is that they differ.



FATHER GAPON.

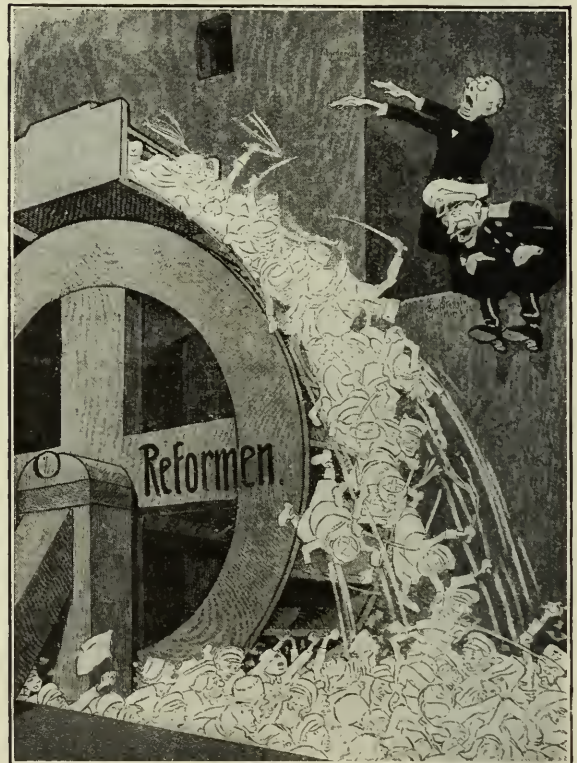
(Leader of the Russian strikers in St. Petersburg talking to one of the workmen.)

It is absolutely impossible for foreigners to bring before themselves the actual condition of the peasant in Russia,—to understand his misery, his long suffering, his patience, and his great, quiet strength.

The Russian peasants say that justice (or God) demands that all human beings should be happy, that they shall have means of enjoying life without doing evil to others and without being oppressed by them. This is the justice so greatly longed for. But, beyond this, Russian peasants are bold enough to believe that they know not only what constitutes truth, but also the means of putting it in practice here on earth. They

say, for instance, that a good God has created man, that he gave man with life the right to enjoy all that is created by him for the benefit of mankind. So the land, with all its riches, forests and streams,—all this belongs to all of us, because it is the work of God. It follows that all that is produced by the hands of man belongs to him whose hands have wrought out the individual product. This is the economic aspect of truth to the Russian peasants; as to the moral side, it consists in never doing evil to one's neighbor and in aiding him in his toil. Daily toil does not frighten the Russian laborer; he loves the land and values his work, which makes his life pleasanter and more intelligent. He loves to contemplate the beauties of nature, to seek out the solutions of serious questions, to enjoy a tranquil conscience. This is the real Russian peasant; but up to the present time he is misunderstood by all the world, for he has not as yet had the opportunity to make himself seen and heard.

How many Father Gapons, this writer asks, have perished in Russia without being known to any one except their comrades, their fellow-villagers, whose rights they have defended at the cost of their liberty, and often of their lives? There will be other Father Gapons, and still others, to restore to the common people their heritage—their land.



REFORM IN RUSSIA!

How Pobyedonostzev and Prince Mirski by opposing policies effect reforms!—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

SCHOOLS AND LIBRARIES IN RURAL RUSSIA.

SEVERAL Russian writers have recently recalled the famous saying of von Moltke, that in the war of 1870 the victory of the Germans over the French was the victory of the Prussian village schoolmaster. They have been "taking stock" in the educational sphere, and with melancholy results. Not only has there been no educational progress in Russia in the last ten or twelve years, but the empire has not even held her own. There has been distinct retrogression in every direction.

A writer in the leading radical monthly, *Russkaye Bogatstvo*, edited by the novelist Korolenko under the "previous censorship," examines at some length the condition of the popular or free libraries in provincial and rural Russia. "In every civilized country," he says, "the establishment of free libraries is heartily encouraged as one of the most effective ways of spreading education and culture. In Russia, on the contrary, the bureaucracy has placed all sorts of obstacles in the way of those enlightened zemstvoists and public-spirited men who interested themselves in the matter."

Here are the official figures as given by the writer, V. Ivanovich: Altogether there are some five thousand free libraries in provincial Russia. Some provinces have but few each; in others, the number rises to respectable proportions, yet even in the latter the supply is so far short of the demand, especially of the possible demand, that it is practically negligible. On the average, there is but one free library for every 1,374 square miles in one of the apparently best-equipped provinces,—namely, Vologod. The appropriations of the zemstvos for such libraries are absurdly small, in many cases not exceeding one hundred rubles a year. Many have no reading-rooms, and the patrons have to take the books home, where the conditions are not favorable to quiet and attentive reading.

Again, many of these libraries have so few books that they may be regarded as having but a nominal existence. Some so-called libraries have fifty books each. The statistics of thirty provinces show that the average number of patrons for a library is two hundred, of which a little over one-tenth are women, or rather young girls. About two-fifths of the readers are adults. The number of adult readers is slowly increasing, but on every side patrons complain of the insufficiency and inferiority of the books available. The fact is, the strictest censorship is applied by the bureaucracy to the reading matter of the popular libraries. The best books of the classical and contemporary authors are not

allowed to be handled by the libraries, and much of the periodical literature is likewise excluded. Progressive and liberal publications are jealously kept out. One library in the Poltava province reports that the adult patrons have gradually withdrawn their patronage because they could not get the books and magazines they desired.

The ridiculous lengths to which the censorship is carried are amusingly illustrated by one reported incident. In the province of Komstromsk, a rural free library was opened last year and named after the great radical poet, Nekrasov. After the dedication of the institution, one of the local seekers of culture asked for a volume of Nekrasov's works. "He must be worth reading," was the remark to the librarian, "if the library was named after him." But the Nekrasov works were not to be had in the Nekrasov Library; the censor's "index" had excluded them, along with those of other great national authors!

In this connection, interest attaches to recent data on elementary education in Russia, commented on in the St. Petersburg press. One writer points out, in the *Vyedomosti*, that Russia is behind not only every great European power in this respect, but even such small nations as Servia and Bulgaria.

In the last six years, it seems, elementary education has actually lost ground. The number of schools has fallen from 95,000 to 84,500, and though the number of pupils has increased, the increase is wholly due to the natural growth of the population. The total even to-day does not exceed 4,500,000. The percentage of illiteracy even in the government of St. Petersburg is 45; in some districts it is as high as 88. The percentage of those who have received a higher education (including secondary-school graduates) is insignificant, being 76 in the cities and 2 in the country. A liberal Moscow paper observes that it is not strange that almost every fairly educated man in Russia is given some title, decoration, or distinction, as otherwise the educated few would be lost in the illiterate mass.

So humiliating are the facts as to popular education declared to be, and so grave the effects of illiteracy, that one St. Petersburg paper has opened a "posticatic" subscription for elementary schools. It has, however, been ridiculed by its contemporaries, which regard free and universal education as the first and most imperative duty of the government, and demand appropriations amounting to many times the amount set aside in current budgets.

THE CENTRAL FIGURE OF THE WAR.



PRINCE KHILOKOFF.

(Russian minister of ways and communications since 1895.)

THE *Quarterly Review*, in a suggestive survey of the war in the far East, points out how, before the battle of Liao-Yang, the Japanese had taken everything into consideration except one decisive factor, the rapidity with which the Siberian railway had been made an efficient channel of supply for the Russian army. The writer says that Prince Khilkoff, Russian minister of ways and communications, is, in a measure, the central figure of the war.

It has been almost solely due to his American training and abundant personal energy that Russia has been hitherto spared one of those overwhelming disasters that occur but once or twice in a century of war. When the campaign opened, the condition of the railway was deplorable from a strategic standpoint. It was broken at Lake Baikal into two sections. Eastward of the lake, rolling stock was deficient, while shops and repairing machinery were inadequate, and sidings wanting for the heavy traffic of the line. It was also certain that with the thaw Lake Baikal would be closed to traffic for

three weeks. Prince Khilkoff journeyed to Irkutsk, and at once displayed his remarkable powers as *deus ex machina*. He hurried forward the completion of the line around the southern end of the lake, and directly the surface was hard set, laid down rails across the ice, and transported to the east bank large numbers of locomotives, trucks, and wagons. A sledge service was improvised from local resources, and throughout the spring a continuous flow of troops, stores, and supplies was maintained. Not content with this, he collected thousands of men and women along the whole length of the railway, and set to work to improve the facilities for troop transport by doubling the line in certain sections, by the construction of sidings, the improvement of stations, and the collection of supplies of fuel and water. This great national effort proved the salvation of the Russian army of Manchuria. In six months, Prince Khilkoff had practically doubled the output of the line; while upon the sections west of Irkutsk it was found possible to raise the number of trains to a maximum of eighteen.

The writer points the moral for the rest of the world, referring to England's imperial defense in particular:

In ten months, no less than 250,000 men have been transported from western Russia to Manchuria over a single line of railway, and across a distance of from 5,000 to 6,000 miles. This railway has, moreover, proved capable hitherto of maintaining the military efficiency of a total Russian force of 400,000 men east of Lake Baikal, as well as of providing for the wants of the civil population throughout the districts traversed by the line, and of carrying construction materials for the extension and improvement of the line itself.

The *Quarterly Review* writer believes that it behooves England to watch her Indian frontier.



KUROPATKIN'S RAILROAD HEADQUARTERS.

(A special armed train provided by Prince Khilkoff on the Trans-Siberian Railroad.)

THE NATIONAL SPIRIT OF SPAIN.

IN Spain, says Manuel Ugarte, in the course of a strong article in *La Revue*, "nobody demands anything, nor wishes for anything—but waits for everything." This "great general confidence in unknown forces" pervades all Spain. "No one believes in the efficacy of work, but every one relies on the lottery." The modern Spaniard, continues this writer, is a "slave of laziness and routine." The animating spirit of Spain is "passive—not active."

It admits—it does not seek; it receives, but makes no solicitation; it understands, but refrains from investigation. This was not always so, but to-day Spain feels within herself the fatigue and irresolution of old age. . . . The Spanish women, who sit motionless on their balconies, like birds on a telegraph wire, are the symbol of the country, which has waited throughout the centuries, not knowing for what it waited.

The spirit of intellectual and moral timidity, which this writer believes permeates all Spanish life and character, first became apparent to him, he declares, upon entering Madrid. From his experiences in the capital, he declares that the average Spaniard is in mortal terror of two things: smuggling and a counterfeit five-franc piece (\$1). The national spirit, he declares further, is made up chiefly of memories. The supreme argument in Spain is the phrase, "It is the custom." Custom is for Spain a fact "superior to humanity and to life, an eternal and indestructible thing which vanquishes all reason and logic."

Whenever custom is invoked there is nothing further to be said, and the Spanish people are dying of chronic "custom." Custom repeats without cessation the same ideas; custom is opposed to all reforms. It is for this cause that Spanish life of to-day is so jealous in its preservation of the spirit of the Middle Ages. The Spaniard is also poorly nourished. Not only are the people much oppressed by poverty, but, instead of making great efforts to satisfy their wants, they solve the problem of life in the other way, and school themselves to want very little. The nation is sick of anemia, says this writer. Spain eats less than any other nation on the globe. The Spaniard, says M. Ugarte, in conclusion, is polite, amiable, respectful, docile, upright, and sincere. But we do not find among them any of the fundamental qualities which should be the very muscle of the people, except attachment to the soil and sobriety, and "it is not with these alone that a nation can defend its position in our age of industrial effort, feverish initiative, and intense struggle." Souvenirs of the past will not solve problems of the present nor ward off perils of the future.

To Unify the Spanish Tongue of all Countries.

The project for an authoritative dictionary of the Spanish language, not only of Spain but also of Spanish-America, is discussed by Francisco Plegueuelo in an eloquent article reproduced in the *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid) from the organ of the Union Ibero-Americana. He speaks



GENERAL AZCARRAGA.

(Premier of Spain for just six weeks.)

of the rivalry between nations to extend their various tongues, each striving to gain universal use for its own. Among the things that Spain can do is to send the teachers requested by the sixty thousand Jews of Salonika, who wish to modernize the speech they have kept so long, and to give aid to the Spaniards who remain in the Philippines, who "can help to make endure, even in small circles, a language which, if it had been adequately taught and diffused among the natives, might, perchance, have changed the fate of the archipelago." Overshadowing such efforts, however, would be the preparation of such a dictionary as is proposed by the Union Ibero-Americana, under the patronage of the academies of the different Spanish-speaking countries where existent, or of the government or the highest learned body where no academy has been organized. It would unify and preserve

the idiom as nothing else could do. The writer says :

It is necessary to strengthen what might be called the centripetal force of languages if one does not wish the centrifugal force to diversify and disintegrate them. Thus, although there are writers in America who could give lessons in Castilian to many of those in the Peninsula, there are also books written by others that remain unintelligible to the most learned Spaniards. It is important, then, to prevent the nations of the great family from coming not to understand each other.

He points out that there would have to be concessions from both sides, but that it would be presumption to assume that only the descendants of ancient Spaniards who remained in Spain have any competency for fixing the laws of the present language, and though some Americanisms must be excluded as contrary to Spanish grammar and phonetics, it would be "inconceivable petrification to close the language to all novelties." Excessive slowness in admitting to the dictionary of the academy words from the colonies gave rise to such incidents as excluding the word *panca*, for a Philippine boat, until the last edition of the dictionary, when, owing to certain political events, they no longer had any use for the word! The writer asks for the active coöperation of all the countries in carrying out the plan, which has already been foreshadowed in various prefaces to the academy dictionary, referring to aid from Colombian, Mexican, and Venezuelan sources.

What Catalonia Demands of Spain.

The Catalan question, which at times causes discussion of secession of the northern province of Spain, is analyzed by S. P. Y. Aguado in the *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid). He first discusses the different forms of Catalanism. The Catalan Union, whose programme is that of Manresa, works within the laws, and is the declared enemy of the Separatists and those who desire annexation to France. It abominates the party of the Center, because it deems that all the evils come from there, and counts on numerous and very important elements of all social classes. There are two branches of the union,—one not desiring to obtain its end through the present political parties, and the other taking advantage of them.

The labor element in Catalonia has quite a surprising moral force. The labor unions are strong, well organized, and very numerous. They hold aloof from the Catalan movement, devoting themselves solely to the struggle with capital and their own betterment, and that chiefly by the peaceful means of association and strikes. Only as individuals do they take part in the Catalan

movement. The agriculturists desire an "economic arrangement" as a means of escaping from the unbearable fiscal investigations that the government adopts, an evil that is aggravated by the struggle for local chieftainship (*caciquismo*) that is felt in this class of industry more than in any other. Concealment of property robs the treasury of 20 per cent. of what it should collect. The majority of agriculturists are Catalanists, favoring the programme of Manresa.

The clergy, also, mostly profess Catalanistic principles, and demand that prebends and dignities be pledged to natives of the region. This element, with such prominent representatives as Morgades and the Bishop of Vich, secures the support of the devotees, and lends a religious aspect to Catalanism, seeking converts with zeal. As a sample of the extravagances to which exaltation leads, the clergy have sustained in print and in speeches that Catholicism is more deeply rooted in Catalonia than in any other country, that there are more saints in heaven from Catalonia than from all Castile, and that no other region on earth has a greater number of temples, oratories, and chapels.

The writer quotes from a Catalan manufacturer as to the economic situation. Through the last tariff and the commercial treaties with Cuba and the Philippines, Catalonia has become exceedingly prosperous. There is an excess of riches, hands are lacking, and the governmental administration, fitting for other provinces, is no longer sufficient or proper here. The business men ask for the "economic arrangement" in order to leave the way clear for the manufacturer, merchant, and business man, and they assure one that if the shackles of centralized administration were suddenly broken, there would be no Catalan question. But they cannot progress with the present administration. They must work openly for provincial, constitutional, or regional autonomy, or for the "economic arrangement." This exceptional treatment of one province should cause no friction with the others, as they should be granted it in similar conditions.

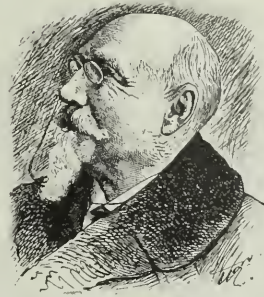
The Catalan Union pushes its theories unceasingly. The societies under its wing are very numerous, and each has its special purpose. They are admitted by secret vote. There are fifteen periodicals devoted to the cause of Manresa, and the Catalan press has issued over half a million documents. Money has not been lacking, and finally music, painting, and literature have aided the propaganda. Authors toil in singing the traditions of the region, and in modernism find still another element of separation from Castilian literature.

The writer says that, in 1899, the government promised to include in the budget a provision for the "economic arrangement," but that the treasury department refused to concur. Later, representatives of the government and of Catalanism arranged a compromise, which was also unsuccessful. Canovas is said to have been working to the same end when he died.

It is not that the Catalans wish to pay less taxes, for they are willing to pay more, but would distribute the burden more equably, simplify the collection of taxes, render it effective, rapid, and just by means of the "arrangement" which would leave them in economic liberty to work. Catalanism is, then, an economic problem; the Separatists are relatively few in number; Catalonia occupies an important industrial position, and her principal market is Spain, for which reason the annexationists would gain nothing; but the physical and intellectual vigor of the region requires that it be not limited.

Is Echegaray Not Sufficiently Honored in Spain?

In a eulogistic article on Echegaray, the Spanish magazine, *España Moderna* (Madrid), declares



THE SPANISH DRAMATIC POET, ECHEGARAY, WHO HAS JUST RECEIVED THE NOBEL PRIZE FOR LITERATURE.

that his own country has not sufficiently recognized the genius of this Spanish writer, upon whom has just been conferred, by a Scandinavian jury, the Nobel prize for literature, sharing it with Mistral, the French Provençal poet. *España Moderna* is publishing "The Souvenirs of Echegaray" as a "document" of the Spanish Academy.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND THE CENSOR IN MACEDONIA.

ACCORDING to a French writer, who signs himself Messimy, and who is declared to be a member of the French Parliament by the editor of *La Revue*, there are at present six distinct political parties striving for mastery and causing general trouble in Macedonia.



BORIS SARAVOV, THE MACEDONIAN LEADER.

These are the Turkish, the Albanian, the Greek, the Bulgarian, the Roumanian, and the Servian parties. Each of the last four, says this writer, is encouraged and subsidized in its work by a national propaganda,

and, finally, the list of active political influences in Macedonia would not be complete without mention of the "work of Austria." The Turks, he tells us, number about one million, and comprise the real Turkish stock which

came from Asia after the conquest, with many Bulgarians, Greeks, Bosnians, Servians, and Roumanians. These people occupy the plains and valleys of Macedonia. They form compact groups in the regions of Philippopolis and Salonika, and also control all the military roads leading to the south and to the Danube or the Adriatic. They have the fortresses and strongholds. M. Messimy regards these people as, under ordinary circumstances, honest, hospitable, and kindly by nature. It is the Turkish governmental officials, he believes, who incite them to the atrocities of which we hear. With their religious passion and their irreconcilable opposition to all change, they put down all national aspirations with a ruthless hand. The Young Turkish party, however, is acquiring an influence.

Albania, we are told, is "a veritable corner of barbarism, without roads or bridges, with only armed men and a perpetual state of war." There is no government or any sign of authority which the populace feels compelled to obey other than the strongest man who is most fully armed. The Albanians speak a language which no one can write, which has neither an alphabet nor a grammar. They know three religions,—Mussulman, Orthodox, and Catholic. They recognize, in reality, neither God nor man. These characterizations apply particularly to the northern portion of the Albanian country,—that is, the vilayet of Uskub. There are from six hundred to seven hundred thousand of them, call-



A MEETING OF THE INTERNATIONAL MACEDONIAN COMMISSION TO HEAR COMPLAINTS OF OUTRAGES.

ing themselves "Sons of the Eagle." They boast that they have never been conquered, and have never submitted completely to any power. The writer declares that, in conversation with an Albanian chief recently, he asked what was the chief occupation of the people. "We are hunters of men," was the reply. The Albanians are opposed to every appearance of reform tending to restrain the liberty of their depredations, and they make up one of the most difficult phases of the Macedonian problem. They openly desire to maintain the *status quo* in Macedonia,—in other words, the *régime* of anarchy, of violence, and arbitrary authority."

It is from the most passionate of national aspirations, from an almost idealistic desire to re-establish the ancient Hellenic nation in all its glory, that the Greeks conduct their propaganda. They are the least numerous in the three vilayets which make up what is known as Macedonia. The Greek Church is, of course, "Orthodox," and its adherents regard themselves as the only real Christians, without a qualifying adjective. Their religious ideal corresponds with their political ideal. They have for their mission the regeneration of the unbelieving Orient. They aim to re-establish the empire of Byzantium, to replace the cross on the dome of Saint Sophia, and to make of Constantinople the center of a

civilization much superior to that of the Occident. Of course, all the European provinces must, according to this scheme, have their future in common with that of Greece, which is to dominate the entire Ægean. Not even the long and terrible domination of the Turk has dispelled this beautiful dream of Hellenic hegemony. The Greeks have held to their ideal. They have been the instructors of the world in art and science, and they believe their politics will yet dominate the Balkans. They constantly disagree with the propaganda of the other nationalities; and the worst mistake of all, says M. Messimy, is that they have allied themselves with the Turks in order to secure sufficient force and influence to defeat the rebels against pan-Hellenism. This French writer hopes that, for the sake of her glorious past, Greece will not now disappoint the hopes which Europe has placed in her.

There are nearly a million Bulgarians in Macedonia, who form the most numerous Christian nationality, and, incontestably, the most united and most powerful. The greater number of these belong to the Bulgarian Church, or Exarchat, which is the center and initiation of the Bulgarian propaganda. This Bulgarian Church resembles, in its general doctrines and government, the Orthodox Russian Church, but is separate from that body. There are among the

Bulgarians, also, about one hundred and fifty thousand "Pomaks,"—that is to say, Bulgarian converts to Islamism. It is impossible, says this French writer, to lay down a line of complete demarcation between the Bulgarian and the Servian population. The villages overlap, and it is not easy to define the distinct characteristics of these two Slav races, whose idioms resemble each other so closely that in some cases it is impossible to distinguish one from the other. These two races are mingled in great confusion in the three vilayets that make up Macedonia, and the



DR. GIORGIS PASHA.

(The Italian commander of the international gendarmerie in Macedonia.)

distinction is that some look to Belgrade and others to Sofia. This French writer does not believe that the Servian propaganda has very deep roots with the Servian people. He says that it is of more recent origin than the other national propagandas, but has grown wonderfully during the past few years.

The Roumanian propaganda is of very much less importance than that of the Bulgarian. There are only about one hundred and fifty thousand Roumanians in Macedonia. These Orthodox Christians show a degree of fanaticism which almost equals that of the Greeks. They are proud of their Roumanian parentage and

their Latin ancestry. They are increasing rapidly—opening schools and proselyting generally.

M. Messimy concludes with a note on the rôle of Europe. Austria, he says, is practically the ruling power in Macedonian politics; her influence is even felt in Albania, where she has established a religious protectorate on behalf of the Catholics. Europe, in accepting Austria and Russia as civil agents, seems to expect these two powers to play a preponderating part in the pacification and control of Macedonia. While Russia is engaged in a war which is absorbing all her powers and all her resources, Austria will know how to take advantage of the opportunity.

Humors of the Censorship in Macedonia.

An English traveler, Mr. Watson-Dodge, has recently returned from Macedonia, where he spent some time with missionaries. In the *Quiver* he relates two instances of Turkish censorship.

Early in the year, a selection of passages from the Bible, appropriate for Easter, was sent to the censor with a request for permission to print the texts on Easter cards for distribution in Armenia and Macedonia. Nothing was heard of the application for some time, and it is probable that no reply would ever have come if one of the missionaries had not called on the censor in person. The missionary was greeted like a long-lost friend (that is typically Turkish). The missionary pressed his business. The apparent meaning and every hidden meaning of every verse had to be explained at length; a short sermon had to be preached, in fact, about each line of every text. The censor passed most of the passages, but stuck at "Love one another." Such precepts, if followed by the people, or even by the European powers, would end the Turk's day in Europe.

The other story concerns a suspicious telegram which the Turkish censor could not understand.

The Turk is no fool, and yet his unparalleled suspicion often makes him act with absurdity. Mr. Bond, of the mission at Monastir, once had an amusing experience. A reunion of the missionaries in European Turkey was to take place at Philippopolis, in Bulgaria, but because of the condition of the country at the time, the staff at Monastir elected to remain at its post and did not attend. On the day of the meeting, Mr. Bond sent a telegram to the assembly reading, "Greeting in the name of the Lord." The telegraph clerk accepted the message and the payment. Three days later a police officer called at the mission. He talked about the weather for so long that Mr. Bond was obliged to ask him his business. He had come to ascertain who this Lord was. Mr. Bond explained to him at length. The Turk seemed to understand, but still he asked if the Lord was a Russian or an Austrian. "No," the missionary replied, "he was a Jew." The Turk went away, but called again the next day, and asked if Mr. Bond would kindly put his statements in writing for the commanding officer. Mr. Bond obliged the policeman with a brief statement as to who the Lord Jesus Christ was, but the telegram was never sent, nor was the money ever refunded.

THE AMERICAN RHODES SCHOLARS AT OXFORD.

THE friends of the forty-three American students who have just completed their first term as Rhodes scholars at the University of Oxford, England, are interested in learning of their experiences and impressions in their new academic environment. These men, it will be remembered, were selected after sharp competition and rigorous examinations, and in every sense are well qualified to represent American scholarship at England's ancient seat of learning. The London correspondent of the *New York Tribune* contributed to that journal in December last an account of the experiences of the American Rhodes scholars, which is reprinted in the February number of the *Educational Review*. Their American friends will be glad to learn that everybody at Oxford speaks well of them, and that there is no prejudice apparent against them. The *Tribune's* correspondent says that they are happy in their new life, frank in their recognition of what is useful and beneficial to them, and not disposed to be critical nor to look a gift horse in the mouth. Each of the Rhodes scholars has an annual allowance of £300 (\$1,500) from the Rhodes fund, and this enables them to live comfortably, but not extravagantly, in the colleges, and to have a margin in reserve for vacation journeys.

THEIR SOCIAL RELATIONS.

The *Tribune's* correspondent was curious to learn what had made the deepest impression on these forty-three American students, who have come from every section of the United States. He found that it was the social life within the colleges and in the university town. The men are impressed with what may be called the family life of the colleges and with the democratic spirit of the place. The barriers are broken down and the students are brought into intimate relations with one another and with their instructors. At Brasenose College, for example, four Americans,—from Georgia, Delaware, New York, and Oklahoma,—have been taken into a large family of dons and undergraduates, and are made welcome in all the rooms. "There are no cliques, there is no snobbishness. Men meet on a common level of equality, breakfast and take lunch together, rub against one another, and become tolerant and flexible. The students are brought into close contact with their instructors and tutors, and have more intimate relations with them than the conditions of American university life allow. At Oriel, Mr. Rhodes' own college, there is another group of three American students,—from

Iowa, Maryland, and South Dakota,—and the social feeling is equally good. Mr. Young's success as a jumper in the sports was considered an honorable event for the college, just as the fine running of Mr. Schutt, the Cornell man from New York, was the subject of hearty congratulations all around, at Brasenose."

PUTTING UP WITH IRKSOME RESTRICTIONS.

The thing that is most distasteful to the majority of the American students is the traditional discipline of the colleges. The average age of the Americans is twenty-two; they are, with few exceptions, tall, broad-shouldered men, and while they are entering Oxford at a time of life when seniors are receiving their diplomas at Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Brown, Columbia, and Cornell, they are treated at Oxford as inexperienced boys, work with tutors at their elbows, and are confined and disciplined if they are outside the gates after hours. Some of these men have been valedictorians of American colleges, like Mr. Nixon, a graduate of Wesleyan University, who is now at Balliol; some of them have been teachers, like Mr. Verner, of South Carolina, who is now of Christ Church; and at least one, Mr. Scholz, has been a college lecturer, and is fitting himself at Worcester for an important chair in the University of Wisconsin. As the *Tribune* correspondent well says, for thoughtful, mature men of this order, the restraining influences of paternal government must be irksome. "Some of them say that they dislike the restrictions on their liberty, but there is no evidence that they are seriously irritated or annoyed. They are quick to catch the humor of the thing, and describe the colleges as 'kindergartens for adults,' or as academic nurseries with awkward tutors and ugly proctors in place of governesses and nursemaids. The majority are amused, and in a tolerant spirit accommodate themselves to their new environment. One of the common phrases among them is 'playing the game.' They plume themselves on their skill in adapting themselves to new conditions, and putting up with restrictions which they consider unnecessary and beneath their dignity. There is something, after all, in the American virtue of flexibility and accommodation."

WHAT AMERICANS CAN GET AT OXFORD.

Of the 43 representatives of as many States in the Union, 13 have entered for law, 9 for classics, 8 for history (ancient or modern), 3 for science, 4 for modern languages, 3 for English studies, 1 for theology, and 2 are undetermined,

with a trend toward law. The preference shown for law may be regarded not only as a proof of the instinctive American leaning toward the profession which is the main avenue leading into public life, but also as a tribute to the fine equipment of the Oxford school of law, which has been regarded by some Oxford men as the greatest school of its kind in the world. The reputation of Oxford as a great classical school is also responsible, no doubt, for the large number of American scholars who have elected Latin and Greek as their subjects. Some of the Americans are also making good use of the facilities afforded for the study of history at Oxford.

It seems, from a statement of the *Tribune* correspondent, that the American students have already found, after attending the Oxford Union and listening to some of the debates, that the

students at English universities do not learn to "think on their feet," as American students do, in recitation rooms and debating halls. They admit, however, that while the Oxford system may not help to make men fluent in talk, it may promote habits of thought. Under that system the students attend many lectures and have only a single recitation a week. The tutors and literary advisers that surround them direct their reading and soften the asperities of their manners by thoughtful counsel.

Although the Americans have been welcomed at Oxford, the dons make no attempt to conceal their opinion that Mr. Rhodes made a great mistake in undertaking to educate Germans, Americans, and British colonials at Oxford on terms of equality with Englishmen. There is clearly a lack of sympathy with Mr. Rhodes' motive.

SOME RESULTS OF THE WELSH REVIVAL.

THE national and wonderful religious quickening among the Welsh people, which is described so graphically by Mr. Stead in a contributed article in this number of the REVIEW, has been exciting much comment in the reviews and daily journals of Great Britain, and indeed of the world in general. The weekly edition of the *Times*, of London, finds the whole movement finely characteristic of the Welsh people, with their emotional temperament, love for music and oratory, and warm-hearted impulsive lives. Summing up his impressions of the results of the revival, the writer in question says:

Suppose we first hear the critic. "Remember," he tells you,—and I well remember,—"the revival of 1858-59. It was as great in fire and extent as this. The chief figure in that revival himself soon lapsed into an unbroken callousness, and his name was not held in honor, while in Cardiganshire, the cradle and center of the movement, a few months revealed a trail of immorality left by the revival, and showed how closely kin are sympathy and sensuality, emotion and lust. Then, as now, the excitement threw many off their balance, and condemned them to end their days in rayless mania. The net result was bad—the people, strung up by an untrustworthy fanaticism, soon fell back into an immovable indifference, and dissent itself was left enfeebled and palsied." Such criticism is in the air. There is some truth, but not all the truth, in such an estimate of the revival, and those who know intimately the mining valleys of South Wales, and, alas, the squalid, brutal lives of many of the toilers, must be profoundly thankful for any influence that can awaken and startle them to the thought and the hope of better things. The weariness of well-doing is the strain under which so many fail. That strain is increased by the unwisdom that confounds innocent amusement with wrong-doing, and regards football and lying as equally heinous. The

revival does give an impulse to better things. If its influence wanes and fails, it will be for the lack of that sustained nurture and spiritual discipline which are essential to moral growth. But in spite of all the inevitable failures and lapses, a revival which makes men sunk in ignorance and depravity feel even for one short week the spell and power of a noble ideal cannot and must not be condemned.

The *Saturday Review* finds many of the same old familiar features in this revival. There is, it says, the same old orthodoxy, the old fervor, and something also of the old, narrow, Puritan conception of the religious life.

On the other hand, certain superficial differences present themselves, due mainly to the spirit of the age. There is comparatively little said of eternal wrath; there are few of those uncouth manifestations of popular excitement, which unquestionably prejudiced educated opinion against the older Methodism; there is less powerful preaching, and more lay initiation. Over and above all this, however, it is clear that a religious conception directs the present movement to which the men of the earlier revivals were strangers. Their minds were fixed on the idea of individual conversion. They rushed to the chapels and field preachings to hang on the lips of a great orator who proclaimed salvation. In the movement of to-day the underlying idea seems to be the public confession of sin, and the salvation not so much of the individual as of the community. In a word, this remarkable revival is a protest against an individualistic and sectarian conception of religion, and a struggle to return to a corporate and positive Christianity.

"One thing," concludes the writer of this editorial, "is certain. Welsh religion can never again become as individualistic or sectarian as it has been in the past; and the Catholic concep-

tion of Christianity which the revival has reintroduced into Wales may in time have ecclesiastical and politic consequences of lasting importance." A study of the revival, by a Welshman, appears in the *Independent*. Most of the religious advance brought about by the great revival of 1859 in Cardiganshire, he tells us, had been lost and a new spiritual impulse was necessary. After describing some of the sources of power in the personality of Mr. Evan Roberts, this writer (Mr. David Williams) notes some of the special characteristics of the revival, as follows :

The first and most noticeable is the absence of any effort to excite the fears. It is a revival without a hell, and the love of God for his children is the great thought presented. The next thing noticed is the high place given to prayer and song. The revival has made the prayer meeting the great working service of the Church. It appeals primarily to the young people, but it also reaches all ages, and a woman of ninety-four years was converted at Abercynffig. For the first time, women have been given an important work to do. Bands of young women accompany the evangelists to sing, and some have developed into effective speakers, winning many converts without the aid of the men. The humility of great ministers is worthy of mention. They give way to the young, unordained evangelists and assist them in every way.

The revival, he contends, is sure to kill sectarianism, which has been the bane of Welsh Prot-

estantism in the past. It is doing many other good things. In fact, the revival is likely to exert a wide and wholesome influence. Some of its benefits Mr. Williams recounts :

It is reviving the churches even in communities where practically all are church members. It is bringing an era of good feeling by healing all differences between church members, and some of the most sensational incidents of the meetings have been the public apologies and adjustments of differences. The addition of thirty-five thousand members to the various churches has roused them to the greatest activity along all lines. But the movement reaches further,—liquor-drinking has been greatly reduced in many places, and a number of taverns are closing for want of patronage. Arrests for drunkenness have been reduced fully 75 per cent. in some towns. The theaters have been closed in the middle of the season, and many theatrical troupes have abandoned the principality. Clubs and dancing halls have been deserted. Quarreling and profanity are heard in the streets no longer, crimes and misdemeanors are rarer, the drivers in the pits and the carters are more humane. A reformation that benefits dumb animals is complete. In the Rhondda Valley, where so many forms of vice prevailed, a great change has come. But the reformation has gone still further: pugilists have discontinued their meetings, a football club at Abertawe has disbanded because six of its members have been converted, and even more innocent pleasures and sports have been forced to give way before the Puritan wave. A mass of unbelievers do not yet attend the meetings, but even they seem overawed, and there is a hush over little Wales.

THE SCOTTISH SAINT: JOHN KNOX.

PRINCIPAL LINDSAY takes the quartercentenary of the birthday of John Knox—which is to be celebrated some time this year—as the text for a most interesting little monograph on the great Scottish reformer in the *London Quarterly Review*. It gives us a vivid picture of the great ecclesiastical statesman from the early days when, as a raw youth, he stood behind George Wishart with a two-handed sword ready to cut down any one who attacked the reformer, until the time when, full of days and of honor, he was laid in his grave with the famous tribute paid by Regent Morton, "Here lies one who neither feared nor flattered any flesh." Dr. Lindsay thinks that Knox was really born in 1515, not in 1505. No one seems to know the day, or even the month, of his birth. He married twice. His second wife was only sixteen when he was either forty-nine or fifty-nine.

THE "MONSTROUS REGIMEN OF WOMEN."

Dr. Lindsay admits that Knox made a great mistake when his anger against Bloody Mary of England and the Queen Regent of Scotland led

him to publish his famous "First Blast of the Trumpet Against the Monstrous Regimen of Women." He says that this book did more to mar Knox's future work than any other action of his. The pamphlet did not appear till Elizabeth had ascended the throne, and she accepted it as a direct insult, which she never forgave. Dr. Lindsay's excuse for the great reformer in this matter is curious :

But Knox was a Scotchman, and had to place particular facts under general principles, and that made the mischief. The English Queen never forgave the vehement pamphleteer, nor that the "Blast" was a continual obstacle to a complete understanding between the Scottish reformer and his English allies. It was the worse for Knox and for Scotland, for the reign of women had begun. Charles V., Francis I., and Henry VIII. had passed away, and the destinies of Europe were to be in the hands of Elizabeth, Catherine de Medici, Mary Stuart, and Philip of Spain, the most womanish of the four.

JOHN KNOX AS A GALLEY SLAVE.

When Knox was taken prisoner, on the capitulation of St. Andrews to the French fleet, he



JOHN KNOX.

(The great Scottish reformer, who "neither feared nor flattered any flesh.")

was, in flagrant violation of the articles of capitulation, sent to the galleys :

For nineteen months he had to endure this living death, which for long-drawn-out torture can only be compared with what the Christians of the earliest centuries had to suffer when they were condemned to the mines. He had to sit chained with four or six others to the rowing benches, which were set at right angles to the side of the ship, without change of posture by day, and compelled to sleep, still chained, under the benches by night ; exposed to the elements day and night alike ; enduring the lash of the overseer, who paced up and down the gangway which ran between the two lines of benches ; wearing the coarse canvas shirt and serge jacket of the rower ; feeding on the insufficient meals of coarse biscuit and porridge of oil and beans ; chained along with the vilest malefactors.

SCOTTISH PENITENCE AND GRATITUDE.

Principal Lindsay publishes two curious extracts from the Scottish liturgy of Knox's time. The penitent confession was to the effect that the Lord might worthily and justly have given the Scottish nation over to be slaves to the French "because for the maintanance of their friendship we have not feared to breake our solemn oathes made to others." The gratitude was expressed to England for ridding Scotland of the French. This sentiment is so seldom found in Scottish references to her Southern neighbors that I quote it in full :

And seeing that when we by our owne power were altogether unable to have freed ourselves from the

tyranny of strangers, and from the bondage and thraldom pretended against us, Thou of Thine especial goodness didst move the hearts of our neighbours (of whom we had deserved no such favour) to take upon them the common burden with us, and for our deliverance not only to spend the lives of many, but also to hazarde the estate and tranquillity of their Realme and commonwealth : Grant unto us, O Lord, that with such reverence we may remember Thy benefits received, that after this in our defeaute we never enter into hostilitie against the Realme and nation of England.

AN APPRECIATION OF KNOX'S CHARACTER.

In concluding his essay upon the man whose voice was "able in one hour to put more life into us than five hundred trumpets continually blustering in our ears," Principal Lindsay says :

More than any other man he was the maker of modern Scotland and the typical Scotsman. His perfervid genius, his fondness for abstract reasoning which often led him astray, his metaphysical theology, are all Scotch, and cannot be appreciated by outsiders. So is the mystic streak in his character. He had not the full-blooded humanity of Luther, nor his overflowing sympathies for men, women, children, birds, and beasts ; he would have scorned the great German's lute-playing, gift of song, and readiness to tell the secrets of his soul to all and sundry. He was a man of the people, not a reserved French aristocrat like the reformer of Geneva ; his invective sounds coarse beside the calm, polished sarcasm of Calvin—the bludgeon to the rapier. But he was unique among the great Reformation leaders in these three things : he had a gift of genuine humor which none of them possessed ; he had a genuine democratic instinct which trusted the people to the fullest extent ; no man matched him in personal courage.

WAS KNOX AN "HONEST JOURNALIST?"

In the *Scottish Historical Review*, Mr. Andrew Lang deals with Knox as an historian, and subjects his history of the Reformation to very vigorous criticism. His conclusion is that, as a party pamphleteer, in 1559, Knox exceeded the limits of honest journalism. His plan was to deny the existence of any scheme against "the Authority," though he aimed at nothing less ; to deny the intrigues with England in which he was taking the foremost part ; and to accuse the regent of perfidy, by asserting the existence of terms which assuredly did not exist in the treaty of July 24. Knox, Mr. Lang believes, was occasionally too much given to following out the Loyala prescription that the end always justifies the means. The great reformer had a personal, as well as an ecclesiastical spite against Queen Mary. This made him almost always, in a certain degree, a special pleader. But he never swerved from his purpose. "In his 'History,' as far as I can discover," Mr. Lang concludes, "he deliberately concealed the truth on several essential points, and sometimes accused the regent of perfidy when she was not guilty."

THE GEOGRAPHY OF MANCHURIA.

“A COMPARISON of the campaign now being waged by the Japanese with that carried on ten years ago in the war with China leaves a very strong impression that the nature and direction of the army movements are being controlled by the surface of the country. The enemy in the former war came from the south; in this war, from the north. The former enemy was weak; this one, strong. Yet the movements of the opposing armies have been so nearly identical

far north as Montreal. This is approximately at the center of the country, so that the northern boundary reaches the latitude of the southern part of Hudson Bay. Vladivostok is in the latitude of Boston; though, to complete the scheme of analogy with American cities, Boston should be some 200 miles farther east.

In general the climate of Manchuria is colder than that which is found in like latitudes in Europe and in North America. The winters are dry; the summer monsoons bring drenching rains. Forty-five days of continuous rain have been known in the valley of the Usuri,—an amount sufficient to rot European crops cultivated in European style. It is said, however, that the natives have adapted their agriculture to the peculiar conditions, and there is apparently no reason why the broad valleys tributary to the Sungari should not become an agricultural country of great wealth.

The boundaries of Manchuria, Professor Fenneman holds, are very unsatisfactory. On this point he says:

This country, of less than 400,000 square miles, has 2,500 miles of frontier against Russian territory. The Amur River, running through a broad and fertile lowland,

politically divides that lowland into two parts,—Russian on the north and Chinese on the south. To those who are familiar with the history of boundary lines, such a division carries the suggestion of extreme weakness. Modern civilization has found out, as some one has said, that rivers are the diameters of communities, and not their circumferences; that trade, and with it all the rest of modern life, gravitates toward the rivers, and there mingles and thereby unifies the life of the country on both sides. Should the country along the Amur become well peopled and civilized, it would seem as impossible to preserve one sovereignty on the north and another on the south as it was to keep the Rhine river German on the one side and French on the other. Or, again, it would seem that the difficulty of maintaining separate sovereignties on the north and south sides of the Amur would be found no smaller than that of erecting separate sovereignties on the north and south sides of the Ohio and Potomac rivers. Rivers may make very good boundary lines between purely administrative divisions, such as counties within a state, or even, in so strong a central government as the United States, between States, where a man may go



THE HIGH GRAIN OF MANCHURIA.

(Showing a Russian cavalryman hidden from the enemy in a millet field.)

in the two cases that it has been well said that a strategic map of either war would serve to illustrate an account of the other.” Beginning with these sentences, Prof. N. M. Fenneman, who occupies the chair of geology in the University of Wisconsin, contributes to the *Journal of Geography* a paper on the physical and strategic geography of Manchuria. Professor Fenneman says that there are really no reliable maps of Manchuria outside of the circle of the Japanese War Department. Manchuria, he reminds us, is a country of large dimensions,—nearly 1,000 miles long from the northernmost bend of the Amur River to the Yellow Sea, on the south.

The average width is nearly 400 miles, giving an area of something less than 400,000 square miles. Accuracy is not possible on account of the contradictory nature of maps with reference to the western boundary. Port Arthur, on the Yellow Sea, is in the latitude of Washington; Mukden, in that of New York; Harbin is as

down to the river bank and cross without any experience to show that a new political division has been entered. But between independent, sovereign and possibly hostile countries, while temporary barriers in times of war, navigable rivers are fatal to continued separation in times of peace.

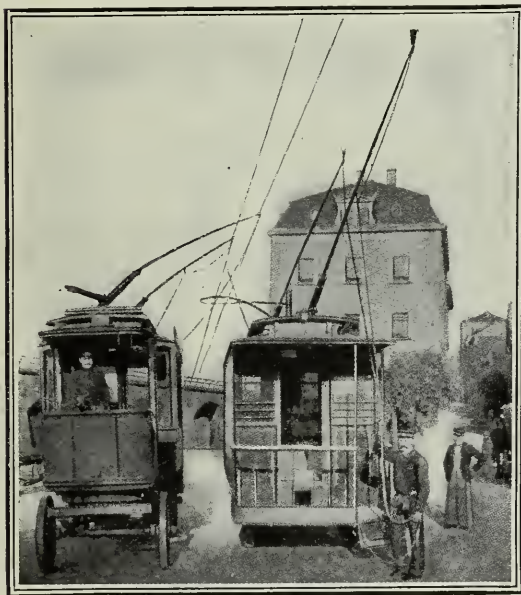
Mountain ranges, the professor concludes, are the best natural boundaries. Navigable rivers and their valleys should be in the possession of but one power. He sees no reason why Russia should not have the entire valley of the Amur.

ELECTRIC TROLLEY OMNIBUS LINES.

ON the Continent of Europe, one development of the electric trolley which as yet is unknown to the United States has been practically tested with promise of success. This is what is known as the "trackless trolley," described by Mr. George Ethelbert Walsh in *Cas-*

returns upon capital invested in railway construction. In the connection of country and suburban traffic, for which a trolley road is not feasible in many parts of Europe, this trackless trolley serves as the "missing link." While its route is permanent, its cost of construction and equipment is so low that it can operate through a sparsely settled region and still return good interest on the investment. In view of the fact that freight traffic must pay a large proportion of the profits, it should be borne in mind that the heavier cars required for this purpose are comparatively costly.

One of the most important of the trackless trolley lines in operation in Europe is the "Haidebahn," running between Dresden and Klotzsche, in Germany. This road is about two miles long, and has been in active operation for some time. Regular overhead trolley wires were strung along the highway on poles, as for an ordinary electric railway. The road-bed itself consisted of one side of the regular highway, which was smoothed out and hardened on the surface by a layer of fine stones and gravel. The cost of construction was not more than one-sixth of the ordinary cost of an electric railway of the usual type. Trolley omnibuses are running over its trackless line which have a capacity of twenty-two passengers each. These coaches are provided with broad tires, to reduce the wear and tear on the highway as much as possible. The omnibuses use about 25 per cent. more current than regular trolley cars use, but the final cost is in favor of the trackless trolley, owing to the more expensive cost of maintenance of steel-rail lines and the installation of safety devices and their operation, in addition to the saving on the cost of initial construction already noted. In winter an electric sleigh is used when snow and ice cover the road and ordinary electric omnibuses have difficulty in running. This vehicle is similar to the ordinary coach, except that the hind pair of wheels have been replaced by a pair of steel runners, and the driving wheels are fitted with tires especially designed for taking hold on slippery surfaces. The whole device was described (with an illustration) in the REVIEW of REVIEWS for April, 1903 (page 440).



ELECTRIC OMNIBUS, WITH TROLLEY POLES PULLED DOWN SO AS TO LET THE OTHER VEHICLE PASS.

sier's Magazine for February as a cross between an automobile and the electric railway. "It is not as serviceable as the electric railway in transporting passengers and freight along its lines, and it is not as mobile and independent as the automobile stage coach; but its construction and equipment are much cheaper than the former, and its efficiency is greater than that of the latter."

In view of the fact that the most serious item in the construction of the railway, as Mr. Walsh points out, is the cost of the road-bed, it would seem that some such device as the trackless trolley ought to fit in very well in those regions where traffic is not heavy enough to insure fair

THE EMPIRE OF ROTHSCHILD.

THE fact that two of the scions of the great house of Rothschild have come over from Vienna, to learn banking and finance as they are practised in America, is the occasion of an interesting article by David Graham Phillips in the March number of the *Cosmopolitan*. Mr. Phillips, in his article, gives an historical survey of the rise to power of this greatest of modern banking houses, treating the Rothschilds, indeed, as more than a banking house, but rather as a European "first-class power." The only individual in the world whom Mr. Phillips regards as probably a rival of the house of Rothschild is that master of finance and industry, John D. Rockefeller, but it is his opinion that when Mr. Rockefeller passes away his power will probably pass also. Like the power of Napoleon, it is dependent on factors that are purely personal,—individual tenacity and judgment and courage. What is it that leads us to suppose that the Rothschilds have created a real "empire?" Let Mr. Phillips answer: "Rothschilds come and Rothschilds go; Rothschild remains. The name has already stood for power longer than any other name in Europe except Romanoff. And, very probably, when Romanoff and Hohenzollern have joined Bourbon in exile, or English Saxe-Coburg and Italian Savoy and Austrian Hapsburg in puppetship, Rothschild will rule on in power or in the potentiality of power. Only the overthrow of private property rights, the foundation of the social order, could overthrow the empire of Rothschild."

BEGINNINGS AND GROWTH OF THE ROTHSCHILD
MILLIONS.

The history of the house of Rothschild goes back to the year of the French revolution. The first of the name was one Mayer Amschel, known as Rothschild (Redshield), because his father had kept, in the Jewish quarter of Frankfurt-on-the-Main, a curiosity shop with a red shield as its distinguishing sign. This little shop the youthful Amschel had transformed into a banking and commission house. He bought cotton goods in England and distributed them in Germany, and also made considerable profits from money lending. In 1806, when Napoleon was about to invade Germany, the Landgrave of Hesse had in cash about five million dollars, and he asked Amschel, of the Red Shield, to take care of it for him. Amschel sent it to his third son, Nathan Mayer, who was established at Manchester, England, as his agent for the purchase of cotton goods. The entire sum was, during the continuation of the Napoleonic era, at

the disposal of the Rothschilds for speculation. Nathan once made a boast that in one five years' term he had increased his own capital twenty-five hundred times. What that capital was no one knows; but it is believed that his father had given him for the London branch not less than one hundred thousand dollars. After Napoleon



NATHAN MAYER ROTHSCHILD (1777-1836).

(Founder of the London house.)

had been dethroned, the Rothschilds offered to repay the Landgrave of Hesse, but the offer was declined, and even interest at 5 per cent. was refused. Finally, an interest of 2 per cent. a year was agreed upon; no back payments were permitted. The heirs of the Landgrave never received their money back until 1823, when Napoleon was dead and Europe apparently at peace. This was what gave the Rothschild family its start, but the money itself was only a single factor, and without what Mr. Phillips calls the

combination of coolness, judgment, and impetuous daring that characterized Nathian Rothschild, it never would have conferred preëminent power on those who controlled it. One immediate result of the understanding was that the house of Rothschild became bankers and financial agents to all the important governments and sovereigns of Europe. Of the five sons of Amschel, the third, Nathan, to whom we have already referred, developed, as Mr. Phillips shows, into a greater financier than his father. The London branch, which Nathian established when hardly more than a boy, is to-day, after a hundred years, still the greatest English bank, with the single exception of the Bank of England.

One incident related by Mr. Phillips goes far to reveal the prominent characteristics of Nathan Rothschild. Nathan was a spectator of the battle of Waterloo. He stayed on the battlefield until he saw with his own eyes Blucher's reinforcement of Wellington's exhausted army and the retreat of the French. Then he rode with all speed to Ostend, paid a boatman five thousand francs to take him across the Channel in stormy weather, landed on the English coast, and drove at full speed to London. What followed is well told by Mr. Phillips :

Before him to London, indeed to all Europe, had gone the rumor that Wellington had been routed, that the Corsican was now more resplendent than he had been at any time since Friedland. Without pausing to change his dress or to eat, Nathan slouched into the

stock exchange, shambled up to the pillar where he always stood, leaned there with drooped shoulders and with garments and face bearing the evidences of his perils and privations. He said not a word ; he simply stood, a statue of defeat, disaster, and despair. Every one knew that the Rothschild stake was on the Allies. That statue seemed to them to tell the whole story. They sold—sold frantically—English funds, the funds of all the Allies. And Nathan's agents, acting under orders which they themselves did not know the origin of, bought—bought—bought.

When Nathan shuffled away to get sleep, Rothschild was to finance what Napoleon would have been to politics had he won Waterloo.

The Rothschild who is now the active head of the house is Baron Salamon Albert, of Vienna. It is said that a policy of merciless weeding out of incompetents has been adopted. It is the invariable rule to put every male child born to the house through a system of training somewhat like that which the original Rothschild enforced upon his five sons. If the boy show taste and talent for finance, he is promoted and otherwise encouraged ; if he prove an idler or incompetent, a fortune is bestowed upon him outright or in trust, and he is sent out to shift for himself. So numerous have been the intermarriages, and so faithful have the precepts of old Amschel to remain united as a family, and to look on wealth as a perpetual family trust, been heeded, that whenever a Rothschild dies the bulk of the estate, as a usual thing, goes back to the treasury of the house.

ENGLAND'S APPROACHING DEFICIT.

AS a change in the British ministry draws near, the English reviews are more and more occupied with articles dealing with various aspects of government, in which the Liberals join issue with the Conservatives now in power. The February numbers, especially, contain several pointedly written attacks on the fiscal management of the Balfour government. Under the suggestively alliterative title, "A Decade of Decadence in Finance," Lord Welby contributes to the *Contemporary Review* for February an incisive analysis of the present government's record in national finance. The present ministry (counting the Salisbury and Balfour governments as one) may be said to have taken office in 1895. It has, therefore, held power for ten years,—a term much longer than that of any ministry since Lord Liverpool's, in the early part of the nineteenth century. Throughout this long period the ministry has had behind it a large and a docile majority in the House of Commons. A

majority which, as Lord Welby points out, "could not be shaken by the disasters and blunders of the war in South Africa, by the insufficiency of the proposals for army reform, nor by the revolutionary policy of protection preached by Mr. Chamberlain and indorsed by the prime minister." Lord Welby further shows that the present ministry enjoyed exceptional financial advantage at the moment of taking office, having, as an addition to the ordinary revenue, the income from death duties brought in by Sir William Harcourt's famous measure of 1894. This income added about £4,000,000 a year to the national revenues. Reviewing the course of the ten years' administration, Lord Welby finds that the first three years of the period were remarkably prosperous. There was no increase of taxation, but the new death duties came into full play. The revenue derived from taxes was increased by more than £11,500,000 in three years, of which £8,550,000 represents approximately the natural

growth of revenue apart from the effect of the death duties. Furthermore, it appears that the consuming and saving power of the nation increased three times as fast as the growth of population. Lord Welby does not fail to direct the attention of his readers to the rare opportunity which fell to the good fortune of the ministry. "One can imagine how a great financier, how Sir Robert Peel, or Mr. Gladstone, would have used it for the amendment of our system of taxation and for the relief of the working classes. With its aid an old-age pension scheme might have been possible, while a mere fragment of it would have swept the tea duty and given the nation that free breakfast-table so often advocated."

GRANTS TO VESTED INTERESTS.

But instead of using any portion of that great saving for the relief of the working classes and of the poor, the government, in the first place, increased the expenditure to the extent of £9,000,000 a year; next, they gave away £1,850,000, the greater part in doles to the land, a smaller part in exemptions from the death duties. Summing up the financial result of ten years of power, Lord Welby declares that while the government in the earlier years enjoyed record revenues and record surpluses, it really gave altogether £2,000,000 to the landed interests and the established Church, including in that sum a dole given to the clergy. After 1898, there were deficits instead of surpluses. While Lord Welby admits that deficits could hardly have been avoided during the Boer war, he makes it clear that they did not cease with the war, while the year of peace, 1903-04, showed a deficit of £5,415,000,—a sum far greater than any deficit which has occurred in any year of peace since 1840. This in spite of the fact that the taxes, imposed nominally for war but still retained, realized for the exchequer in that year between twenty-four and twenty-five million pounds. The rise in military and naval expenditure accounts in the main for this condition of affairs. In the last year of Liberal government these services cost £35,600,000. Last year they had risen to £72,300,000, having more than doubled in ten years.

THE NATION IS STATIONARY.

Lord Welby declares that it is a grave question whether unrest in politics at home and the great increase of taxation have not checked the orderly progress of the nation. During the ten years of Conservative government, the population has increased 10 per cent. If the consuming power and the savings of the people increased in proportion to the increase of population, the

increase in the produce of taxes should be, roughly, in the ratio of 10 per cent. yearly. If it increases in less than that ratio, the consuming power is diminishing; if it increases in that ratio, the consuming power is stationary. It appears that in the first three years of the present government, the revenues increased in a greater ratio than population by a yearly average of £1,900,000; in the last seven years, by only a yearly average of £1,600,000. Thus, the increase in the consuming power and in the savings of the people in the last seven years has done little more than keep pace with the increase in population. Lord Welby believes that the conclusion that the nation is stationary is confirmed by evidence of the dullness of England's home trade, which means diminished power of consumption at home. He finds an additional cause for uneasiness in the practical annihilation of the sinking fund. He predicts an absolute deficit of between two and three million pounds on the budget of 1904-05, even if the estimate of ordinary revenue is realized and that of ordinary expenditure not exceeded.

IMMENSE NAVAL AND MILITARY EXPENDITURES.

In conclusion, Lord Welby declares that the efficiency of the navy has been obtained at unnecessary cost, if it be true that as many as one hundred and fifteen cruisers, completed at a cost of between thirty and forty million pounds within the last few years, and which should be in the prime of their power, are now held to be useless for war purposes. He further points out that the present naval expenditures of France, Germany, and Russia combined are calculated to be rather more than £35,000,000, while that of the United Kingdom is estimated for next year at £36,889,000; and if the sum to be raised by a loan for naval works be added to this, the total naval expenditure will be £42,000,000. The cost of the army, too, has increased in seven years from £41,000,000 to £75,000,000. Lord Welby asks whether the cost of this so-called insurance of the government has not really crippled the nation's means of insurance against ignorance, poverty, and disease at home, and thus retarded the progress of the well-being of the nation.

Finally he asks, Is not this extravagant expenditure reducing the reserve of power on which England must rely in an emergency? Is it not exhausting to no good purpose the national resources? Is not taxation weighing on the springs of industry, and is it not checking the consuming and saving power of the people? On all these points Lord Welby believes that there is evidence which, if not conclusive, is sufficient to arouse anxiety.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICAN PROTECTION.

THE British tariff controversy occasions much writing in the English reviews on the subject of protection in the United States. The February number of the *Westminster Review* contains an article on "Some Results of Free Trade in England and Protection in the United States" by Anthony Pulbrook. The writer begins his comparison with reference to the fact that of late years the value of exports from the United States has enormously exceeded that of the imports. This, he says, arises not from the export of manufactures, but of products of the soil, breadstuffs, cotton, dairy produce, and petroleum, and in effect means that the United States has sold that amount of merchandise out of stock more than it has bought. In Great Britain, on the other hand, exactly the converse is true,—England's imports exceed her exports. But when the earnings of British shipping are taken into account, it is found that her commerce with other nations has not been so unsatisfactory as would appear from the figures of imports and exports alone. This writer does not lose sight of the fact that the exports of the United States are mostly carried by British shipping, which means a deduction from England's gross losses on the one hand, and a diminution of the gross profits of the United States on the other.

The position of England in comparison with the United States is likened by Mr. Pulbrook to that of a successful tradesman whose prosperity meets with opposition in the shape of his competitor trying to secure his business by carrying

on what is termed a "cutting trade,"—*i.e.*, selling at a loss to obtain business. The tradesman against whom such tactics are employed will naturally suffer a falling off in trade. England now seems to be getting over her depression, and, in the opinion of Mr. Pulbrook, should continue her policy and fight to the death any attempt to protect her trade by duties on food, since such a proceeding, by increasing cost of production, means the imposing of duties on British manufactures by all her customers, and it will only make it easier for her competitors to compete with her, and especially in unprotected countries, and England's trade amounts to far more in unprotected countries than in those that are protected.

The United States supplies England with her staple food, wheat, at half the price that it was when free trade was adopted, and is now paying twenty-five cents a bushel to import wheat from Canada to supply England with flour. One result of protection in the United States, according to this writer, has been to place the United States in the power of Canada. Wheat-growing can be carried on in Canada at a greater profit than in the United States. If Canada were to say to England, we will levy no duties on your manufactures if you take our products on the same conditions, Mr. Pulbrook declares that the migration from the United States would increase tenfold, and Canada would get the principal thing she desires—population. This would enable Canada to compete with the world.

A BOTANICAL LABORATORY IN THE DESERT.

THE attention of American botanists was attracted to the desert vegetation of our great Southwest by the famous Death Valley Expedition of 1891. Ever since that time, Mr. Frederick V. Coville, working under the auspices of the Smithsonian Institution, has been a close student of the plants of that region. Two years ago, the Carnegie Institution adopted a plan, which originated with Mr. Coville, for the establishment of a laboratory to be devoted to the special study of desert vegetation. The institution appointed as an advisory board Mr. Coville himself and Dr. D. T. MacDougal, who chose the site for the laboratory after a careful personal examination of all the most promising areas, including the deserts of Texas, northern Chihuahua and Sonora in Mexico, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. The site finally agreed upon was in the vicinity

of Tucson, in southern Arizona. Writing in the *Popular Science Monthly* for February, Prof. Francis E. Lloyd, of Columbia University, gives it as his personal opinion, after spending the greater part of the past summer at the Desert Botanical Laboratory, that the action of the committee was well advised and is fully justified. Professor Lloyd takes occasion to give an account of the laboratory and its surroundings from his own point of view.

The city of Tucson, with a population of 10,000, is situated in the valley of Santa Cruz, at an elevation of 2,390 feet above sea-level. The climate is hot, though dry and bracing. The laboratory itself, constructed of volcanic rock, is situated on the northerly face of one of the Tucson mountains, about two miles from the city. It is not at all unusual for the mercury



LOOKING NORTH FROM THE DESERT LABORATORY.

to register 100° to 105° F., but there is so little discomfort attendant on the heat that the thermometer is usually disregarded. The humidity on many occasions during six weeks of July and August of 1904 was as low as 7 per cent. The only feature of discomfort described by Professor Lloyd is the intense illumination, which, for some persons, requires dark glasses; but on the volcanic hills the dark color of the ground affords relief.

The laboratory is well equipped for its purposes, and has an abundant water-supply. Regarding the considerations which led to the planting of the laboratory in this particular region, Professor Lloyd says:

Aside from the conditions for study offered by the desert laboratory as such, the matter with which the student is especially concerned is the plant life. In seeking for the right place to plant a laboratory for the study of desert vegetation, it is obvious that some practical conception of what such a vegetation is had to be formulated by the advisory board. It was necessary for this board to find a locality with a desert climate and possessed of as rich and varied a flora as possible, while still of a distinctly desert character. Since it is the chief object of the laboratory to study "drought-resistant vegetation," it would have been absurd to put the laboratory in an out-and-out desert, and but little better to have selected a semi-arid region with a rich flora. Nor would it have been foresighted to have chosen a locality which might sooner or later be threatened by irrigation. The conditions above stated may, of course,

be met in many places, but scarcely better than on the hills west of Tucson, and on the adjacent slope and mesa. The general character of the vegetation here is in the main similar to that of the mesa and rocky ridge of the whole territory between Texas and western Arizona, but is, also, within the limits of distribution of the saguaro or giant cactus (*Cercus giganteus*). It is, therefore, representative in this important respect of a very wide stretch of country which is of an undoubtedly arid character, the plants of which are, with the supply of water derived from a meager rainfall and a little snow, able through long periods of drought to sustain their powers of growth unimpaired.

Two weeks after the advent of the rains the ground is clothed with many richly colored and often fragrant annuals and small perennials. Some of the latter, as, for example, an *Encelia* and a *Cassia*, persist through the drought, a hardness explained in part, at least, by the felt-like protective layers on the leaves.

Professor Lloyd proceeds to describe some of the more striking of these desert plants, and remarks in conclusion that the structure and development of scarcely one of them is properly understood; in fact, the peculiar physiology of these plants has scarcely been touched upon. Physiological and anatomical-physiological studies of wide extent may be carried on at this laboratory. This is one of the fruitful fields of investigation laid open by the Carnegie Institution.

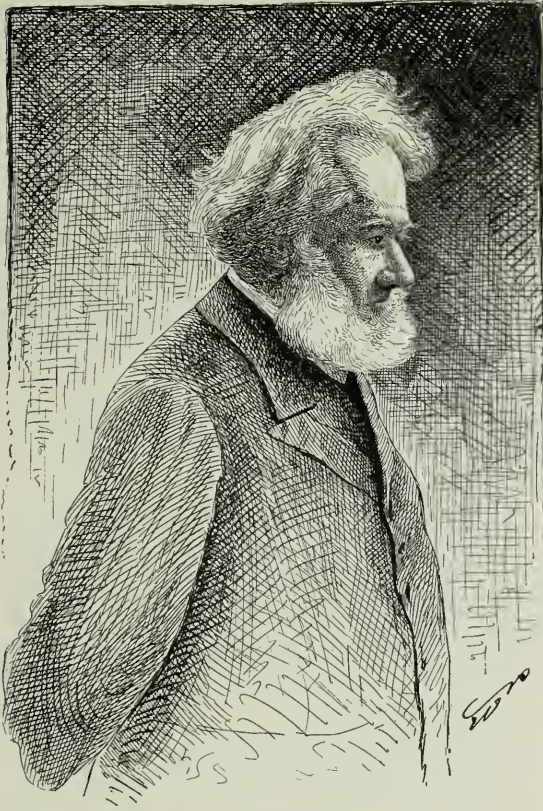
HENRIK IBSEN, AS SEEN IN HIS OWN COUNTRY.

WHILE the venerable Henrik Ibsen has temporarily regained his health, his active career as an author has been completed, and the people of Scandinavia are paying honors to him as to one who has actually passed away. His great age and the fruitfulness of his career are the subject of a sketch in the Swedish magazine *Varia* (Stockholm), from the pen of a well-known Swedish writer, Jesse Bröchner. There will be, says this writer, considerable new

a druggist in a small town not far from his native village. It was during this period that he wrote his first drama, "Catalina," besides other poems. The young Ibsen tried in vain to secure a publisher for this poem in Christiania. It was during these early years that he became acquainted with the famous scholar, Björnson, and other rising authors, and he himself made his way to the capital in a year or two. His first drama was placed by his friend Ole Schulerud, and sold for fifteen dollars in cash, another fifteen dollars to be paid when four hundred copies had been sold. Unfortunately, the publishing house failed before the contract could be fulfilled. Ibsen's present publisher, the Gyldendalske Bogforlag, of Copenhagen, has up to the present issued one hundred and four editions of his works, some of them reaching a sale of more than ten thousand copies, which, considering the fact that the population of Denmark and Norway together does not exceed five millions, is an excellent sale. "Brandt" and "Per Gynt" head the list, with fifteen editions each.

Ibsen's troubles as a dramatic author began early. Through the friendship of the famous musician, Ole Bull, he was employed in the state theater at Bergen. He made several short trips to Copenhagen and Dresden in the interest of the theater, and then signed a contract for five years at an annual salary of three hundred dollars. A long period of practical work for this theater developed the natural technical skill of Ibsen. Each year he brought out a new play, and himself made the sketches for the outfit—even designing the costumes, many of which are still preserved. It was during this period that he met Pastor Thoreson, whose daughter Susanne he afterward married. After five years' work in Bergen, he became the dramatic author of the Norske Theater of Christiania, where, however, he was unable to make much progress, through lack of sympathy and funds. It was terrible, he writes. The highest salary received for one of his works at that time, which took more than a year to accomplish, was only two hundred and twenty-seven dollars. The expenses were great, and he soon became practically a bankrupt. He presented a petition to the Storting for a yearly stipend of four hundred dollars, in order that he might carry on the work for the state. This was refused him, however, and it was not until 1866 that he received the yearly income he had asked for at the earlier date. This final success was probably chiefly due to a letter he wrote to King Karl XV., from Rome:

The first fruits of my journey have now been pre-



HENRIK IBSEN.

(From a hitherto unpublished photograph.)

data about Ibsen's life published upon his passing away, but the important details of his life have already been fixed in their proper places in the frame which surrounds his portrait. And yet there are depths in the author which no being has ever fathomed—not even his wife, his faithful companion for half a century.

Ibsen left home at the age of fifteen years. His parents' house presented no possibilities for study, and the young man, in order to get some spare time and opportunity, hired himself out to

sented to the public in the form of a dramatic poem, entitled "Brandt," which has recently been published at Copenhagen. Only a few weeks after its publication it began to attract attention outside the country, and yet, alas, I cannot live on thanksgivings and praises. The returns from the publishers are insufficient to make other journeys possible, or to secure my personal support in future. At the suggestion of a friend in Christiania, I take this uncommon liberty of appealing directly to your Majesty. . . . I fight not for an existence free from care, but for a life-work which I believe and know that God has given me, a life-work which seems to me to be most important and most necessary for Norway, in order that the people may be awakened and called to greater, nobler thoughts. My King is, therefore, my only and my last hope. It is in the royal hands of your Majesty whether I keep silence and submit to my fate, or whether I can continue my work.

The writer of this article does not attempt to give biographical details—they are plentiful. He tells, however, some interesting things about how Ibsen worked. The great Norwegian, he declares, was never an amateur. He was always at work. He enjoyed, especially, his hour spent in the cafés over his coffee; but this was not mere enjoyment—it was work, and his personal friends were accustomed never to disturb him, not even with a salutation, when they saw him

in the café. Ibsen himself used to remark that he never went to the café merely to drink beer or take lunch; but to collect his thoughts. He became wholly absorbed in his characters. He lived with the personalities he created. How comes it, he was asked by a friend, that you call the heroine of "The Doll's House" Nora. "Well," said Ibsen, confidentially, "her name was really Eleonora, but she was the pet of the family, and therefore everybody called her Nora."

An interesting and significant speech made by the great author during the summer of 1887, when he returned from his Danish villa at Stockholm, is quoted by this author. In it, Ibsen declared that he believed absolutely in the evolution of the soul. The poetry, philosophy, and religion, he declared, would some day unite and constitute a new, great, living power, of which this generation could have no clear idea. Replying to the charge of pessimism, Ibsen replied that this was a true one, in so far as he did not believe in the eternity of human ideals. Yet, he continued, he was an optimist in so far as he always believed that ideals have the capacity of evolution. These ideas he has developed in his dramatic poem, "Emperor and Galilean."

HOW TO LIVE LONG—BY SOME OF THOSE WHO HAVE DONE IT.

THE editor of the new English monthly, the *Grand Magazine*, believes that "it takes a very clever man to live to be eighty." He has, therefore, questioned a number of people who have been clever enough to live beyond the allotted space of threescore-years-and-ten as to how they did it, and in the first issue of his magazine (March) he records the replies.

The oldest member of the House of Lords is Lord Gwydyr, who is now within a few months of being ninety-five. Lord Gwydyr says that he attributes his longevity to "non-smoking, with plenty of outdoor exercise, and moderation in eating and drinking." In answering more detailed questions, this nonogenarian declared that he eats all kinds of meat, and drinks sparingly, but regularly, of liquor; he exercises a great deal, and sleeps between nine and ten hours a day. Earl Nelson, who is in his eighty-second year, began life with a handicap of very poor health. He is to-day, however, in possession of unusual health. He declares that his long life has been due principally to the proper amount of sleep, plenty of exercise, a cheerful view of life, and moderation in eating and drinking.

Sir William Huggins, president of the Royal Society, is eighty-one. He declares that he eats with moderation, taking but very little meat, drinking coffee, but seldom using alcoholic liquors. He never smokes, and sleeps nine hours a day. He thinks that the proper dietary should be, some (but little) meat, largely supplemented with milk, rice, etc.

Sir William Leece Drinkwater is in his ninety-third year. He has been for fifty years a member of the Manx Legislature. Sir William eats heartily all kinds of meat. His meals are four daily, and he eats a great variety of things, with a little red wine at dinner. He never uses tobacco, and takes a great deal of outdoor exercise. He sleeps at least eight hours a day.

Prof. John E. B. Mayor, who for thirty years has been Professor of Latin at Cambridge University and has just passed his eighty-first birthday, differs from the old men already noted in that he is a strict vegetarian. He has been president of the Vegetarian Society since 1884. For the past twenty-five years he has eaten no fish, flesh, or fowl, and has taken no tea, coffee, or any other hot drinks, no intoxicants, no stimu-

lants, and no drugs. He eats vegetables, fruits, and grains. His simple fare, he says, obviates the necessity of much exercise.

Dr. George S. Keith, who is eighty-six years of age, has written a book, entitled "A Plea for a Simpler Life," in which he makes suggestions as to a plainer, more healthful diet. He smokes a little, but rarely drinks any alcoholic liquor.

The special cases considered in this article close with reference to an American, Mr. Henry G. Davis, the former Democratic candidate for the Presidency of the United States. Mr. Davis, replying to a question as to his mode of life, said, "I never allow anything to worry me.

My conscience is always reasonably clear. I sleep eight hours every night. I eat three square meals in twenty-four hours. I drink a little wine at times, but that is all. I do not use tobacco in any form. I take a good, long walk every day."

Summing up, the editor of the *Grand Magazine*, recalling the remark of a famous physician that "most men dig their graves with their teeth," says, "It is evident that all these men have been all their lives exceedingly moderate, not to say abstemious, as regards both food and alcohol, while most of them have altogether eschewed tobacco, and all have gone in for a good deal of exercise."

RADIUM AND THE AGE OF THE EARTH.

FOR half a century and more there has been a controversy among scientists as to the duration of life on the earth, which Lord Kelvin put at probably not more than one hundred million years, basing his conclusions on arguments as to the duration of the heat of the sun and earth, and on the action of tides in altering the period of the earth's rotation. In an article on radium, which he contributes to the February *Harper's*, Prof. Ernest Rutherford, of McGill University, Montreal, refers to these calculations.

Helmholtz, says Professor Rutherford, calculated that the heat generated in the sun through its contraction would be enough for the sun to shine with his present brightness for a period of about forty million years. The calculation is uncertain within limits, for we do not know how the density of the sun varies from the center outward. Kelvin came to a very similar conclusion, and stated that "it seems, therefore, on the whole, most probable that the sun has not illuminated the earth for one hundred million years, and almost certain that he has not done so for five hundred million years. As for the future, we may say, with equal certainty, that inhabitants of the earth cannot continue to enjoy the light and heat essential to their life for many million years longer, *unless sources now unknown to us are prepared in the great storehouse of creation.*"

This last remark, says the writer, seems almost prophetic in the light of the discovery of a body like radium.

The emanations of radium and of other radioactive substances are present everywhere in the atmosphere. These radioactive gases possess the property of being transformed into a nonvolatile kind of matter, which is deposited on the surface of bodies and can be collected on a wire charged with negative electricity. Every falling raindrop and snowflake carries some of this radioactive matter to the earth, while every leaf and blade of grass is covered with an invisible film of radioactive material. These emanations are not produced in the air itself, but are exhaled from the earth's

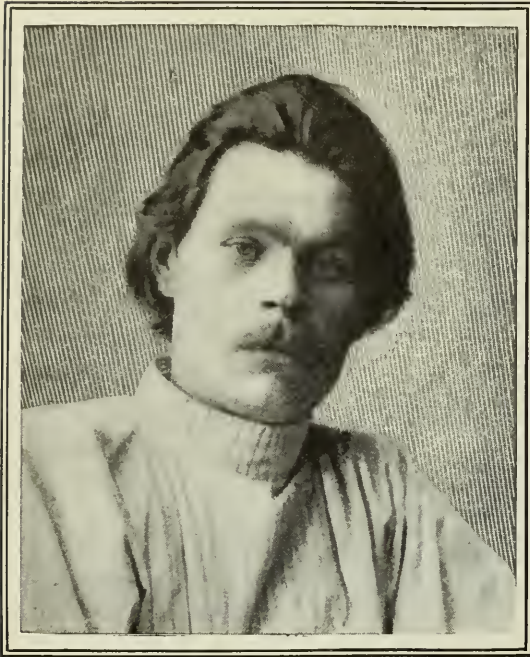
crust, which is impregnated with radioactive matter. As a means of detection of radioactive matter, the gold-leaf electroscope far transcends in delicacy even the spectroscope; for with only a gram of matter, the presence of radium to the extent of only one part in one hundred thousand million can readily be detected.

As to whether the amount of radioactive matter in the earth is enough to heat it appreciably, Professor Rutherford says that, even with our present knowledge, this question must be answered in the affirmative. That is to say, a source, formerly unknown to us, was all the time prepared in the great storehouse of creation.

If radioactive matter is distributed throughout the whole earth to the extent that experiment indicates, the heat evolved by the radioactive matter would compensate for the heat lost by the earth by conduction to the surface. According to this view, the present internal heat of the earth tends to be maintained by the constant evolution of heat by the radioactive matter contained in it. The calculations of the age of the earth made by Lord Kelvin, which were based on the theory that the earth was a simple cooling body in which there was no further generation of heat, cannot apply, for the present temperature gradient of the earth may have been nearly the same for a long interval of time. On this theory of the maintenance of the internal heat no definite limit can be set for the age of the earth, but some deductions can be made of the probable variation of the internal heat with time. If an immense store of atomic energy is really available in the air, as is supposed, it would suffice to keep up the present output of energy from the earth for about five thousand million years . . . while the duration of the sun's heat in the future may possibly be extended for a hundred times the estimate made by Kelvin.

Nevertheless, there is no escape from the conclusion of Kelvin and Helmholtz, "that the sun must ultimately grow cold, and this earth must become a dead planet, moving through the intense cold of empty space."

A MONTH OF RUSSIAN HISTORY—THE DOCUMENTS.



MAXIM GORKI, RUSSIAN AUTHOR AND LIBERAL AGITATOR.
(Imprisoned for participation in the recent strikes.)

AN interesting insight into the documentary history of the happenings in St. Petersburg during the past two months is presented in an article in the *Sonntagsblatt* (Sunday Edition) of the New York *Staats Zeitung* by Mr. Herman Rosenthal, himself a Russian, who has "inside" information. It can, first of all, be positively asserted, he says, that the Russian Liberals, who rallied around the banner of the zemstvo leaders, and who built their hopes on the new minister of the interior, have been bitterly disappointed and—deceived. By this it is not said that the Liberal minister, Svyatopolk-Mirski, intentionally abused the confidence placed in him; such a contention would not be put forth even by his adversaries. He was himself rather a "deceived deceiver" only. He put his faith in the weak, wavering, and undecided Czar, cherished expectations and hopes, and gave, also, promises which he was unable to fulfill. After permitting the convening of the representatives of the zemstvos, he was ultimately obliged to declare it illegal, and yet the convention was held, with his approval, although unofficial, in St. Petersburg. He even went still further. He presented to the Czar the addresses of the convention,—the committee of which was received by

the Czar at Tsarskoe-Selo,—as well as those of the zemstvos of Jaroslav, Poltava, Viatka, Tschernigov, and Moscow. Only the one from Tschernigov received, as may be remembered, a reproof from the Czar, because it pointed out the need of a free, popular representation altogether too strongly. The other addresses were gracefully accepted by the Autocrat of all the Russias without being denounced as "fresh" or "tactless." That denunciation was made on the 9th of December. The address of the zemstvo of Moscow was, nevertheless, framed four days later (on the 13th), and the weak Nicholas II., who boasted, on his ascension to the throne, of being not only a Nicholas the Second, but a *second Nicholas*, did not dare to pronounce *this* address "fresh" and "tactless."

A LETTER FROM THE ZEMSTVO PRESIDENT.

It is interesting to read the letter on this subject from the marshal of the nobility of Moscow, Prince P. N. Trubetzkoï, to Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski. He writes in part:

Through this letter I wish to explain myself to you, and ask you not to refuse me the privilege of representing to the Emperor, most humbly, the motives which



GRAND DUKE VLADIMIR.

(Permanent commander-in-chief of the Russian army.)

prompted me to give the zemstvo permission to assert itself. According to public opinion, in which I concur unreservedly, Russia is, at present, facing an epoch of anarchy and revolutionary movement. What is going on is, by far, no mere agitation by the youth. The youth stands forth only as a reflection of the general state prevailing in society. This state is most dan-

gerous and terrible for our entire country, as well as for all of us, and particularly so for the holy person of the Emperor. It is, therefore, the duty of every truly loyal subject to ward off the disastrous calamity with any and all means at his disposal. A short time ago, I had the good fortune to be received by the Emperor, and to tell him, straightforwardly and truly, to the best of my



GRAND DUKE MICHAEL, BROTHER OF THE CZAR.

effort and knowledge, about the present state of society. I endeavored to explain to him that what is going on is not a riot, but a revolution; that the Russian people is thus being drawn into a revolution, which it does not desire, and which can be forestalled by the Emperor. Yet there is but one way out of it, just one, and that is by the Emperor placing confidence in the strength of society and of the masses. In the depths of my soul I am firmly convinced that if the Emperor only wanted to confidently group these powers around himself, Russia would free itself from all the terrors of the impending disturbance, and would support its Czar, his will, and his absolute sovereignty. In view of the state of mind of all the people, who are filled with fear and horror over the things referred to above, it is really beyond human power to refuse them to speak about that which is vexing and tormenting everybody so fearfully.

"Russian society," says Peter Struve, in the last number of *Osvobozhdenie* (Liberation), the organ of the Constitutional party, "is, with few exceptions, dominated by the inflexible purpose to attain thorough reforms. The historical resolu-

tion of the city council of Moscow, the actual concurrence in this resolution by the city council of St. Petersburg, the constitutional addresses of a whole series of zemstvos, the constitutional proclamations by the councils of the polytechnic institutes at Kiev and St. Petersburg, and, finally, a great number of other constitutional, semi-constitutional, and simply liberal expressions of public opinion, do not allow any further doubts about the sentiment of Russian society."

REMONSTRANCE FROM LEARNED SOCIETIES.

Besides those mentioned by Struve, the following Russian societies and institutions have also adopted resolutions, in which they protest against absolutism, and demand, together with other thorough reforms, a popular representation: the citizens of Odessa, under the leadership of their mayor; the citizens of Baku; the Polytechnicum, the Pedagogic Society, the High School for Ladies, and the Society of Engineers, in St. Petersburg; the barristers of Rostov, on the Don, etc. If we add thereto the fact that the representatives in the zemstvo congress at St. Petersburg were all great land-owners, among them being several princes, barons, counts, and chamberlains, with celebrated names, one can



GRAND DUKE ALEXIS.
(High admiral of the Russian navy.)

hardly doubt any more that it is no longer an uprising of the hot-headed youth, but a struggle of the whole Russian society against absolutism. An industrial nation cannot endure an autocratic form of government, and it is industrial Russia, with intellectual Russia, which is rising against the autocracy.

A MEMORABLE IMPERIAL COUNCIL.

On the 15th of December, a council of ministers was held at Tsarskoe-Selo under the presidency of the Czar. Most of the grand dukes, Witte, Pobyedonostzev, Svyatopolk-Mirski, Rokovtzev, and Muraviev, took part. The question of reforms was on the programme. The *Matin*, of Paris, reports what was said. The minister of justice tried to prove, in a long speech, that the Czar had, from a legal point of view, no right to change the existing system of government. The second speaker was Svyatopolk-Mirski. He remarked that nothing was easier than to refute the arguments of the previous speaker.

While he contends that the Czar is not authorized to change the existing laws, we see, nevertheless, that he is daily issuing new ukases, which make changes in or supplement earlier ones. If the opinion of the minister of justice were right, one might draw the conclusion that the Czar must refrain from any legislative action. The question before us is, however, not a theoretical one, over abstract conceptions, but one concerning what general measures should be taken in face of the present political situation. Your Majesty may only take reasons of convenience into consideration. Can the present state of things continue very long without becoming perilous? I do not think so.

The minister then recommended the undertaking of several reforms,—namely, the abolition of the passport system, the inauguration of a free press, and the admission of chosen representatives of the zemstvos into the state council. Minister of Finance Rokovtzev warned the Czar that his authority would be annulled by granting the representatives of the zemstvos the right to control the actions of the government. Such would finally lead to a demagogical government. Ex-Minister Witte said, in reply to Rokovtzev's speech, that it would not be possible to continue any longer without wide-spread economical and political reforms. The session of the council then became dramatic. Pobyedonostzev, the Procurator-General of the Holy Synod, the originator of the unbearable reactionary system of Alexander III., and the tutor of the present Czar, came with great energy to the assistance of Muraviev and Rokovtzev. He reminded them that the Czar is not only the worldly sovereign, but also the spiritual head of Russia. Should the Czar renounce his autocracy, then the interests of the Russian Church must suffer thereby, religion will also suffer, and, in consequence, the only source of morals, also,—the national conscience. The Russian people will then plunge into sin, and return to a barbaric state. When he had finished speaking,

Witte declared, in his well-known sincere but gruff manner: "When it becomes known that the Emperor cannot, for legal and religious reasons, carry out any reforms, of which he is in favor himself, part of the people will come to the conclusion that such reforms have to be achieved through violence. This would be an actual call to revolution." Soon after this the Czar's manifesto appeared, with promises of "so-called" reforms, but without renouncing one iota of his absolutism.

A PETITION BY RUSSIA'S MEN OF LETTERS.

In order to get an idea of how unanimously intelligence goes to war against tyranny, the protests of the journalists and authors of Russia ought not to be overlooked. After reciting the facts of the massacre, the signers of the petition to the Czar say:

We do not consider it right to remain silent when our sons and daughters, our brothers and sisters, are mutilated only because they express such claims as have been formulated in detail by all classes of Russian society. As we have no chance to publish these well-proved facts, furthermore strengthened by depositions, in any periodical in Russia, we have been compelled to let our protest, signed with our names, appear in the foreign periodicals in the Russian language.

Among the one hundred and fifty members of the editorial staffs are the collaborators of the periodicals, *Russkaye Bogatstvo*, *Mir Bozhi*, *Obrazovaniye*, *Novy Put*, *Pravda*, *Vyestnik Prava*, *Vyestnik Fabrichnovo Zakonodatelstva*, *Pravo Khozyain*, *Yurist*, *Ekonomicheskaya Gazeta*, *Syn Otechestva*, *Nasha Zhizn*, *Russ*, and others. Among those whose names were attached to this petition, the following well-known writers may be mentioned: J. Afanasyev, Vasili Anyuchin, Nikolai Anenski, J. Vasilevski, A. Glinka, Marya Vodovzova, Vladimir Gessen, P. Gorbunov, J. Gessen, M. Goldstein, Vladimir Korolenko, D. Merezhkovski, A. Milyukova, Alex. Ostrogorski, V. Portugalov, J. Sokolov, A. A. Suvorin (editor of the *Russ*, son of the editor of the *Novoye Vremya*), A. Yablonovski, and P. Yakubovich. This remarkable document, says Mr. Rosenthal, bearing the signatures of the most prominent authors and journalists, is significant of the times, and may be regarded as, in a way, a Russian "Declaration of Independence." Through this protest, the representatives of the Russian press joined the revolutionary movement, and are liable to severe punishment according to the letter of Russian law. In fact, some of the leaders of the movement have already been imprisoned; among the best-known of them being Vladimir Gessen, Professor Kareyev, Professor Annenski, and the author Maxim Gorki.

IS A RUSSIAN REVOLUTION POSSIBLE?

AMONG the many review and magazine articles on Russia's internal condition and the possibilities of actual revolution in the empire, especially noteworthy is a long and doleful, but still hopeful, paper by Alexander Ular, which appears in the *Contemporary Review*. This writer on politics and economics states that the death of von Plehve had been decided on twelve months before it occurred, and the event being foreseen by all the educated classes in the country, they prepared for the vigorous revolutionary agitation which has actually occurred. He declares that autocracy has been a mere fiction

Capacity was the sole means of promotion. "Within a couple of years the middle classes had invaded all official positions." The writer asks, "Is it not an astounding fact that during the last quarter of the nineteenth century there have been, among several dozen ministers in Russia, only four noblemen?" Mostly self-made men, they have found a keen pleasure in keeping out men of great family or high standing. They have formed a powerful army of officials, "the sole glory and the sole moral principle of whom is what the French call *arrivisme*, an awful mixture of egotism, cynicism, cupidity, and insolence."



QUO VADIS?

HIS BETTER ANGEL, "PEACE": "You have lost a golden opportunity, Sire; is this to be the end?"—*Westminster Gazette* (London).

since the reign of Alexander II. The Czar, he says, only allowed to read extracts from papers which are typewritten every morning and revised by the minister of the court. M. Ular remarks that it is one of the most striking features of the present anti-autocratic movement that it is headed by the nobility. The latter, indeed, are likely to become in the Russian revolution what the *Tiers-Etat* was in the French. He explains this singular fact as a result of the democratic reforms of Alexander II. When others than nobles were admitted to the great official schools, the aristocratic régime came to an end and a bureaucratic caste was formed.

THE "REVENGE" OF THE JEWS.

The policy of pan-Russianism has antagonized all the non-Russian peoples, and pushed the Jews to the front. Their capital gave them power:

Even in the Jewish zones the brute sway of Russian bureaucracy was soon paralyzed by the astute arm of corruption. Jewish towns became literally schools of bribery. Thus, anti-Semitism had for its immediate consequence a progressive demoralization of officials. But, on the other hand, it had far more serious results. Jewish wealth, oppressed and spoiled by irresponsible small despots, could not possibly—as it has done elsewhere—join the governing caste in order to oppose the social aspirations of the masses. Its riches and its brains deliberately took the rôle of seconding, and later on of heading, political disaffection. In fact, there is hardly any great revolutionary organization in the country the leading men of which are not Jews. Even the so-called Liberals, a party of constitutionalists, the members of which belong to the highest classes of society, cannot do without the assistance of Jewish effort.

THE PLIGHT OF THE PEOPLE.

In the insolence of bureaucracy toward all subjects of the Czar, without exception, the writer finds the secret of the combination of men of all ranks and grades against it. "This horrible oppression of denial of justice is perhaps the sole tie which holds together the various elements of the revolutionary movement." He goes on to say that "no essential or even useful reform is

possible except by the complete destruction of present Russian law," which is simply legal arbitrariness. The number of persons proceeded against during the last ten years has increased twenty-seven times; 11,000 cases, not one of which has been treated in court, have been "terminated by police administration." Corruption is confessedly an essential feature of bureaucracy, and quietly accepted by the Czar. Alexander III. is said to have described as a dunce a man who refused to earn large sums "aside" as director of the Imperial Bank. The writer states that a fifth of the budget is the annual amount stolen every year. Meantime, the people are starving. Russians consume only 425 pounds of corn per annum per head; Germans, 1,125 pounds. Russians eat three times less than Germans. He quotes a confidential report on central Russia to the medical board: "In general, the consumption of bread remains, on an average, about 30 per cent. below the physiological standard that is necessary for maintaining the strength of adults." The peasants pay about two-fifths of their gross income in taxes to the government, and have, in addition, local rates to pay. Their illiteracy is also appalling. In the government of St. Petersburg, only 55 per cent. of the population can sign their names; in Kars (Armenia), only $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In six districts, absolute illiterates amount to two-thirds of the population; in fifteen, to three-fourths; in five, to four-fifths; in fourteen, to nine-tenths. The number of illiterates is 28 per cent. for priests, 30 for nobles, 10 for the middle classes, including workmen, and 89 for peasants. Nine-tenths of Russia are, intellectually speaking, on the verge of barbarism.

THE COMING "PACIFIC REVOLUTION."

Out of these desperate conditions the writer sees an easy way. The bureaucratic reforms, such as a liberal press law and the like, are now decided on, and may serve to gain time for a few months. Then will come the great change—the pacific revolution. First, the oligarchy and the Moscow group will be destroyed; then it will be proved to the Czar that without a constitutional violent revolution is unavoidable. The leading statesmen—above all, M. Witte—realize this necessity perfectly well. The Czar will be gradually led to understand that it is barbarism and illiteracy that hinder the life of the empire, and he will, it is expected, give up bureaucracy for a constitution. The consequences of these important steps are thus outlined:

For the first of all economic measures to be taken by an "institution of natural control" would be to lower the taxes, to make peace in Asia, and to accomplish

the most necessary of all reforms,—to disentangle the finances, and prevent the export of corn. I need hardly say that, if such is the course of events pointed out by the interest of Russia, good-luck has it that its general consequences on the politics of the world will be no less happy. Russia will simply disappear for ten or twenty years from the stage of international struggle, and, at the same time, there will disappear not only the awful war cloud which hangs over Europe, but also the stronghold of political reaction, which at this moment is still the principal bulwark of political oppression in Germany, Austria, and Turkey. This, however, is to change the equilibrium of the great powers from top to bottom. The political and military importance of the Franco-Russian alliance will fall to pieces, but, at the same time, Germany will lose all interest in seconding Russia for dynastic reasons. Asiatic expansion being abandoned—unless the yellow peril come forth—the center of world politics will again be placed in Europe, an Anglo-Russian understanding would easily be obtained, and if there should still remain some clouds on the political horizon, they would hang only over Germany.

M. Ular concludes his paper with the confident expectation

that the bureaucracy will soon be crushed by the Czar, who is its slave, in order to procure for himself the real moral power of a constitutional sovereign over a self-governing nation, and the satisfaction of seeing his great empire develop from starvation and moral servitude into welfare, prosperity, and conscious power.

"Revolution Impossible in Russia."

Mr. A. S. Rappoport, the London correspondent of the *Novosti* (St. Petersburg), contributes to the *Fortnightly Review* a paper in which he denies most emphatically that Russia is on the eve of a revolution. The only possible chance for liberty in Russia is for it to be introduced at the sword's point by western Europe. Mr. Rappoport is very emphatic:

A Russian merchant, asked by a foreigner whether the Russians have already had a revolution, replied, "No, we have not yet had any ukase from the Czar to this effect." A constitution may be granted by the Autocrat, but the muzhik will have to accept it "by order of the Czar." By himself he will never do anything to obtain it. Heine says somewhere, "The Englishman loves liberty like his lawful wife, the Frenchman like his mistress, the German like his grandmother." The Russian muzhik, he ought to have added, is too weak to love at all. A constitution in the dominions of the Czar will never be obtained by the Russian nation by means of a revolution, let it be stated once for all. The reason is very obvious, because the *nation* will never revolt against the Czar. Let the revolutionary agitators in Russia and elsewhere understand it, once for all, that it only depends upon Europe to force the ruler of the European China to grant individual liberty, freedom of speech, and social reforms to his subjects.

Mr. Rappoport can hardly be serious in thus suggesting that Europe should make war upon

Russia, to force upon Russians a system of government which he declares is absolutely hateful to nine out of every ten men in the country :

"The Russians," says no less an authority than Danilevsky, "find no attraction in power, and although some people consider it as a fault, we, for our part, see nothing bad in it. For this reason, too, Russia is the only country which has never had (and never will have) any political revolution." Non-resistance and Buddhist self-annihilation were chief traits of the national character long before the Sage of Kyassnaya Polyana preached it from his arm-chair. But historical facts find their cause in the temperament of nations. The deeply rooted slavish disposition of a people that bows to authority but looks askance at a ray of liberty, makes a revolution an impossibility. People who, by

nature, are inclined to look up to an authority dwelling high above them on some Himalayan height, who are crushed in the dust by a continuous sense of sin and their own nothingness, feel quite at home in a state of tutelage. They breathe more freely, paradoxical as it may sound, in an atmosphere of oppression. The horror of servitude, the eager desire for self-government which is the result of a highly developed sense of self-reliance, have now been deeply rooted in the national character of the English. In Russia, it was quite the reverse. Had the inhabitants of Russia been distinguished by such traits of character, the princes would not have enslaved them, and autocracy would long ago have crumbled to dust. Unlike the Englishman, the Russian is unhappy if he is left to himself, but as long as he can account for some external superior power that tortures him, he is satisfied.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF RUSSIA.

A VERY striking article, in a way a review of the past year of Russia's internal and external relations, appears in the *Russskiya Vyedomosti*, of Moscow, by the editor, who represents the Conservative Liberals of Moscow society, and is known to be a true patriot. Several months ago his remarks would have been prohibited by the censor. Russia, he declares, faces the second year of the war with apprehension and hope. The war is terrible ; but, on the other hand, "the movement born of the self-consciousness of our society, which has just awaked from its lethargy of centuries, inspires us with new hopes." The passing year, he declares, has been in many respects a red-letter one for the empire.

In its course, the old maladies of the state appeared with greater virulence than ever and the ulcers of the Russian state organization were laid bare to their very depth. A heartrending war, full of terrible losses and reverses, has proved conclusively that even in military knowledge our bureaucracy is behind the times and cannot keep up with the new conditions of affairs all over the world. The events in the far East offer indisputable proof of the lack of preparation and the lack of intelligence, and of the incapacity of our bureaucratic régime. In the sphere of internal government, also, there were such unwarranted interferences with personal liberty on the part of the police that it was clearly shown to all right-minded people how necessary was a vigorous protest against such an unrighteous abuse of individual and social liberty. Abuses and lawlessness and all possible forms of oppression, violence and robbery for many decades, have driven society to such extremes that, in spite of natural timidity, it has begun to proclaim in loud tones its rights, its ideas of freedom and equality, and even its intention to demand a share in framing the laws of the state.

Tracing the history of the formation of Liberal and Reform societies, the editor of the *Vyedomosti* refers to the issue of the imperial ukase of De-

cember 12 last, promising so many measures of relief and reform. He questions whether the council of ministers will carry out the reforms in the spirit in which it was intended by the Czar. Bureaucracy certainly, he says, will not do so. One of the greatest requirements of the present day in Russia, he says, is the improvement of public education.

But a broad growth and development of national education is not in keeping with police wardship, with the absence of academic freedom, with obstacles in the way of educators, nor with a censorship which, in high-handed fashion, puts prohibitions and limitations on the press. A civilized and enlightened government understands the necessity for the freedom of the printed and spoken word, a freedom of meetings and unions which should be limited only by law, the open courts, and public opinion.

Patriotic Russia, he continues, sees with sadness that success, so far, in the present war has been on the side of "those with whom public education is on a broader basis and who are better prepared in the sciences." He gives credit to the Japanese for their fine military organization and their full preparation for the war, which included an exhaustive understanding of topographical conditions. "On our side," however, he says, "there was displayed no preparation, complete ignorance of the aims and forces of the enemy, an inadequate acquaintance with topography, and an extreme procrastination in adopting necessary measures, as a consequence of which we suffered terrible losses, to retrieve which is now extremely difficult.

One of the chief factors in these failures has undoubtedly been the lack of education and enlightenment, a lack which is in greater or less degree inherent in all the leaders in the struggle, including the great mass of the troops.

GERMANY AS RUSSIA'S WORST ENEMY.

IT is generally believed that the relations between Germany and Russia have been friendly and cordial in late years, and since the outbreak of the war in the Orient many have charged the Teutonic empire with open benevolence to Russia, if not with violations of neutrality in her interest. In the daily press of Russia, including the aggressively "Nationalist" organs, the habitual attacks on Germany have practically ceased. It is all the more surprising therefore to find in a very conservative and respectable Slavophile journal, the *Slaviansky Vilk* (Slav Age), Moscow, a bitter and violent assault on the whole policy of the German government toward Russia. According to the writer in this journal, I. V. Kawensky, Germany's apparent good-will masks the most selfish and perfidious designs. He says:

We do not doubt that, with all her heart, Germany desires Russian victory over the Japanese,—and not merely a victory, but complete conquest of Japan and the destruction of that power as a power in the Orient. But why does she desire this? Because in that event Russia would have her hands full in the far East, and nothing would prevent the west and south of the Slav Empire from falling into Germany's lap. Some scold Japan for her aggression and impudence; others blame Russia for short-sightedness and stupidity; still others accuse England of malice and a deliberate policy of provocation; but no one has pointed out that, in reality, it is our good neighbors, the Germans, who have lured us into this war by tempting us with the retention of Manchuria. Not without reason have the Japanese complained that Russia and Germany robbed them of Port Arthur right after their successful war with China. And it is Emperor William who raised the "yellow peril" cry and at the same time guaranteed our security on our western frontier by his proffer of a benevolent neutrality. Go, my dear friends, go East—as far East as possible, and take away from proximity to my possessions your land and naval forces. Later we shall see what to do; meantime go on, on to the far East. Friendship is friendship, and politics—politics. With all the German friendship for Russia, that honest broker, Bismarck, refused to allow us to acquire Constantinople, and thereby compensate our losses in the war with Turkey, in the seventies. We have no occasion to expect better treatment in the future.

Other writers, however, declare that this view of the situation is far from representing the true state of affairs, and that there is nothing insincere or treacherous in the present pro-Russian attitude of Germany.

German Views of Russia's War Prospects.

Since the surrender of Port Arthur, a number of leading German newspapers have changed their view of the war situation. Whereas they formerly predicted Russia's final triumph, they have latterly taken the position that Russia is as

good as defeated, and that time and further effort will not enable her to reverse matters in Manchuria. There are, however, some dissenting opinions in the press. The most prominent of the Teutonic publicists who believe that Russia has not necessarily lost, and is still likely to retrieve everything and emerge successful and victorious, is Maximilian Haarden, the editor of the independent *Zukunft*, one of whose early articles on the far-Eastern war we quoted here several months ago. Russia, says this publicist, has no more disgraced herself in Manchuria than England did in South Africa, in the war with the handful of Boers, or Germany in West Africa, in a war with the wild natives. The Japanese achievements discredit, not the Russian nation, but the St. Petersburg bureaucracy, which has been unequal to its task, and which has relied on verbal successes and arguments instead of on guns, shells, and bayonets. Russia's preparations for the conflict did not extend over a year; Japan's took five years. The Japanese victories are founded on the blindness and guilelessness of the Russian bureaucracy.

But what now? asks Haarden. Japan, apparently, has her heart's desire. She has avenged the vetoed treaty which she concluded with China in 1894; she has Korea, Dalny, Port Arthur, maritime Manchuria; she appears to have won. But she has not won. She lacks the main thing—the assurance that what she has achieved will not be completely wiped out by the future course of the war. The war, with or without the Rojestvensky fleet, may be indefinitely prolonged. The Japanese will stay in Port Arthur, the Russians in Manchuria proper. Kuropatkin will increase his army to 600,000, and the struggle will go on. Russia has no choice; she *must* win; she cannot possibly accept Japan's peace terms. Meantime, Japan's means are nearing exhaustion. She cannot wait. Not only are her finances in an unsatisfactory condition; she has other dangers to consider. The racial consciousness of western Europe will sooner or later prevail over Russophobia, and complications will arise. "As for Russia, she is still mighty. Our half-baked politicians affect to consider her cause lost, but the value of her securities is a better index to the world's sentiment, and that points to faith and confidence in Russia's vitality."

Similar opinions are expressed by the *Hamburger Nachrichten*, which concludes a review of the situation thus, "We think it but just to state that the whole course of the military operations does not permit any doubt as to the final and, for Russia, favorable outcome of the war."

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

Political Discussions.—The first of a series of "Letters to Literary Statesmen" by "Alciphron," appears in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and is addressed to Theodore Roosevelt. This writer makes some good-natured comments on the President's political career, such as the following: "Your violence in denouncing political opponents is equaled only by your coolness in appropriating their programme. The old motto used to be, 'find out what your antagonists want you to do and then do the opposite;' but you have improved upon this so that your maxim seems to read, 'discover what the other party proposes, hold it up to scorn, warn the country against it, and then do it yourself.' Great men before you have stolen the clothes of the Whigs, but no one has ever rivaled you in denouncing them for not having better clothes to steal."—In *Success* for March, Mr. Alfred Henry Lewis gives an outline of "Mr. Roosevelt's New Policies," touching especially on foreign relations, the Philippines, the race question, and enforcement of the anti-trust legislation.—The same magazine has an interesting sketch of the rise of Governor-elect Johnson, of Minnesota, who began life as a pauper's son, and has won by his own efforts a commanding place in the councils of his party.—In the March *Bookman*, Prof. Harry Thurston Peck contributes the third of his papers on "Twenty Years of the Republic," describing the Republican rally which resulted in the election of McKinley in 1896.—In the March number of *Leslie's* there is a study of the influence of the Mormon Church in politics by W. M. Raine and A. W. Dunn.—A new periodical appears this month, bearing the title of *Tom Watson's Magazine*. The editorials, written by the Hon. Thomas E. Watson, deal with the present political situation largely in the form of letters or exhortations addressed to public men like President Roosevelt and Mr. Bryan, setting forth in succinct phrase Mr. Watson's well-known opinions on political and economic questions, with which the country became acquainted during the last Presidential campaign. Among the specific topics dealt with in this number are ship subsidies, the greenback question, and the costliness of inauguration ceremonies. The remainder of the magazine consists largely of short stories, interspersed with articles on municipal ownership and other questions of the day.

Social and Economic Problems.—In the March number of *Harper's*, President Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard, writes on "Employers' Policies in the Industrial Strife," elaborating some of the views expressed by him on different occasions within the last few years, notably at the last convention of the National Civic Federation. It is needless to say in this connection that President Eliot indorses, in the main, the positions of the employers' associations with reference to the demands of organized labor.—In his second paper on "The Shameful Misuse of Wealth," in the March number of

Success, Mr. Cleveland Moffett touches on the race-suicide problem, particularly those phases of it which are observed in the tenement quarters of our great cities.—In *Everybody's Magazine* for March, Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's papers on "Frenzied Finance" and Mr. Charles Edward Russell's story of the beef trust are continued.—The March number of *Scribner's* has a most interesting contribution, by Frank A. Vanderlip, on the methods and results of government education in European countries.—A former governor of New Zealand, the Earl of Ranfurly, describes the government of that country in the *Cosmopolitan* for March. Because of its position on many social and economic reforms, this writer believes New Zealand entitled to be called the world's most advanced government.—In the *Booklovers Magazine* for March there is a fully illustrated description of the White Haven Sanitarium for Tuberculosis, under the title, "A Philanthropy Worth Imitating." This article is contributed by Mr. Day Allen Willey.—In the March number of *McClure's*, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker tells how New York City built its subway, and how a new private monopoly has been created which bids fair to become more powerful than any of the street-car corporations which so long successfully opposed this great public improvement.—Mr. Lawrence Lewis gives, in the March number of the *World's Work*, an entertaining account of the great "welfare work" maintained by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, affecting seventeen thousand employees.—In the same magazine, Mr. Clarence H. Poe writes on "The Government and the New Farmer."

Natural Science.—Several important articles, dealing directly or indirectly with scientific topics, appear in the March magazines. The one which will, perhaps, attract the most attention is Mr. William S. Harwood's account of the almost magical success of Mr. Luther Burbank in creating new forms of plant life. This article is contributed to the March *Century*, and the illustrations which accompany it reveal some of the wonders which have been worked by Mr. Burbank's original methods within the past few years. Surely Mr. Harwood is justified by the facts in his statement that Mr. Burbank has become the foremost man in the world in the production of new and interesting forms of fruits, trees, flowers, vegetables, grasses, and nuts. No less a personage than Dr. Hugo De Vries, the great Dutch botanist, has declared that the flowers and fruits of California are less wonderful than the flowers and fruits which Mr. Burbank has made.—Mr. Samuel Hopkins Adams describes in the March number of *McClure's* some of the marvels of modern surgery, especially the newer operations on the stomach, the brain, and in orthopedic science.—Mr. Ernest Ingersoll gives, in the March number of *Harper's*, an entertaining description of plant life in the desert.—The same magazine has an account of "The Later Day of Alchemy"

by Prof. William C. Morgan. This article describes various processes for the utilization of by-products in such industries as the manufacture of steel and the distillation of coal.—The opposing arguments on the question, "Do Animals Reason?" are presented in *Outing* for March by John Burroughs and C. F. Deacon, respectively.

The Fine Arts.—Mr. John La Farge resumes in *McClure's* his series of papers on "One hundred Masterpieces of Painting," treating in the March installment of the old Flemish painters.—In the *Booklovers Magazine*, the work of a painter of modern industrialism, Colin Campbell Cooper, is described by Albert W. Barker.—Mr. George Bird Grinnell contributes to *Scribner's* an appreciation of the photographs of Indian types made by Mr. E. S. Curtis. The illustrations of the article are all reproductions of these Indian photographs, in tint. Mr. Grinnell declares that if Mr. Curtis shall have his health, and shall live for ten years, he will then have accumulated material for the greatest artistic and historic work in American ethnology that has ever been conceived of.—"Philadelphia's Contributions to American Art" is the subject of a suggestive article in the March *Century*.—The same magazine contains a group of new etchings of New York skyscrapers, by Joseph Pennell.—Mr. F. B. Morse writes in *Munsey's* for March on "The Completion of the Capitol at Washington," meaning thereby the proposed extension of the east front, in order to correct the existing architectural defect in the building caused by the projection of the base of the dome over the central portico.

Notes of Travel, Exploration, and Description.—In the March number of *Outing*, the editor, Mr. Caspar Whitney, tells, for the first time, the full story of the ill-fated Hubbard Expedition into Labrador, which was undertaken, it will be remembered, under the auspices of *Outing*, and in which the leader, Mr. Leonidas Hubbard, Jr., lost his life.—"Into Tibet with Youngusband" is the title of a fully illustrated article in the *World's Work* by Perceval Landon, the correspondent of the *London Times*. Among the wonders of the Forbidden City, described by Mr. Landon, are the great Temple of Buddhism and its mammoth idol.—The American Island of Guam is described in the *Booklovers Magazine* by Mr. Willard French. He declares that our national duty to this isolated possession in the Pacific has been sadly neglected.—The achievements of the explorer Bering, who is regarded as the discoverer of Alaska, are graphically narrated by Miss Agnes C. Laut in the March number of *Leslie's*.—Captain T. Bentley Mott, U.S.A., gives in the March number of *Scribner's* an entertaining account of "Three Days on the Volga," illustrated with snapshot photographs.—In the same magazine, Mr. John Fox, Jr., continues the story of his somewhat unwarlike experience as a war correspondent in Manchuria. Mr. Fox declares that of war in detail he knew no more than he should have known had he stayed at home, and that it had taken him seven months to learn that it was meant that he should not know more.—In the *Century*, Mr. Robert Barry, who was the only American correspondent with the Japanese forces before Port Arthur from the beginning of the investment, describes the various devices employed by the besieging army, of which little has been known by the outside world. He gives a detailed account of the inventions of Amazawa and the extension

of scientific appliances employed by the Japanese generals in their besieging operations.

The Loss of Life in Accidents.—In the first issue of *Tom Watson's Magazine*, Mr. W. J. Ghent contributes a startling article on "The Butcheries of Peace," in the course of which he shows that our railroads and trolley lines alone, probably, destroyed very nearly as many lives in the year 1904 as were lost in the three battles of Gettysburg, Chickamauga, and Chancellorsville combined. It is believed that the factories destroyed more lives than the railroads, but the figures are not obtainable. The main point in Mr. Ghent's article is in his assertion that the overwhelming number of known fatalities in this country is due to economic causes, "that railroad, factory, and mining accidents are, for the most part, needless, and due almost entirely to the brutal indifference of capital to the lives of workers, and that by far the greater part of the suicides, of which we read and hear, are of beings who have been sent to death through economic troubles."—"Why English Railroads are Safe," is the title of an informing article contributed to the *World's Work* by Mr. James D. Whelpley. Among other things, Mr. Whelpley shows that while the English railroads carry twice as many passengers as the roads of this country, only one-tenth as many people are injured or killed as in the United States. Provisions which contribute to this result are, the use of the "block system" on all double-track roads, the use of the "electric staff," or ticket system, on single-track roads, protecting the few grade crossings by automatic-locking gates and signals, excluding the public from the right of way, using automatic devices for track, trains, and operation, and, last but not least, the enforcement of the national laws compelling the operation of all railroads with a maximum of safety.

Ethical Education of the Jews.—In protesting against compulsory reading of the Bible in schools, Prof. Henry Berkowitz (writing in the *International Journal of Ethics*) says: "The Jew, who gave the Bible to the world, and naturally prizes it most, objects strenuously to Bible readings and other devotional exercises in the public schools. He regards this as an invasion of the rights of conscience for which our government stands and a defeat of the democratic system." The following passage in Dr. Berkowitz's article may be read with edification by Gentiles: The simple key to the practical Jewish method of character-building is to be found in this passage in the Talmud: "As God is merciful, long-suffering, acting with kindness, justice, and truth, so are you to be and so are you to act" (Talmud, Babli, Sotah End., Yalkut, 873). Of vast importance in the moral training of the Jew is the poetic symbolism of his religious observances practiced in the home and in the sanctuary. These never fail to inspire and uplift with high thoughts and glowing idealism. The Passover rings out its glorious message of freedom, and sustains the down-trodden with hope. Pentecost, with its majestic traditions of Sinai, impresses those sturdy lessons which make the Jew everywhere law-abiding and peace-loving. Tabernacles, with its exquisite poetry, is the harvest-home festival that makes the heart mellow with gratitude, and by deepening the sense of human dependence, cultivates that true humility which flowers into the well-known deeds of Jewish charity, better called by him "acts of loving kindness."

Purim, the Feast of Queen Esther, brings the sunlight of blithesome festivity even into the dingiest home. The Maccabean feast spurs the heroic and courageous impulses. The Sabbath, impressing the sweetness of rest and the sanctity of work, is a moral teacher of incalculable force. The great days of searching, self-scrutiny,

the New Year and Atonement Day, constitute a discipline which in sublimity and effective teaching of morals are, I believe, unsurpassed by any kindred institutions. Thus, the home and the synagogue unite to conserve and cultivate the ethical side of the life of the Jewish people.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The Reclamation of the Sahara Desert.—There are many surprises in the geography of Africa. One of the greatest of these, perhaps, is the truth about the Desert of Sahara, which has for so long been supposed to consist exclusively of bleak, vast, uninhabitable wastes of sand. The truth seems to be that within the limits of the so-called desert there are vast stretches of land potentially fertile, awaiting only the touch of irrigation to make them blossom like the rose. The increasing importance of French interests in the Sahara and the Sudan has furnished the theme for a book, recently issued in Paris, under the title, "The Sahara, the Sudan, and the Trans-Sahara Railroads." In reviewing this book and analyzing its suggestions, M. Robert Doucet, writing in the *France de Demain*, declares that, after twenty-five years, M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu's struggle to destroy the legend of the Sahara Desert has succeeded. We now know that there are vast agricultural and economic possibilities in the Sahara. A number of French "missions," says M. Doucet, have proven that, not only is the Sahara inhabitable, as far as nature is concerned, but the bands of robbers and brigands are not anywhere near so frequent or terrible as has been imagined. In the south and central portions, the Sahara is comparatively free from sand dunes, and the oases are frequent and fertile. Moreover, the climate, speaking generally, is healthful. "The heat is not excessive in these regions, and the nightly frosts compensate largely for the fatigues and heat of the day." The temperature throughout the southern and eastern portion is moderate. M. Leroy-Beaulieu, says this writer, advocates a number of railroads across the desert strip to exploit the commercial possibilities of this vast region.

The Judiciary of Japan.—An analysis of the Japanese judicial system is contributed to the *Grande Revue* (Paris) by Henry Dumolard. This writer traces the development of the Japanese civil code from the revolution of 1868, when the empire began to put on Western dress. The penal code was made public in 1880, and went into effect two years later. Both of these were, at foundation, the work of M. Boissonnade, honorary professor of the faculty of law of Paris, and for years the legal adviser of the Japanese Government. Criminal trial by jury is as yet unknown in Japan. The code of civil procedure took effect in 1890, and the commercial code in the same year. This latter is based on the German system. The details of the organization of the Japanese national judiciary are fixed by the law of February 2, 1890, and are a reproduction of similar French and German texts. Japan has a Court of Cassation, 7 courts of appeal, 49 department tribunals, 298 communal tribunals, and 1,201 tribunals separate from this list. In passing, M. Dumolard notes the fact that the Japanese woman can now hold property in her own right.

A Graphic Description of the Shakhe Battle.—A French journalist, Georges de la Salle, was with General Kuropatkin during the battle of the Shakhe (or Sha) River (he spells it Cha-Kho), and he contributes to the *Revue de Paris* an analysis of the battle, with his impressions of the fighting. Interspersed among passages of some very fine descriptive writing, we find bits of information about the number and alignment of the forces which are interesting. The total effective strength of the Russian army, says this writer, was probably not more than 200,000 men. They have a free and easy way of estimating troops among the Russians, according to M. de la Salle. In publishing the size of armies, it is all very simple. "One simply opens a year-book; he sees that a Siberian army corps, for example, normally consists of 20,000 men. Now, Commander X—is at the head of this corps; therefore, has 20,000 under him." But when one reaches Manchuria, he continues, he finds that there has been "a margin for error of at least 50 per cent." He pays a tribute to the bravery of the Russian common soldier. "How they can die, these brave boys! Ivan, the son of Ivan, who comes from the Baltic provinces, from Little Russia, from the Caucasus, from Siberia, or from the trans-Baikal, whether he be Catholic, Orthodox, or Jew, he kills and is killed without a murmur. . . . The shrapnel shrieks. Of what are they thinking, these heroes in the trenches? A shell peeps above the rim of the horizon; they pay no attention to it. It comes nearer; it will probably kill some one. But they see it not. Is it for me or for you? It bursts with a crash, and, lo! twenty men are gone; and next season there will be no harvest in a little village two miles from the spot." One of the most impressive features of this battle, according to this French journalist, was the steady, irresistible advance of the Japanese. All day long, he says, for four days, cannon roared, and every hour of these days the Japanese left advanced irresistibly and without a pause. "When I saw this irresistible advance, I felt that for us the battle was lost."

Has Japan Designs on France's Asiatic Possessions?—Although the Japanese ambassador to Paris has emphatically declared it to be a fabrication, Paris reviews and journals are evidently placing faith in the report recently published that, in 1902, the Japanese Government distinctly avowed that it was considering the conquest of French Indo-China. A number of the weeklies and dailies took the matter very seriously, and the well-known writer, M. Marcel Prevost, contributes to the *Figaro* a "leader" on the subject, under the title "The Peril of the East." The report may be false, says M. Prevost, but, nevertheless, it has turned the attention of the French people to the possibility of a war with Japan, not only in order to keep the promises of an alliance, but to defend the very pos-

sessions of the republic. This writer goes on to confess that before the Russo-Japanese war Frenchmen were almost completely ignorant of Japan. They knew Russia through the works of her realistic writers; but their limited knowledge of Japan was supplied by the literary work of Pierre Loti, which, admirable as it is, gives no adequate idea of the Japan of politics, economics, and war. During the past year, he points out, gradually, but surely, the popular conception of Japan has changed from that of an artistic, mild-mannered, flower-like people to that of a conquering warrior. Have you noticed, asks M. Prevost, that "during the past year, the illustrated journals have greatly increased the stature of the Mikado's soldiers, until today, they make them as tall as Europeans?" This war is from Japan's standpoint a war of necessity. M. Prevost insists that if Russia should only really want badly enough to conquer, she could do so. Victory, however, is not so essential to her in this war; but for Japan it is a war of necessity. And afterward, if she be victorious, Japan will inevitably seek other wars. Military pride and conquest will run in the blood. No enterprise will appeal to the Japanese as noble, as profitable, as exalted as war. Japan will be the Prussia of the Orient. "The people who imagine that after the actual fighting Japan will devote her energies to commerce and arts have but imperfectly read history." The old nations of Europe, he continues, are those which desire peace. Young, vigorous, new Japan will still wish to try the edge of her sword. If all of France's possessions were around the Mediterranean, then, says M. Prevost, the republic could look with equanimity upon the ambitions of Nippon. Unfortunately, however, he concludes, we Frenchmen are a far-Eastern power, and there is a real and great peril for France's Asiatic empire in the advance of victorious Japan.

The Centenary of Eugène Sue.—In December, the French celebrated the one-hundredth anniversary of Eugène Sue, author of the two famous works, "The Wandering Jew" and "The Mysteries of Paris." A descriptive article, with reproductions of paintings, busts, and documents, treating of the life of Eugène Sue and his work, appears in the *Revue Universelle*, contributed by M. Edouard Pepage. Sue, he reminds us, was born in Paris, in 1804, although the exact date of his birth is not known.

The Needs of Italian Agriculture.—A comprehensive review of agricultural conditions in Italy is given in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) by Signor Antonio Ciacchieri, who bases his observations on a recently published book. This volume is "Agrarian and Alimentary Evils in Italy," by Prof. Italo Giglioli, who served as a juror at the Paris Exposition of 1900. The reviewer thinks that this is the most important work of its kind issued during the past quarter of a century. From it we learn that the consumption of wheat in Italy is only three and three-tenths bushels per capita, while the average for the other countries is six and three-tenths bushels. Taking all the cereals into account, Italy's consumption is six and eight-tenths bushels, as against nineteen and five-tenths bushels in other countries. Professor Giglioli compares Italy with Great Britain and Germany, both in the front rank agriculturally. He finds their superiority chiefly due to the importation and use of chemical fertilizers, in addition to the best organic manures, and also in agricultural in-

struction. Germany and France, he points out, have increased their vineyard yield from 20 to 30 per cent. by fertilization. He reviews the progress in Germany in the scientific reclamation of swamps and bogs, and points out dolefully that Italy is cut out from such advances by practically prohibitive taxes on sugar and alcohol. Professor Giglioli opposes the present protective duty on wheat. But it is not alone in the consumption of cereals that Italy stands low,—in the use of sugar she is behind all other civilized countries, including Spain, Portugal, Turkey, and Greece; and her consumption of meat and rice is growing less. In forestry, also, she lags behind. In his comments on the book, Signor Ciacchieri urges the better utilization of the superb Italian climate for the culture of fruit, and for its preservation and shipment. In this connection, he refers to the benefits of the coöperative methods used in California, and to the use of the fig-fertilizing insects that would enable the culture of Smyrna figs in Italy. A state initiative and coöperation are absolutely needed for progress in Italian agriculture. Signor Ciacchieri, in conclusion, urges that the increase in certain revenues be devoted to reforestation, irrigation, and the furthering of agriculture in general.

Should the Old Masters Be Restored?—In the *Revue Bleue*, M. Raymond Rouyer has a plea for the great masterpieces of ancient art,—painting, statuary, and architecture. He recounts the efforts to restore ancient Greek art in its shape and color, and while admitting the loftiness of the aim, deplors the idea. We cannot really restore these works, he declares, and concludes with this question, "Not to restore the works of the old masters—is not this the only true way of preserving them?"

Hard Lot of the German Workman.—A rather depressing picture of the conditions surrounding the German laboring classes is presented by the Berlin correspondent of the *World's Work and Play* (London). He admits that the masses of the German people have undoubtedly advanced in wealth and well-being during the last generation. "Their wages are higher, their savings have enormously increased, the working day is shorter, and social legislation has done much to insure them against accident and the disabilities of old age." But, though the German workman's prosperity has increased, it will take another quarter of a century to place him on the British level. "His wages are lower, his hours are longer, his life is harder, his prospects are less bright, and, above all and beyond all, he is crushed to the earth by the burden of militarism, and by the class feelings of his race. German labor is still largely unorganized." The writer says that he knows the German coal-miner; he has been in his home and spoken with his wife and children, and if there is any class of men in the world more than ever deserving pity, it is he. His wages average £41 to £60 in the year. The iron-ore miners receive an average of £35 to £45 a year; these averages are based on the last three years; 2.19 per thousand of German miners are killed annually at their work, against 1.29 of British miners. The health of the German miners is growing feebler. The glassworkers in the Upper Palatinate work 110 to 112 hours,—an average of over 17 hours a day, sometimes receiving as low as 12s. or 14s. a week. Compare this with the 46 to 54 hours a week of the British glassworker, with his 40s. to 55s. wages. The

best paid, bottle-makers, receive 21 marks a week in winter and 18 marks in summer. They work a ten-hour day. The textile worker in Bavaria has a dismal time. After their eleven hours' work in the factory, man and wife return to their home and begin another term of labor, sometimes stretching to six hours. They do so to keep the family from starvation. And when work at last is over, what is the rest they enjoy? From five to ten persons lie down to sleep in one room. No wonder that there is grave unrest and discontent. Twenty-five years ago, half a million German workmen voted for the Socialists. A year ago, three million Socialist votes were recorded.

Do Professors Ever Write Poetry?—In a new literary study, published under the title, "Sylvester of Geyer," the German critic Ompteda, writing in the *German Educational Herald* (Liepsic), declares that to-day there are comparatively few educators engaged in literary work, and scarcely any in poetry. Formerly there were a number of remarkable men, such as Gottfried Keller, Emil Strauss, Thomas Mann, Otto Bierbaum, and others. To-day, however, it would be difficult to name any one very distinguished pedagogue, in Germany at least, who has achieved any eminence in literature.

A French View of Japanese-American Relations.—A number of very remarkable articles are appearing in the French reviews upon the foreign relations of the United States, most of them reading into the public acts of our State Department, intentions and designs of which no American foreign policy could ever be capable. In *Revue Universelle* (Paris), there is an anonymous article, under the title, "The American Policy in the Far East," in which the writer endeavors to show that, while Japan was very apprehensive of trouble with the United States when the American forces defeated Spain in the Philippines, yet, immediately afterward, a secret understanding was arrived at between the United States, Japan, and afterward England, to "egg on" the Mikado to his present war with Russia. Uncle Sam, however, continues this writer, is "playing with fire;" before long he will find that Japanese commercial competition and Japanese military ambition will make more trouble for him than Russia's exclusive trade policies have ever done.

Would the Church Benefit by the Breaking of the Concordat?—In the *Correspondant*, the Clerical monthly of Paris, there appears an analysis of the present religious situation in France, by Eugène Boeglin, in which this author argues that the separation of the Church and State in the republic, the absolute abrogation of the famous Concordat, would be of tremendous value to the Church. The new civic spirit, he declares, has deepened and strengthened the religious vitality of the modern Frenchman. In other countries of Europe, notably Austria and Holland, there is also a revival of earnestness in the Catholic faith.

The Way of Peace for Russia.—There is a strange significance in the advice given to the Czar in an article by M. Leroy-Beaulieu, in a recent number of *La Revue*. This article was written before the recent outbreaks in Russia, and consists of a strong plea to the Czar to take counsel with the popular representatives, the French writer assuring him that this is the only way to secure

speedy peace. With the support of his people, M. Leroy-Beaulieu argued, the Czar would have nothing to fear. He then proceeds to argue that in case Russia should feel a natural repugnance at seeming to recoil before the perils and sufferings of the war, she has only to secure the good offices, if not the mediation, of the powers. France as the ally of Russia and England as the ally of Japan are manifestly the countries to open such negotiations, while Germany and the United States would gladly help to forward them. Japan could not maintain over-exacting demands in the presence of the consent of the powers, who, after all, have a right to a voice in the settlement of Manchurian and Korean affairs,—that is to say, in the settlement of the affairs of China. It would then be possible to conclude a peace, equitable and honorable for all,—a peace which would establish a just and permanent equilibrium in the far East. Of course, a good deal would depend upon the meaning of what this French writer calls "inadmissible" demands. It may safely be asserted that Japan is not likely to abandon again all the fruits of victory on the demand of any combination which is in the least likely to be formed against her at the conclusion of her war with Russia.

Japan and Russia after the War.—In the *Taiyo* (Tokio), Dr. Nakamura, an eminent Japanese political writer, goes minutely into Russia's attitude before and after war broke out. This attitude, he declares, may be roughly divided into five periods: (1) the period of bluffing, (2) the period of declaration, (3) the period of defense, (4) the period of keeping the enemy at a respectable distance, and (5) the period of appealing to other powers. Russia is too proud to appeal to other powers for help, so that after these repeated defeats, the only course open to her would probably be to win a signal victory for once at least and then make peace with Japan. If this signal victory cannot be obtained, the next plan would be to inveigle other powers into this war, and to be defeated by the united powers of Japan and other countries so as to save her face. How will peace be brought about? This is a very interesting question. Dr. Nakamura seems to think that peace must be settled by a mutual understanding, not by the interference on the part of foreign powers; but, he says, Russia will employ every possible means to obtain the good-will of China. In winding up this lengthy article, he says we must not approach Russia at the expense of England. The Japan-Russian alliance, if such a thing is dreamed of, is a great mistake. Japan must be at peace with England under any and all circumstances.

The Abiding Value of the Old Testament.—The first place in the first number of the new Church magazine, *The Interpreter*, is fitly assigned to a paper on the permanent religious value of the Old Testament, by Canon Driver. As an eminent exponent of the higher criticism, the writer is properly expected to lay stress, not merely on the things that have been shaken by criticism, but on the things which cannot be shaken. The upshot of his article is given at the close: "The Old Testament Scriptures enshrine truths of permanent and universal validity. They depict, under majestic and vivid anthropomorphic imagery, the spiritual character and attributes of God. They contain a wonderful manifestation of his grace and love, and of the working of his spirit upon the soul of man. They form a great and indispensable preparation for the coming of Christ.

They exhibit the earlier stages of a great redemptive process, the consummation of which is recorded in the New Testament. They fix and exemplify all the cardinal qualities of the righteous and God-fearing man. They insist upon the paramount claims of the moral law on the obedience of mankind. They inculcate with impressive eloquence the great domestic and civic virtues on which the welfare of the community depends; they denounce fearlessly vice and sin. The Old Testament Scriptures present examples of faith and conduct, of character and principle, in many varied circumstances of life, which we ourselves may adopt as our models, and strive to emulate. They propound, in opposition to all formalism, a standard of pure and spiritual religion. They lift us into an atmosphere of religious thought and feeling, which is the highest that man has ever reached, save in the pages of the New Testament. They hold up to us, in those pictures of a renovated human nature and transformed social state, which the prophets love to delineate, high and ennobling ideals of human life and society, upon which we linger with wonder and delight, as they open out before us the unbounded possibilities of the future. And all these great themes are set forth with a classic beauty and felicity of diction, and with a choice variety of literary form, which are no unimportant factors in the secret of their power over mankind."

New Young Ireland.—The political-propagandist side of the new Irish school in literature is set forth by Miss A. Macdonell in the *London Bookman*. The break-up of the Nationalist party and the death of Parnell, she says, let loose forces which had hitherto been absorbed by politics. "Likewise they left a hungry gap in the popular heart that had to be filled." Now came the chance of those who long had thought that the cry of "Ireland a Nation" had been too narrowly interpreted. Nationality, they said, is not merely a political fact, but a question of the heart and the soul. "A Parliament on College Green will be a mockery, if we still look to England for our ideals, our songs, our books, and all that keeps the spirit alive. The people are hungry for their own food, and we have within our own borders wherewith to feed them." And thence arose Irish literary societies, and Gaelic leagues, and Irish literary theaters. "The best means of deanglicization was felt to be the revival of the Irish language where it was dead or dying, and the feeding of the popular imagination with the tales of the proud old days when Cuchulain ruled, and Finn led his mighty men to victory, and Oisín sang. . . . The people have responded to an appeal made in their own speech and out of their own past as they had never done before to an alien culture."

Rewriting the History of the American Revolution.—The making of the United States is the subject of an interesting paper in the *Quarterly Review*, which is chiefly devoted to the reversal, in the light of recent researches by American scholars, of the traditional judgment of the principles and personages of the American Revolution. One of the boldest of these American authors, Mr. Sidney Fisher, is specially complimented on his courage. He says: "The patriot colonists, when aroused, were lawless, and while clamoring for independence, violated in a most shocking manner the rights of personal liberty and property." The destruction of the tea in Boston harbor is so

generally described in patriotic terms in school histories that no school-children would see that it was a lawless violation of the rights of private property and an open defiance of government authority. No taxation without representation was never a part of the British constitution, and is not even now; and the taxation of the colonies was not a new idea, but had been submitted to in many instances for a century without protest." The distinction between external and internal taxation he declares absurd; the colonists saw this, and shifted their ground. He gives an appalling description of the persecutions suffered by the Loyalists for ten years previous to 1776, and points out that the shocking practices of those days have made an indelible impression on the public mind, and have been the origin and source of that lynch-law which has been so discreditably conspicuous in modern times. "One of the first results of the revolutionary movement was the rise of the ignorant classes into power and the steady deterioration in the character and manners of public men. Cobblers and mechanics became captains and colonels, or got important positions in State governments. The Congress seemed to become narrow-minded, factious, and contemptible." The reviewer mentions the singular fact that many of the Loyalists of the Revolution were descended from the Pilgrim Fathers, who arrived at Plymouth in 1620; while the Puritan Fathers, who settled nine years later in Massachusetts Bay, were the forefathers of most of the New England revolutionists. Mr. Fisher exposes the falsity of Mr. Gladstone's statement that "the American Constitution was the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time from the brain and purpose of man." The American Constitution, declares the *Quarterly Review* writer, as a matter of fact, grew out of an ancient practice, long experience, and local necessities.

The First "Review of Reviews."—According to Mr. G. A. Sinclair, who writes about early Scottish periodical literature (in the *Scottish Historical Review*), it appears that it was one Walter Ruddan, who, in 1768, established the first *Review of Reviews*. This attained a circulation of 3,000 copies, and its portentous title ran: "*The Weekly Magazine, or Edinburgh Amusement*, containing the essence of all the magazines, reviews, newspapers, etc., published in Great Britain; also Extracts from every new Work of Merit, whether political, literary, serious, or comical." Besides light articles, others of practical utility were included in the collection, suitable, as the publisher says, for the "requirements of physician, virtuoso, country gentleman, merchant, mechanic, or farmer." The poetical department was specially reserved for "the tribe of juvenile readers." In discussing political affairs, the editor, more concerned for the prosperity of his enterprise than the peace of the world, regards with the utmost complacency the prospect of war. As further proof that the weekly chronicle constituted an important item, it may be noted that when Mrs. Siddons played at the Theatre Royal, in 1784, the *Edinburgh Weekly Magazine*, as it was then called, gave a full account of her performances, and recorded that the manager took the precaution, after the first night, of having an officer's guard of soldiers at the principal door for the purpose of regulating the crowd, which began to assemble round the theater at eleven o'clock in the forenoon.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

NEW BOOKS OF TRAVEL.

WHATEVER Mrs. Alec-Tweedie writes, no matter if the subject be remote, cannot fail to be interesting. She has the delightful, but uncommon, quality of an entertaining style wedded to a real knowledge of how to tell a story. Those who have read "Through Finland in Carts" will find "In Sunny Sicily" a worthy successor (Macmillan). The volume is illustrated with photographs (most of them taken by the writer) and a map.

Mr. Edgar M. Condit and his wife, having spent two years in traveling about the world, with some unusual experiences, have written a description of these travels, entitled "Two Years in Three Continents" (Revell).

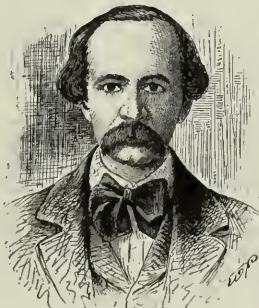


MRS. ALEC-TWEEDIE.

The romance of exploration has, perhaps, seldom been so fascinatingly presented as in Mr. Dillon Wallace's "The Lure of the Labrador Wild" (Revell), the story of the exploring expedition conducted by Leonidas Hubbard, Jr., who, it will be remembered, perished of hunger and exhaustion in the wilds of Labrador last year. Mr. Hubbard's survivor presents, in a graphic, literary style, the tragic story. It is more than the record of a journalist's trip for "copy,"—it is the chronicle of high, noble purpose and achievement, and it appeals to the finest, best, and most virile in man. Mr. Wallace was one of the three who made the expedition,—he and Mr. Hubbard being the leaders,—accompanied by a half-breed Cree Indian, who is described as intelligent, quick of perception, resourceful, and of fine character. A number of illustrations from photographs, with three original, accurate maps, add to the attractiveness and authenticity of the narrative.

LITERARY AND OTHER BIOGRAPHIES.

A biographical and critical study of "Theodore Watts-Dunton: Poet, Novelist, Critic" has been written by James Douglas and published by John Lane. One important service that this book performs is the collection of reminiscences and anecdotes concerning the English critic's wide circle of distinguished friends and



THEODORE WATTS-DUNTON.

associates among the artists and literary workers of this generation.

The latest issue, of the series of "English Men of Letters" (Macmillan) is "Thomas Moore," by Stephen Gwynn. The volume is uniform with the others already noted in these pages. Moore's fate, says the author, is a capital example of "sudden fame acquired with little difficulty, followed by a period of obscurity after the compelling power which attaches to a man's living personality has been removed."

A new and "worth while" Shakespeare book is Mr. Tudor Jenks' "In the Days of Shakespeare," one of the series of "Lives of Great Writers" which Mr. Jenks is preparing for A. S. Barnes. This little volume consists of a personal picture of the Stratford boy, and the London actor and man of affairs. There is also added a helpful explanation of some of the principal plays, with suggestive comments.

The "Letters of Aubrey Beardsley" have been collected and published (Longmans, Green), with an introductory note by the Rev. John Gray, of St. Andrew's and Edinburgh. These letters are interesting as throwing side-lights upon that remarkably sensitive, artistic soul, who, after years of struggle with consumption and fighting against religious conviction, finally "submitted, like Watteau, his master, to the Catholic Church."



LEONIDAS HUBBARD, JR., AND DILLON WALLACE.

(From a photograph reproduced in the book, "The Lure of the Labrador Wild.")

The latest issue of the "English Men of Letters Biographies" (Macmillan) is "Sydney Smith," by George W. E. Russell. Mr. Russell has had a great deal of material from which to glean, and he has made a very readable monograph.

A new "Life of Florence Nightingale," by Sarah A. Tooley (Macmillan), has been published to mark the jubilee of this famous woman, who left London in October, 1854, with a band of thirty-eight nurses, for service in the Crimean War. The work of the women who enlisted as nurses

in our own Civil War, and of those who went out under the Red Cross organizations in the Spanish-American war of 1898, has made the functions of the trained nurse more familiar in this generation than they were fifty years ago, when Miss Nightingale went on her famous mission. Her fame as a nurse became world-wide, and has suffered no diminution in recent times. Only a short

time ago, when the editor of a popular English magazine took a vote of his readers as to the most popular heroine in modern history, out of the 300,000 votes given, 120,776 were for Florence Nightingale. This interesting account of Miss Nightingale's labors in field and hospital will be welcomed on both sides of the Atlantic.

"The Old Shipmasters of Salem," by Charles E. Trow (Putnams), contains many reminiscences of the days when Salem was a port of great commercial importance, and when her sailing masters had a world-wide reputation. The author seems to have made a faithful study of the documentary materials, and the result is a book of no little historical and biographical value. The work also contains some mention of Salem's many merchants of the olden time.

The "Life of Archbishop Cranmer," by Albert Frederick Pollard, professor of constitutional history in University College, London, has just been issued (Putnams) as one of the series of biographies under the general title "Heroes of the Reformation," edited by Samuel Macaulay Jackson, professor of church history in New York University. It was because Cranmer has been so often termed "the mysterious figure in the English Reformation" that Professor Pollard has undertaken to depict the life of the great archbishop, whose story is "that of a conscience in the grip of a stronger power." It is to him that the English Church owes its Book of Common Prayer, the most effective of all its possessions.

BOOKS ON NATIONAL PROBLEMS AND INSTITUTIONS.

A new book, entitled "The Governance of England," by Sidney Low (Putnams), contains attractive chapters on certain phases of British constitutional government which have caused no little perplexity among American institutions. Particularly enlightening is Mr. Low's treatment of "The Selective and Elective Functions of the House of Commons," "Government by Party," "Ministerial Responsibility," and "The Prime Minister

and the Inner Cabinet." This latter subject is one that has not been sufficiently studied by Americans.

One of the most thoughtful, valuable dissections of American national character by a foreigner is Prof. Hugo Münsterberg's "The Americans" (McClure, Phillips), which has just been translated from the original German by Dr. Edwin B. Holt, of Harvard. When, some years ago, Professor Münsterberg (who, it will be remembered, occupies the chair of philosophy at Harvard) brought out his famous book "American Traits," it was thought in some quarters that he was perhaps too decided in criticising certain American tendencies and defending German ideals. In his latter book, however, which was written for Germans, he deals in a detailed way with the political, economic, intellectual, and social aspects of our national culture, endeavoring to interpret systematically the democratic ideals of America. Occasionally he cuts to the quick, but when

it is remembered that he wrote in German for the Germans, it will frequently be noticed that his sharp, analytical mind has discovered an unsuspected virtue. From his foreign point of view, he is enabled to observe, criticise, and praise with more title to credit than the native would be. Professor Münsterberg, on the whole, has a very high opinion of the possibilities offered to American de-

velopment, and his chapters on the intellectual life of the United States are intensely interesting.

"The Color Line: A Brief on Behalf of the Unborn" (McClure, Phillips & Co.), is the title of a discussion by Prof. William Benjamin Smith, of Tulane University, New Orleans, setting forth the Southern argument on the race question, buttressed with statistics of the birth and death rates and the crime of the Southern negro. Professor Smith believes that no evil could equal the race decadence that would follow any considerable contamination of the white race by African blood. His effort in this work, however, is to put aside all sentimental considerations and conduct a purely scientific inquiry undisturbed by any partisan or political influences.

A very interesting and thought-provoking interview with Katherine Bereshkovska, which originally appeared in the *Outlook*, and portions of which were reproduced in our "Leading Articles of the Month" for February, has been reprinted by Charles H. Kerr & Co. To the interview Mr. Ernest Poole has added a characterization and description of the famous Russian revolutionist, now in this country.

A novel form of text-book has been compiled by Dr. Thomas S. Adams and Miss Helen L. Sumner, of the University of Wisconsin (Macmillan). The book is entitled "Labor Problems," and it contains much valuable information on such topics as coöperation, profit-sharing, labor organizations, and employers' associations, the sweating system, strikes and boycotts, emigration, and woman and child labor. There is also contained in the volume a summary of labor legislation.



FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.



PROF. HUGO MÜNSTERBERG.

SCIENTIFIC WORKS.

Prof. Ernst Haeckel attained world-wide fame by his book, "The Riddle of the Universe." The success of this volume has encouraged him to continue in the field of making books, and he has just brought out another volume, "The Wonders of Life" (Harpers), which takes up in detail many biological questions only cursorily touched upon in his former work. In this volume Professor Haeckel, who occupies the chair of biology in the University of Jena, treats of organic science, under the heads of the knowledge, nature, functions, and history of life. The translation is by Joseph McCabe.

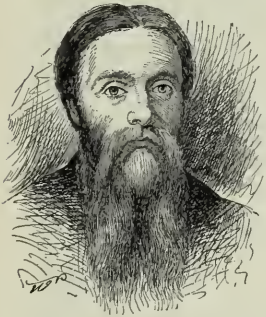


ERNST HAECKEL.

Mr. J. S. Kingsley's "Elements of Comparative Zoology" (Holt) has been revised and issued in a second edition. Professor Kingsley occupies the chair of zoology in Tufts College. His scholarly little work only aims to be an introduction to the serious study of zoölogy.

A RECORD OF BRITISH ART.

A history of English arts development, and a story in which almost all the art personalities of the past three-quarters of a century in England are the characters, is contained in "The Memorials of Edward Burne-Jones" (Macmillan). This work, in two volumes, is by "G. B.-J.," which, of course, stands for Gertrude (?) Burne-Jones. The influence of the Burne-Jones family upon English art cannot be over-estimated, and the debt of the world to the pre-Raphaelite movement is beginning to be fully recognized. This handsome two-volume work is copiously and appropriately illustrated with portraits in tint of Burne-Jones and most of the prominent personalities connected



EDWARD BURNE-JONES.

with the art movement of the past century in England. These include William Morris, Algernon Charles Swinburne, John Ruskin, Dante Gabriel Rossetti, Phillip Burne-Jones, and reproductions of a number of famous paintings.

A USEFUL MANUAL OF GYMNASTICS.

It has been chiefly through the untiring exertions of Baron Pierre de Coubertin that there will be a series of international Olympic games in 1908. There will be a series of preparatory congresses and gatherings, including a sport and physical correction congress at Brussels during the present year, to be presided over by his Majesty, King Leopold of Belgium; a meeting of the Inter-

national Olympic Committee at Berlin next year, under the Emperor's patronage,—and the fourth Olympic Games of the modern era, to be held at Rome in 1908. Baron de Coubertin has spent years of effort and thought upon this project, and his enthusiastic devotion will probably make this a success, as it has made other ventures successes in which he has been interested. Baron de Coubertin has just written a very interesting little book, entitled "Gymnastique Utilitaire" (Useful Gymnastics), which has been issued by Felix Alcan, in Paris, as one of the library under the general title, "The Education of the Youth of the Twentieth Century." This little volume is dedicated to President Roosevelt. It covers the entire field of sports and physical exercises which can be of any possible use. The three divisions which the author makes are (1) Rescue, (2) Personal Safety, and (3) Locomotion. Fencing, boxing, horse-riding and yachting are considered among the sports.

BOOKS ON RELIGION AND ETHICS.

Paul Bourget's latest work is ostensibly a novel, but to English readers it will appear as a purely pathological presentation of the relation between the Roman Church

and its adherents in the matter of divorce. The book is entitled "A Divorce" (Scribners). M. Bourget's theme is the working out of the moral law of the Church upon the ecclesiastical sin of a woman in taking a new husband, according to the laws of France, when the Church forbids such a thing. It is really the story of an intense mental and moral struggle between religion and love.



PAUL BOURGET.

Dr. Wayland White, author of "Gleams From Paul's Prison," has prepared a little inspirational volume entitled "Home Ideals" (American Baptist Publication Society). It consists of a number of chapters on the closest relations of life, including some helpful words on what husbands, wives, brothers, and sisters should be in the home.

"I searched up and down the earth—and found it in my own soul. I implored heaven and hell—and the field daisies answered me." This is one of the prayers, by Muriel Strode, in "My Little Book of Prayers" (Open Court Publishing Co.).

The work done by the Union Pour l'Action Morale in France is being extended by an extensive campaign of publicity. One of the recent noteworthy issues of this organization is an illustrated account of the hard life led by the Newfoundland fishermen. This appears under the title "Pecheurs de Terre-Neuve" (Fishers of Newfoundland), with a preface by Paul Desjardins, and some graphic illustrations by the French artist E. Yronly.

Still we have books by Pastor Wagner. "My Appeal to America" (McClure, Phillips), with an introduction by Dr. Lyman Abbott, and notes and appendixes, has just appeared. Dr. Abbott characterizes Pastor Wagner as a man who, in a preëminent degree, has given to the world "vitalized truths." The famous Frenchman's

message to the American people is a call to active goodness and "the simple life." Another of the early Wagner books, "The Busy Life," has been translated and published (Ogilvie Publishing Co.), with the sub-title, "The Quest of Energy." This REVIEW has already commented more than once upon the sane, helpful value of Pastor Wagner's works.

Dr. T. K. Cheyne, Canon of Rochester, England, has written a small volume, entitled "Bible Problems and the New Material for Their Solution" (Putnams), which he sub-heads as "a plea for thoroughness of investigation addressed to churchmen and scholars."

CHILDREN, AND ABOUT THEM.

A very handsome book typographically, as well as a daintily written one from a literary standpoint, is Mr. Edward S. Martin's "The Luxury of Children and Some Other Luxuries" (Harpers). Mr. Martin, it will be remembered, is the author of "Windfalls of Observation," "A Little Brother of the Rich," and other books. His text can be seen in the first sentence of the volume, "I don't know of any aspect in which earth appears to better advantage than as a playground for small children." The very "fetching" marginal illustrations in tint are by Sarah S. Stillwell.

A series of delightful pictures of real children, with

a story to match, have been published under the title "The Age of Innocence" (Dodd, Mead), by Walter Russell, author of "The Bending of the Twig." Mr. Russell has made the pictures and the text himself. The frontispiece is a colored portrait of Miss Ethel and Master Archie Roosevelt.

BOOKS OF HUMOR.

One poor mortal, who has been afflicted for years with rheumatism, has written an exceedingly humorous book on his experience with cures, under the title "Being Done Good" (The Brooklyn Eagle Press). The author, Mr. Edward B. Lent, recites, in genuine humorous style, his experiences in being cured of the rheumatism, with "comments on the advance made by medical science during the past 5,500 years."

Evelyn Gladys is a new writer of vigor and point. She has just brought out a work, entitled "Thoughts of a Fool" (Chicago: E. P. Rosenthal & Co.), with a subtitle, "Twenty-six Chapters of Good Stuff." It is made up of chapters of rugged philosophy on the facts of every-day life. Its general spirit may be seen in the following sentence: "It seems to me if there is anything wrong in the physical or social world, it would be better to remove the cause, and until the cause is removed, let us have as much discord as possible."

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

Astrology. By M. M. MacGregor. Penn.
Backgrounds of American Literature. Hamilton Wright Mabie. Macmillan.
Book of Symbols, The. By Henry A. Wisewood. William Ritchie.
Business. By L. de V. Matthewman. Lippincott.
Consumption. By Samuel H. Linn. Rochester, N. Y.
Courtesies, The: A Handbook of Etiquette. By Miss Eleanor B. Clapp. Barnes.
Cranio-Muscular Origins of the Brain and Mind. By Philip H. Erbés. Promethean Publisher.
Cyr's Graded Art Readers. Ginn.
Daily Cheer. By M. Allette Ayer. Lee & Shepard.
Defoe's Robinson Crusoe. By Clifton Johnson. Macmillan.
Dog, The. By John Maxtee. Penn.
El Cautivo de Doña Mencía. By R. Diez de la Cortina. Jenkins.
Epitaphs. By Frederick M. Unger. Penn.
Ethical World-Conception of the Norse People, The. By Andrew Peter Fors. University of Chicago Press.
For People Who Laugh. By Adair Weckler. 331 Pine Street, San Francisco, Cal.
Fossler's Practical German Conversation. Ginn.
Germelhausen. (Gerstäcker). By Lawrence A. McLouth. Holt.
Graphology. By Clifford Howard. Penn.
Handbook of Plant Morphology. By Otis W. Caldwell. Holt.
Homophonic Vocabulary in Ten Languages. By Charles B. Waite. A. C. McClurg.
Incense of Sandalwood. By Willimina L. Armstrong. Baumgardt Publishing Company.
Laboratory Manual of Physics. By Edwin H. Hall. Holt.

Latins Hymans (The Student's Series of Latin Classics). By William Merrill. Sanborn.
Le Livre Français. By Josefa Schrakamp. Holt.
Los Piruitanos y Otros Cuentos. By W. T. Faulkner. William R. Jenkins.
Margueritte Strasbourg. By Oscar Kuhns. Holt.
May Irwin's Home Cooking. By Francis Brook Farley. Stokes.
Nameless Women of the Bible. By Rev. Theron Brown. American Tract Society.
Napoleon. By Ralph Waldo Emerson. Jennings & Graham.
Notes for the Guidance of Authors. Macmillan.
Out of the Northland. By Emilie Kip Baker. Macmillan.
Rebels of the New South. By Walter Marion Raymond. Charles Kerr & Co., Chicago.
Struggle for America, The. By R. P. Brorup. North and South Pub. Co.
Threefold Path to Peace, The. By Xena. The Grafton Press.
Trolley Honeymoon, A. By Clinton W. Lucas. M. W. Hazen Company.
Twin Immortalities, The. By C. E. Russell. Hammersmark Publishing Co.
Upward Leading, The. By James Henry Potts. Jennings & Graham.
Verse-Book, A. By Webster Perit Huntington. Fred J. Freer, Columbus, Ohio.
War Between Russia and Japan. By Count Tolstoy. Stokes.
Waterloo. By James F. Rusling. Jennings & Graham.
Well Ordered Household or the Ideal City, A. By William Arthur. Omaha, Neb.
With Puritan and Pequot. By William Murray Graydon. Penn.



THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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Photograph by the *New York American*.

SCENE ON THE REAR PLATFORM OF AN ELEVATED RAILROAD TRAIN IN NEW YORK CITY, LAST MONTH, SHOWING DANGEROUS PROXIMITY OF PASSENGERS TO THE DEADLY THIRD-RAIL CURRENT.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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No. 4.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The End of a Rigorous Winter.

The winter has been one of such severity,—and of such unwonted and stubborn persistence far into the month of March,—that the reluctant dawn of spring becomes, in the minds of at least half the American people, a matter of deep and positive concern. In the northern half of the country, the winter brought records of low temperature and heavy snowfall that reminded the oldest inhabitant of the orthodox weather of his boyhood, before the climate had changed. The South was swept by cold waves and snowstorms. In parts of the West the snow blockade caused the fuel-supply to fail, so that in some places the farmers burned their corn, and in others their fences. Late in March there still remained in hundreds of densely populated streets of New York City great masses of discolored and unwholesome snow and ice, from the time of the so-called “blizzard” of January 25 and 26. The gradual disintegration of the filth-laden snowbanks was

thought to be the cause of an epidemic of cerebro-spinal meningitis, or “spotted fever,” that developed in New York last month, and that led to the official appointment of a special investigating commission of leading medical experts.

In New York City.

So bad was the condition of these streets through at least seven or eight continuous weeks, that in many of them it was practically impossible for fire engines to make their way. Many hundreds of thousands of dollars had been spent for snow-removal, with good results on a few main thoroughfares, but otherwise little or no achievement. Thus, the longer days, with warm rains and spring sunshine, were anxiously awaited by the people of the most densely crowded metropolis in the world. Meanwhile, the population of New York has seemed to be increasing day by day, with an ever-intensifying pressure upon the resources and facilities that are peculiar to that city. The great office buildings, central mercantile establishments, and many-storied clothing and other factories in the middle and lower part of Manhattan Island are constantly being multiplied, and are thus increasing the day population of this district of concentration. At the same time, the tenement-house capacity of the upper end of the island has been growing at a corresponding pace, while the number of people coming across the East River from Brooklyn and adjacent districts has been greater from week to week. The same thing is true of the swarms of workers who cross each morning from Jersey City, Hoboken, and the various New Jersey suburbs; while there is a moderate but constant growth in the number of people who come to town from the northern suburbs by the several lines of the New York Central system and by the New York, New Haven & Hartford trains, as well as by extensions of the elevated and street railway systems.



A WELCOME CALL.

(Spring comes at last to rescue Father Knickerbocker from the clutch of winter.)—From the *World* (New York).



Photograph by the *New York World*.

AN ORDINARY NEW YORK STREET, LAST MONTH.

(This is not one of the worst, and is comparatively passable.)

The Transit Problem in Acute Form. The result of all this has been, during the months of February and March,—when inclement weather drove everybody to the use of street-transit facilities even for short distances,—such a congestion of the local means of transportation as the world has probably never seen before under any circumstances. The crowds going to and from the world's fair grounds at St. Louis on the days of greatest attendance, and those moving back and forth from Jackson Park at the time of the Chicago exposition, were not to be compared with those that New York witnessed every day, without special occasion, during March and



Photograph by the *New York American*.

STAGE-COACH SPECIALLY CHARTERED FOR TELEPHONE GIRLS LAST MONTH, BY THE EMPLOYING COMPANY, ON ACCOUNT OF OVERCROWDED STREET CARS.

Some Practical Results. The results of this experience in the metropolis of America will be found in their character. A public opinion has been created which, among other things, has already compelled the granting to



Photograph by the *New York World*.

HANGING TO THE CAR PLATFORMS, A REGULAR PRACTICE IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH.

February. To crown an almost unbearable situation, there came, early in March, a strike on the new subway rapid-transit lines, and upon the elevated railroad system, which is under the same management as the subway. And although this strike proved futile and did not last long, it succeeded in greatly hampering and retarding the business of taking people to and from their homes, and demoralized the service for weeks. Never before had the people of New York so painfully,—with such hardship and suffering,—discovered their dependence upon means of street transit as a thing almost fundamental to their existence. They will not forget the object lesson.



Photograph by the New York *American*.

A NEW YORK STREET-RAILWAY SCENE OF LAST MONTH.

a separate company of important franchises for an underground railway system which will operate a number of tunnel tubes under the Hudson River and will connect on the west side with rapid-transit lines to all the important New Jersey suburbs. On the New York side, it will have lines reaching into the heart of the business districts. The situation has further given urgency and impetus to plans for the rapid and extensive development of the lines of the present company's subway system, and important legislation at Albany will have authorized the granting of further franchises to the most favorable bidder for subway lines not yet undertaken. Meanwhile, the New York Central system is pushing with rapidity the work upon its stupendous new terminal facilities, and will add new tracks, to be operated for rapid and frequent electric suburban service, for a distance of thirty miles. The New Haven system also has great projects in hand, and the Long Island system is likewise to be transformed into a network of electric lines for suburban business. The Pennsylvania road is at work upon its great plan for bringing its trains under the Hudson River into the heart of New York, and other systems from the westward are in their turn entering upon

policies of a similar nature. Brooklyn's best talent has been engaged all winter upon the problem how to make the new bridges carry electric cars and trains in such a way as to accommodate the greatest number of people with the least delay. It is practically agreed that there must, on the New York side, be something in the nature of great loops connecting bridge terminals and sweeping out toward the heart of the city in such a way that there can be a continuous movement of hundreds of street cars and elevated and subway trains, across the river by one bridge and back again by another, with a corresponding development of terminal and connecting facilities on the Brooklyn side.

Huge Engineering Outlays. No city in the world has ever had to face such difficult problems relating to transit as those which have lately confronted New York, and in no other city has there ever been so tremendous an outlay for the engineering and construction enterprises that belong to transit and similar services as those now under way in New York or soon to be entered upon. Great as is the Panama Canal in its vastness as a public work and in its probable cost, it falls far behind in these respects when



HON. FREDERICK C. STEVENS, OF THE NEW YORK STATE SENATE.

(Chairman of a joint legislative committee investigating the gas situation.)

compared with the magnitude and cost of the engineering projects now under way or in immediate contemplation relating to the public services of the metropolis of New York. And with so much at stake having to do with the future comfort, well-being, and prosperity of millions of people, and with the present expenditure of hundreds of millions of dollars, it is not strange that there should be a growing interest in the principles of government and administration that are involved, and an even keener interest in those commercial phases of politics that are always to be found where public franchises are at stake and huge contracts for construction work are to be secured.

*New York's
Pressing
Concerns.*

This municipal situation has been pressed in many ways upon the attention of the legislature at Albany during this year's session. Every year it grows more plain that metropolitan affairs ought to be fully in the control of the people of the city, and relieved from the domination of committees of the State legislature. The fundamental remedy would lie in dividing New York into two States, one of them to comprise the existing New York City and adjacent territory. But

such a division, with all its theoretical advantages, is not to be thought of as a practical question. There is nothing to do, therefore, but to take the cumbersome machinery that now exists and use it for the best results that can be obtained from it. Even with a lack of complete self-government, and the difficulty of too much interference from the State legislature, it makes an immense difference to New York City what elements are in control of the municipal government. Thus, at present there are grave scandals in connection with the contracts for lighting the streets. It is charged that the Tammany administration has been paying the lighting monopoly an excessive and needless price for this public service. The matter was taken up in the legislature at Albany, and after much agitation and many charges of undue lobby influence, it was decided, by an almost unanimous vote of the legislators, to investigate the light business. This vote was taken on March 17, and the investigation began in the following week.

*The
Evils of
Tammany.*

If Mayor Low had been reelected and there had been a continuance and development of his efficient methods, the public-lighting question would by this time have been satisfactorily solved and scandals would have been avoided. In a number of aspects, Mr. McClellan's administration has not offended the best sense of the community to any such extent as it was offended by former Tammany governments. Yet Tammany is always the same, however its viciousness may be cloaked. Thus, the Democratic papers have been vying with the Republican press in accusations to the effect that the leaders of Tammany have been profiting in all sorts of ways from their control over franchises and quasi-public work. It has been pointed out that Mr. Murphy, the Tammany boss, is connected with contracting firms which are engaged in doing work to the aggregate of several hundred million dollars, chiefly for corporations which have had to secure franchises and obtain municipal consent before entering upon their projects.

*An
Election
This Year.*

The reasons which in the recent past have convinced most of the best citizens of New York that partisanship has no place in city government are more cogent this year than ever before. A mayor is to be elected in the coming autumn, and a candidate of the utmost strength should be brought forward. Those who will be most active in selecting such a candidate are, however, wise enough to see that nothing could be gained by an early choice, but that the winter and spring should

be spent in securing every possible aid to better municipal conditions from the legislature at Albany. Hard efforts in that direction will have accomplished a great deal when the results of the session are summed up. The pressure brought to bear by great corporations and special interests upon the members of the Legislature was not confined to representatives of one party; and it seemed at an earlier stage of the proceedings to have accomplished its purposes. But there were men of clean courage and quick decision who smoked out the rascality, put members of the Legislature on their good behavior, and helped to secure legislative results of a substantial sort for the well-being of the great masses of people living and toiling in New York City.

*New
Legislation
for the City.* There will be cheaper gas, better methods in the development of transit systems, probably some comprehensive plan of dealing with the problems of water-supply, and progress in several other directions, as a result of recent work in which some of the Republican leaders of New York City have been notably active, together with reform bodies like the City Club. Among acts of the Legislature from which good results are



MR. JACOB H. SCHIFF.

(Who served last month on a committee to report on New York police conditions.)



HON. JOHN RAINES, OF THE NEW YORK STATE SENATE.
(Leader in liquor legislation.)

hoped may be mentioned the amendments to the Raines liquor law, by means of which it is declared that several thousand of the most harmful and vicious resorts may be put out of business. The problems of a city like New York are of appalling magnitude, yet they need not be despaired of. Never before were so many men of intelligence, high character, and strong conviction interested in trying to deal with these affairs. When great financiers like Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, with all their cares and interests, stand ready to give thought and sympathy as well as money to promote the advancement of the community, it is clear that we are moving steadily toward the time when the best business talent will administer public finance, and when the welfare of the people will be as carefully considered by the ablest minds as in the years past has been the welfare of the money-making corporations.

*Chicago's
Great
Contest.*

The municipal election in Chicago occurs on April 4. The personalities of the two candidates for mayor stand out boldly, and the issues, while technical and complicated, relate to one paramount subject.



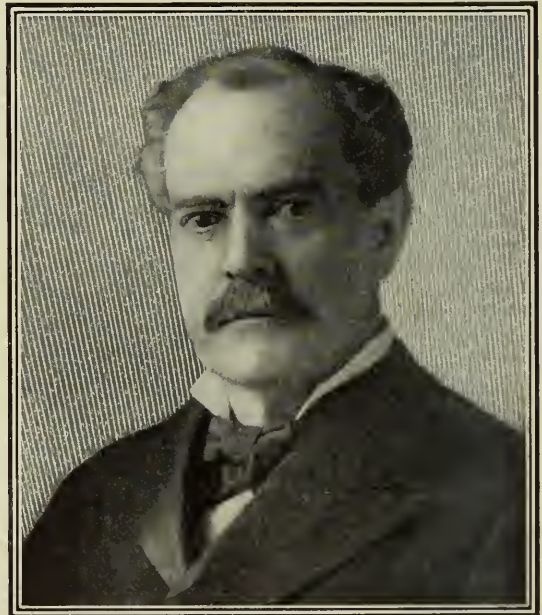
MR. JOHN M. HARLAN.

(The Republican candidate for mayor of Chicago.)

Mr. John M. Harlan is the Republican candidate, and Judge Edward F. Dunne is the candidate of the Democratic party. Mr. Harlan, while still a young man, has for ten years been a striking figure in Chicago's municipal politics, and is known to possess in the highest degree the qualities of courage and probity. Judge Dunne has for some time past been a well-known member of the local judiciary. The issue relates to the future of the Chicago street-transit business. Judge Dunne and the Democratic platform demand immediate municipal ownership of all street-railway lines. It is estimated that the carrying out of this policy would cost Chicago, for the buying out of the assets and rights of the existing companies and the proper new equipment of the lines, a sum reaching well toward \$100,000,000. Mr. Harlan and the Republicans favor the granting of franchise extensions to the street-railway people for a comparatively short period, on condition of a thorough modernizing of the equipment and service, with the right reserved to the municipality to buy the system after a specified number of years, at the actual value of the cars and other tangible assets, with no allowance for franchises and good-will.

The Rival Programmes. The programme of Judge Dunne involves many difficulties that would probably make for long litigation and delay in the courts. The programme of Mr.

Harlan is on many accounts also a difficult one, but it would probably work out more satisfactorily. The voters have not only to choose between these candidates with their different platforms, but also to express themselves upon several questions coming before them by referendum. One of these questions reads, "Shall any franchise be granted to street railways?" The answer given by the voters to these questions on a separate ballot paper will doubtless have much to do with determining Chicago's permanent policy. If Judge Dunne be elected and his programme can be carried out, Chicago will have entered upon the largest scheme of municipal ownership and operation that any city in the world has undertaken up to the present time. Mr. Harlan was some years ago definitely committed to the idea of the municipal ownership of the street railways, and he does not now reject that principle. He is, however, arguing with great earnestness against the plan of buying out the assets of the existing companies, which he characterizes as "worthless junk." Rather than make such an investment, he would have the city put its capital into an effective new subway system, on the one hand, and into surface lines on streets not now held by the existing companies,—these new lines to be run in connection with municipal lines on streets where the old franchises have already expired or else are at the point of expiration.



JUDGE EDWARD F. DUNNE.

(The Democratic candidate for mayor of Chicago.)

A Promising Outlook. If Chicago really means to go into the business of passenger transit on municipal account, Mr. Harlan's method of doing it would seem to promise better results for the people of Chicago than Judge Dunne's method, for in one case the public money would have been expended in the acquisition of an obsolete service, while in the other case every penny of the city's money would be spent upon wholly fresh additions to the transit facilities of Chicago. This would compel the existing companies, or their successors in ownership, to modernize their service under pressure of municipal competition. Thus, the citizens would have secured a doubled or quadrupled extent of transit service, all up to the latest standards. The people of Chicago are aroused to the point of doing something of first-class importance, regardless of expense, in securing for their city an up-to-date system of street railways and rapid-transit lines; and they seem to have learned how to protect their own interests as against the greed of monopoly corporations. In principle, their fight for the public welfare is not so different from that which the people of New York are carrying on, and which in some form or other is to be found going on in every large American city.

Not a Radical Movement. There is nothing destructively radical in the recent self-assertion of the people of the cities of New York and Chicago against the great public-service corporations. The companies have made hundreds of millions of dollars out of capitalizing the rights and privileges that belong to the public itself. In New York, for example, where excessive prices are paid to the lighting trust for the electric illumination of the streets, and where the public pays a dollar per thousand feet for its gas, large dividends are distributed upon lighting securities that sell at fancy prices in the stock market and that represent in volume several times the money actually invested in the lighting business. It is expected that new legislation will bring the price of gas down to 75 cents or thereabouts; but it is also likely that this will be done gradually upon a sliding scale, in order not to deal too rudely with so-called vested interests. Much will depend upon the results of the investigation by the legislative committee, which promises to be vigorous and thorough, and which will go into various phases of gas and electric lighting in New York City. In all the pending agitation in American cities and American States against the greed of corporate monopoly, there seems at the present time a remarkably sane and equitable disposition on the part of those who represent the public interest.

Kansas and the Oil Business. These movements in New York and Chicago, however, although they involve vastly more in value, and also in their relation to the actual comfort and well-being of large populations, have not attracted nearly so wide notice as the comparatively novel and sensational action of the Legislature and governor of the State of Kansas in dealing with the subject of the shipping, refining, and sale of the product of the oil wells of the State. All the salient facts will be found in an article contributed to the present number of this Review by Mr. Charles M. Harger, of Abilene, Kan. Mr. Harger gives an account of the opening of the Kansas oil fields and the growth of the industry, and relates the circumstances under which the State determined to assert itself against the methods of the Standard Oil monopoly. The one thing most widely commented upon throughout the country has been the appropriation of money for the building and operation of a State oil refinery. A more thoughtful study of the subject, however, would seem to make it clear that the building of a small public refinery to be worked by convict labor, while interesting and significant for a number of reasons, is not a matter comparable in importance with the other legislative steps just taken by the people of Kansas. They have dealt in such a way with the question of transportation as to give independent shippers the same rates and advantages that belong to the Standard Oil Company.

Securing Equal Chances. This they have done by making the oil pipe lines common carriers and by taking measures to secure equal railroad rates. Such steps cannot be complained of by the Standard Oil Company. It is not prevented from carrying on its business with every opportunity in the State of Kansas; but, on the other hand, any capitalist or company may now engage in the business of transporting or refining petroleum with the same access to common carriers that is enjoyed by the Standard Oil Company. Unquestionably we have entered, in this country, upon a period of business operations upon the large scale by great corporations. There are advantages in this, and there can be no serious harm in it, provided there is no infringement of the rights of smaller companies or firms to a like use of facilities that are in their nature public and common. Kansas, therefore, is not likely to teach us so much by the operation of her oil refinery as by her vigorous application of the sound principle that common carriers must give everybody a square deal. Already, before the end of March, the maximum oil-rate law had resulted in the starting of a dozen independent refineries.

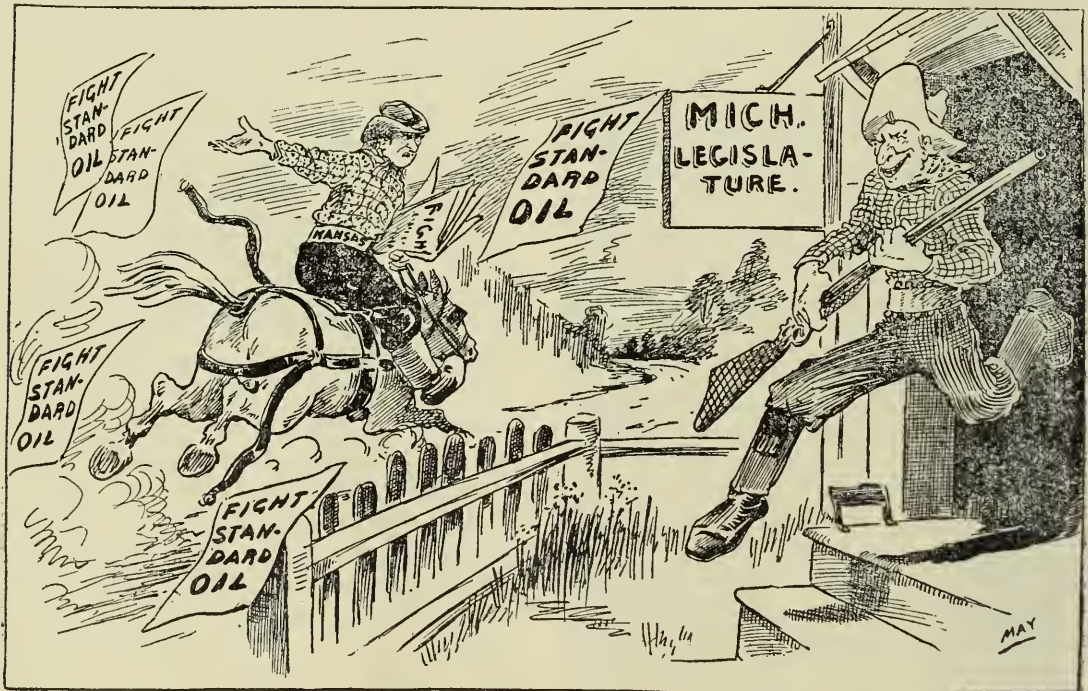
Various
Similar
Efforts.

Many years ago, when the raising and sale of wheat was the principal business of the pioneer farmers of the Northwestern States, there grew up monopolized lines of elevators at every way station throughout the wheat country, and these enjoyed such relations to the railroad that the farmer was obliged to sell his wheat to them at the price they chose to pay. If he wished to ship his wheat independently, the railroad found itself unable to supply him with cars. The situation became impossible, and the legislatures learned how to apply the old-fashioned principles of equity to the business of inspecting, grading, storing, and transporting the staple crops. The grievances have in the main been overcome, and the once bitter feud between the farmers and the railroads in the Northwest seems now to have lost most of its acute character. Whether moved by the example of Kansas or prompted by the needs of their own localities and a certain spirit that is in the air this year, a number of other States, especially in the West, have this year been dealing with these questions of practical control of monopolies and more effective regulation of railroad rates. The widespread interest in the discussion of private-car lines used for the shipment of fresh beef, fruit,

and other edible supplies, and the demand for their national regulation, have naturally had their effect upon many legislatures in the attitude they have assumed toward local monopolies or common-carrier inequalities.

"Beef
Industry"
Report.

In this number of the REVIEW will be found an article of authoritative character telling about the Government's recent investigation of what it entitles "The Beef Industry." It is written by Dr. E. Dana Durand, a very able young economist and an expert investigator now connected with the Bureau of Corporations. Mr. Durand was engaged for many months in the beef investigation, and has now gone to work under Commissioner Garfield's direction upon the inquiry into the oil business apropos of the situation in Kansas and elsewhere. Our readers will remember Dr. Durand's instructive article in this REVIEW for February on "Street Railway Fares in the United States," also based upon government investigations. We must ask for his present article on the beef business a thoughtful reading on the part of those who have been influenced by the numerous harsh criticisms of Mr. Garfield's report. It is to be remembered that the inquiry was not made for the purpose of sustaining the



THE MICHIGAN LEGISLATOR (to the Paul Revere of Kansas): "We have no oil wells, but we're in on the scrap!"
From the *Journal* (Detroit).



MR. GARFIELD GOES A-CALLING.

(The Commissioner of the Bureau of Corporations, having finished his examination of the beef trust, has instituted another rigid examination of the Standard Oil Company.)
—From the *Times* (Minneapolis).

attacks of a class of writers engaged in furnishing articles of the "frenzied" sort to widely circulated magazines. However sincere these writers may be,—and however dramatic and convincing their way of telling what they have found out,—they are very far from being engaged just now in conducting a scientific investigation. Furthermore, sensationalism is their stock in trade; and they would be out of business at once if they should attempt to tell the truth in a well-proportioned way.

*Opposite
Points
of View.*

There are two diametrically opposite points of view. First, there is that of the people who have conceived of an industry like what they call the "beef trust" as inherently oppressive and a public evil,—a conspiracy to bring about abnormal conditions. To them it is simply a giant monopoly existing in order that it may control the market and permanently depress the prices to be paid the farmers and ranchmen for their cattle, while maintaining always at unduly high levels the prices exacted from consumers for their necessary supplies of meat. The enemies of the monopoly thus think of it as exacting a first large profit from the cattle men and a second large profit from the meat-consumers, while managing to get a third large profit from wrong and illegal relations to the railroad companies, and a fourth or perhaps a fifth large profit from the many-sided development of industry that grows out of utilizing the by-products of the slaughter-houses. The opposite point of view is that which is held

by those engaged successfully in the beef industry, and their apologists. They think of themselves as having so eliminated the waste of old-fashioned competition, and of business on the small scale, that their improved methods have become a great and positive boon to the cattle men of the West and the beef-consumers of the East. They believe that their facilities for transportation and cold storage, and their methods of packing and distributing fresh meat and of preparing and marketing other food products, are of positive benefit to the consumers, and that the public gains a great deal more than the Armours and Swifts and Morrisses gain from all this development of improved methods.

*Finding the
Economic
Mean of
Truth.*

Now, as between these two points of view, the plain, unsensational truth is to be found, by such an investigation as Commissioner Garfield undertook. Neither of the extreme points of view is wholly correct. The report transmitted to Congress by the President just before the session closed ought to be highly reassuring to everybody honestly concerned. There are some real problems respecting the carrying on of large industries that we shall not solve in this country this year or next. The Bureau of Corporations in the Department of Commerce has no destructive mission. Whatever may be wrong, under existing United States laws, in the way in which the beef industry is carried on by the half-dozen largest packing firms is already in the hands of the Attorney-General for unsparing prosecution. The Department of Commerce and Labor had principally to ascertain facts in accordance with the resolution of Congress adopted in March of last year relating to prices of cattle and dressed beef, and the organization, conduct, and profits of the corporations engaged in the beef industry. This work has been well carried out by competent men, with impartiality. In so far as the subject is one that requires further attention, it will not be dropped.

*Publicity
and Its
Results.*

The greatest advantage to be derived from investigations like this, and from the ever-growing publicity that now envelops the affairs of large corporations, is one that is as yet almost unperceived. It can be stated in one short sentence: Company after company is setting its house in order as respects things that would not bear inspection. It would not be difficult, for instance, to mention here a number of important companies that, as a matter of fact, no longer accept any railroad rebates or special favors as against smaller competitors. They feel that they cannot afford

the harm that might come to them from attacks upon such grounds. They are relying, now and henceforth, not so much upon special privileges as upon the legitimate use of their larger and better facilities for making and marketing their wares. The very fact that the Bureau of Corporations exists, that it is wholly courageous and independent, and that it will use its powers temperately yet unflinchingly for the public good, is undoubtedly having its wholesome effect in causing monopolistic corporations to refrain from some of their former practices.

Prospective Value of Commerce Department. No wise man could expect that the new Department of Commerce and Labor would evolve any magical method for curing evils in the economic system of the country. It had first to become carefully organized in order to do any work at all, and then it had to take up its tasks as they presented themselves and try to deal with them in a straightforward way. Mr. Cortelyou, as the first Secretary at the head of the department, brought about a good working organization. The country will find in due time that this department can in a variety of ways serve public interests as regards commercial and industrial pursuits, and make itself of decided benefit and profit, just as the Department of Agriculture has demonstrated its usefulness by serving the people in ways that repay in dollars and cents, a hundred times over, all that the department costs the public treasury. And there are other government services relating to the economic interests of the people that must now, in this age of preëminent business activity, be developed for greater usefulness.

The Railroad Question Still Pending. The Interstate Commerce Commission is a case in point. The President thinks its powers ought to be considerably expanded in view of the need of a more effective oversight and control of the business of transporting commodities from one part of the country to another. The people agree with the President, and the House of Representatives sustained him by an almost unanimous vote. In spite of all pressure put upon the Senate, however, it refused to take any action; and so the Fifty-eighth Congress expired on March 4 with the pending subject of railroad control and rate legislation to be dealt with by its successor. President Roosevelt expects to call an extra session of the Fifty-ninth Congress to meet in October. It is his intention to lay before this extra session the need of railroad legislation, and also the duty of revising some of the schedules of the Dingley tariff. The new House of Rep-

resentatives will be quite as ready to take the President's view of railroad legislation as was the body that has now expired. But the Senate,—in spite of the fair promises of those who are accustomed to speak for it as a body, or for the committees most closely concerned,—will not be any more disposed, in October, to regulate railroads than it has been during the past winter.

How to Influence Senators. Furthermore, the President's views on the subject will have no great weight with a large number of the Senators, who take their advice on such questions from other sources. If these Senators took their advice from their constituents at home, no one could reasonably complain, even if they were always in disagreement with the President of the United States. But here we have a case in which the constituencies are on the side of the President to an overwhelming extent. The corporation Senators do not represent their States aright. It is, therefore, plain that if there is to be any effective rate legislation next fall or winter, it can only come about through such persistent work by the newspapers and the people of the several States as will smoke out the Senators, man by man, compel them to say what they mean to do, and put them on record in no ambiguous fashion. The people of the United States can have railroad legislation if they want it, but they can have it only by this method. If the people of West Virginia, for instance, want something done, they must compel Mr. Elkins to understand it in no uncertain way. If the people of New England mean business, there are several Senators who should be cross-examined by their constituents, "down to the ground."

Some Senators to Be Interrogated. Both Senators from New York have spent their lives as the heads of the very class of corporations to be affected by the proposed new laws. It behooves the people of New York, therefore, in the months of the Congressional recess, to let Mr. Platt and Mr. Depew know what they want, and to find out what Mr. Platt and Mr. Depew are proposing to do about it. Mr. Knox, of Pennsylvania (who was seriously ill during the latter part of the recent session, much to the loss of the Senate and the country), not only has a highly trained mind of his own, but a well-perfected habit of speaking it with precision and without fear. The Pennsylvania people, therefore, will have no trouble in finding out what Mr. Knox is ready to do about helping to pass railroad bills. His general view is well known. As for Senator Penrose, he can be asked, and doubtless he will answer.

Senators Kean and Dryden, of New Jersey, are supposed to have important connection with large financial and other corporations, and the political elements in New Jersey are not radical in their corporation attitude. But there are great numbers of individual citizens in New Jersey who agree with the President, and who would do well to make their views known to the gentlemen who represent their State in the Senate. Mr. La Follette will doubtless turn up from Wisconsin with strongly formulated and very radical views already well known. The country would be more interested in finding out exactly what position so influential a Senator as his colleague, Mr. Spooner, will take when the railroad subject is really brought to a focus in the Senate Chamber toward the end of this year.

*Discussion
in the
States.*

In several States, it is to be remembered, the legislatures are to be chosen in November which will have United States Senators to elect. In some of these States the popular choice for Senator is ascertained at primary elections. In others, the issue is fought out practically in the nominating and electing of members of the Legislature whose views on the Senatorial question are known. In a number of States, preliminary Senatorial contests are going to be affected by the question whether a candidate is supported by the railroads and great corporations or is standing for the public interests. The present time is singularly favorable for a calm, searching discussion by the newspapers and the people of every phase of this subject of railroads and industrial corporations in legislation and politics. For one thing, these subjects can just now be discussed with less bias of partisanship than at almost any time in the past. President Roosevelt's attitude upon such matters is not partisan in its nature. It is true that by the claims of some, and by the reproaches of others, he has been credited or charged with having gone over to a Democratic position. But the real cleavage among public men on these questions does not follow the party lines.

*Failure of
Santo Domingo
Treaty.*

When Congress adjourned, on the 4th of March, the Senate remained for two weeks in extra session (with Vice-President Fairbanks in the chair and the new Senators sworn in) for the purpose of confirming Presidential appointments, and, especially, to consider the pending Santo Domingo treaty. It was found that,—although a variety of amendments were adopted in order to make the treaty more palatable to one Senator or another,—the necessary two-thirds support could

not be rallied; and this subject also went over, to be taken up again next autumn or winter. Here again we have a topic of great importance upon which, if one estimates correctly, the preponderant opinion of the country supports the President and the administration, in the new policy toward Santo Domingo, as explained in these pages last month, and thoroughly described and defended in the article by Prof. John Bassett Moore. Some of the Senators opposed the treaty because they frankly avowed their desire to annex Santo Domingo to the United States and regarded the proposed arrangement as one that would bring about so good an adjustment of Santo Domingo affairs as to obviate the demand for annexation. This, certainly, was an intelligible position, and an honest one; but although these Senators may wish to annex Santo Domingo, one does not find any strong tide of public opinion setting in that direction. Other Senators opposed the treaty because they declared that it brought about a relationship which would inevitably lead up to annexation,—the first step toward which they were determined to oppose with all firmness. This was not a sound position.

*Precedent
versus
Practice.*

There were still other Senators who professed to be willing enough to deal after the manner of this treaty with Santo Domingo but for the fact that we might thus have established a precedent which would prevent our dealing upon their precise merits with analogous situations that might arise



ONE THING TO AVOID.

"In this collection business don't play at the cat's-paw act."
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

in other Latin-American republics. The simple fact is that all our recent experience shows how directly we deal with such problems upon their individual merits, regardless of precedents. We have made Cuba an entirely independent republic, but have given her some commercial advantages and stand sponsor before the world for her internal good order and external solvency and honor. In the case of Venezuela, we have worked out an arbitration plan for adjusting foreign claims and a financial plan for paying off the claims as adjusted, and this we have done without impairing independence and self-government in Venezuela. At Panama, we have countenanced the creation of a new republic under our auspices and protection, and with relations to our government not based upon any precedent. Far earlier than any of these arrangements, we had come into unwritten relations with Mexico of an intimate and mutually beneficial kind under which Mexico is safe from foreign aggression and practically guaranteed against serious domestic instability.

Our Mission in Santo Domingo.

Now, the case of Santo Domingo is not so much one of theory as one of acute practical conditions. Circumstances have made us the one interested power that can, to everybody's satisfaction, assist in straightening out the disordered finances of the Dominican Republic and in carrying out a plan for adjusting foreign indebtedness and gradually paying it off. It will cost us nothing to do this useful piece of work, and it will positively promote those causes of peace, friendliness, and good order in the world that sensible and far-seeing men have at heart. Most of the objections that have been brought against the protocol have been quibbling and far-fetched. In any case, under the terms of the arbitration of last summer, we shall continue for some time to come, as we have already begun, to administer several of the Santo Domingo custom-houses, in order to work out the adjudicated claims of the Santo Domingo Improvement Company. With Santo Domingo's entire concurrence, we could just as well as not use the same machinery of financial intervention to satisfy the European creditors and thus to prevent what will otherwise be quite likely to occur,—namely, a seizure and occupation of Santo Domingo by one or more European powers.

Our Place in the Caribbean.

Then would arise the danger that such occupation would not be abandoned in the near future, and that it would lead to the gradual development of a European naval base in West Indian waters, which are now regarded as our own chief naval

rendezvous. As to precedents, and the assumption of future responsibility for debt-collecting in other republics, it is needless to borrow trouble. If similar situations should arise,—for example, in the little Central American republics,—it would be the merest incident of administration, in so far as any cost or effort were involved, for our government to act as receiver and liquidator. But, the very fact that such steps might be taken would have a wholesome effect upon the methods of reckless finance in these small republics. The existence of Uncle Sam's approved machinery for passing revolutionary republics through bankruptcy proceedings would act as a deterrent, and would thus diminish the need for applying the remedy. In no case would we ever be likely to have to use our influence in these matters excepting in what is already coming to be pretty well established as our own peculiar sphere of influence around the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico. A glance at the map will help to make the situation clear. When we acquired the mouths of the Mississippi, a hundred years ago, our full control of the Gulf of Mexico became inevitable. And our interest in the Caribbean Sea became so important as to aid in the evolution of the Monroe Doctrine as it was originally expressed. That concern for our naval supremacy in the Caribbean has steadily grown until,—through the expulsion of Spain from Cuba and Porto Rico and our acquisition of the Panama Canal,—we have made the Caribbean Sea our own for naval control as completely as the Gulf of Mexico. We have, indeed, become so dominant there that our sense of duty must be aroused.

Two Latin-American Groups.

Everything we have done for Porto Rico, Cuba, and Panama has been at once for the well-being of the inhabitants and the improvement of larger relations. We shall extend our influence to Santo Domingo and Haiti and to the small republics of Central America. In due time we shall obtain the warm good-will both of Venezuela and Colombia and shall be given the opportunity to render both of those republics substantial help in getting upon such a basis of business prosperity and political stability as are enjoyed, under our neighborly influence, by Mexico and Cuba. It would perhaps be well to drop the term "Monroe Doctrine" as applying to our present policy toward the countries extending from Mexico down the isthmus and including Venezuela and Colombia as well as the Greater Antilles. We have a part to play within this sphere that is more than negative. It is to this group of countries that the views laid down so broadly

by Secretary Olney in his correspondence with Lord Salisbury really pertain. Those views were further developed under McKinley, and have been very strongly set forth and maintained under Roosevelt. We shall probably have to show, further, what we mean by taking an active interest in the latest complications of Venezuela. That country is just now engaged in confiscating the property of the French Cable Company, and it also persists in depriving an American company of its asphalt properties. It may become the duty of our government to take up these two controversies upon their substantial merits, and thus to dispute the finality of the decisions of Venezuelan courts. All this interference with affairs in the ring of republics around the Caribbean Sea belongs to a policy that has long been growing up through practical conditions, but which has not yet been sufficiently formulated, and differentiated from the more negative ideas that belong to the Monroe Doctrine. Quite apart from the Monroe Doctrine, we have assumed an active and at times a rather dominating interest in the affairs of our more immediate Latin-American neighbors.

A Distinction of Policy. When, however, one looks farther down the map of South America, the policy of Uncle Sam takes on a wholly different complexion. The Monroe Doctrine becomes important then only in its earlier, negative aspects. It is deeply to be regretted that the makers of public opinion in the Argentine, Chile, and Brazil so lamentably fail to understand the very alphabet of the policy that prevails at Washington. The Monroe Doctrine as it relates to those important republics merely means that we in the United States have, from the beginning of the independence of South America, held steadfastly to the view that the Latin republics were to develop in their own way without being subjected to the danger of reconquest by any transoceanic colonizing power. Thus, if the idea that Germany was planning to secure the southern part of Brazil should have been found to be well based, the influence of the United States could be counted upon by Brazil to almost any extent for the protection of Brazilian territory against German designs. But there is not going to be any European attempt to seize territory below the northern coasts of South America. And the Yankees, as we are called in those southern countries, have no other thought for the larger states of South America than a desire for their prosperity and for the growth of trade and friendly relations between us and them. Yet the newspapers we receive from Buenos Ayres, Valparaiso, Rio de Janeiro, and other



AN ARGENTINE VIEW OF OUR RELATIONS WITH SANTO DOMINGO.

SANTO DOMINGO: "Don't forget, Señor, the Christian doctrine, which says, 'Forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors.'"

UNCLE SAM: "Oh, in place of this we always prefer the Monroe Doctrine, which tells us, 'Take what you can get and run.'"—From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Ayres).

such centers indicate persistent misunderstanding of the policy of the United States. This was strikingly shown in two or three cartoons reproduced in this magazine last month. It is shown in another reproduced this month, dealing with our supposed designs upon Santo Domingo. There is nothing now to be said excepting that it will be the part of statesmanship and diplomacy at Washington, during President Roosevelt's new term, to use every means for the removal of these misconceptions in South America, and for the establishment with the Argentine, Chile, and Brazil of relations as cordial as those that now exist between our government and that of France or England.

Not only with the Spanish-speaking world of our Western Hemisphere, but also with the Spanish people of the Iberian Peninsula, our relations are, it is hoped, soon once more to become of the best. We are in the early summer to send to Spain a naval expedition, under the command of Admiral Chester, who will conduct American astronomers to that country for the purpose of observing an



MR. WILLIAM M. COLLIER.
(The new American minister to Spain.)

eclipse of the sun which is due in the month of August. It is expected that no ship will go that was in existence at the time of the Spanish-American War, while everything else that is possible will be done to show our good-will toward Spain. Our new minister to that country, Mr. William M. Collier, of the State of New York, is a young lawyer of marked attainments, who has written well-known law books, and has served the Department of Commerce at Washington in a legal capacity. He conceives of his mission as one of friendliness. Our Spanish relations are important.

While the work of the last Congress was considerable in the aggregate, the Senate's refusal to do what was expected of it makes a very large part of the chapter. The needed legislation for the Panama Canal passed the House, but failed in the Senate. This would have enabled the President to reorganize the existing cumbersome commission and would have affected in other ways the management of the great undertaking. The proposed railway-regulation bill passed the House almost unanimously, but could get no consideration in the Senate. A very important pure-food bill was passed by the House—a measure of far-

reaching consequence—and it was held up in the Senate. The House duly passed a satisfactory Statehood bill, admitting Oklahoma and the Indian Territory as one State and uniting New Mexico and Arizona and admitting them as another State. The Senate would not concur in this statesman-like settlement of the question, and so the whole business has gone over to the next Congress. The Santo Domingo treaty was a matter of prime importance, but the Senate passed it over until the extra session, next October. The Newfoundland reciprocity treaty had hearings of a sort that may affect for generations to come the political development of North America; but the Senate chose to alter the treaty in such ways as to make it manifestly unacceptable to the other contracting party. The group of arbitration treaties with foreign nations ought to have been ratified without hesitation. The Senate held them up a long time, and then changed them in such a way as to remove their chief practical value and prevent their exchange and acceptance.

*The
National
Budget.*

The total appropriations of the session reached an aggregate of \$818,478,914.81. This is a little larger than the appropriations of the previous session. Within a few years the cost of running the Government has increased by more than 50 per cent. This last Congress has made the record for outlay, its expenditures exceeding those of the Congress that provided for the Spanish-American War. It has been the opinion expressed in this REVIEW that Congress made a mistake in its extensive reduction of taxes after the close of that war. While some of the stamp taxes were needless and annoying, the highly lucrative beer tax ought to have been kept, and portions of the remitted tobacco taxes might also have remained. As matters stand, the sums voted for expenditure during the fiscal year that begins July 1 considerably exceed the estimated revenue for that period. The country can bear the increased expenditure provided the money is used for valuable ends. The great pension bill involves no waste, because the money is distributed back to the people of the country. The cost of maintaining the army and navy is, in the President's opinion, a wise and economical expenditure of money. In the opinion of others, it is most of it sheer waste and loss. It is not, in our opinion, true that any considerable part of the \$818,000,000 appropriated for next year's government expense can fairly be said to indicate gross extravagance, much less to point to misuse or mismanagement of the money of the taxpayers.



From a stereograph. Copyright, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

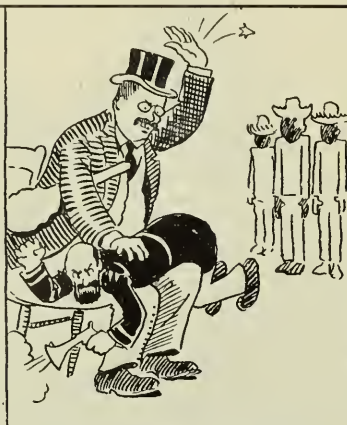
SCENE AT THE EAST FRONT OF THE CAPITOL, MARCH 4, 1905.

Mr. Roosevelt's Inauguration. The weather at Washington was auspicious for the inauguration, and this fact may have its bearings upon the further demand for a postponement of inaugural ceremonies from March 4 to a more promising date, perhaps at the end of April. President Roosevelt never appeared to better

advantage than on the fourth day of last month. The illustration presented on this page gives a good idea of the general scene at the east front of the Capitol, where, in the presence of many thousands of people, the President took the oath of office and made his brief inaugural address. He stood forth in the fullness of his great strength



He attends to San Domingo.



He hands Mr. Castro a few.



He jumps on the Senate.



He writes on the race question.



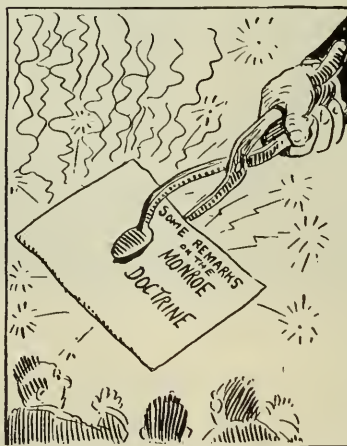
He lands on the Standard Oil Co.



He attends a banquet in New York.



He superintends the preparations for inauguration day.



He passes a hot message to the Senate.



He pauses a moment to make plans for a hunting trip.

of body, mind, and moral purpose; and the crowds felt the inspiration of his superb manhood. His dignity was flawless, yet his democratic directness and friendliness and sincerity were evident to all.

The President's Plans and Prospects. He has entered upon his new term with brilliant prospects. Those who have been saying that President Roosevelt has hard and troublous times before him wholly misunderstand the man and the political situation. It is absurd to suppose that there is any "war" on between Mr. Roosevelt and the Senate. The President is in earnest in the views that he sets forth, but what he does as a public man is all in his day's work. He has no dream of trying to coerce the Senate, and is not under the slightest temptation to do anything that would make what is called a "break" between himself and that body, or between himself and the Senatorial leaders of his own party. He will recommend to Congress what he thinks right, and the country will hold Congress responsible for the way in which it exercises the powers that unquestionably belong to it as an equal and co-ordinate branch of the Government. Mr. Roosevelt, it would seem to us, has before him every prospect of a very useful, happy, and harmonious administration. He made several speeches and addresses in March, one or two of them at



MAJ. WILLIAM WARNER.
(United States Senator-elect from Missouri.)

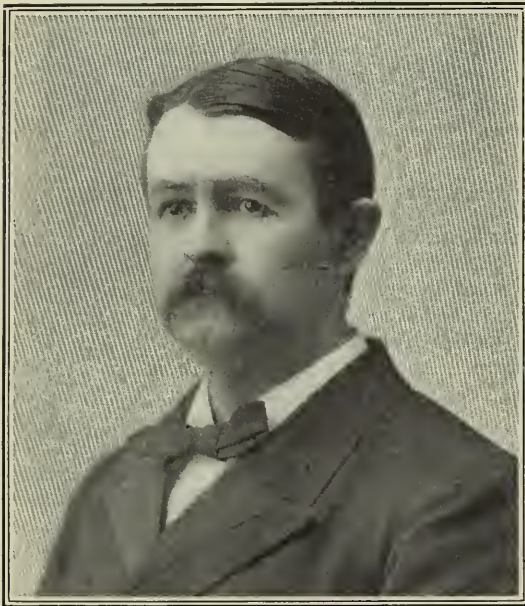
New York, where he came to attend a banquet on St. Patrick's Day; and these speeches, like most of his recent utterances, have had a well-recognized bearing upon wholesome progress in the social life and condition of the American nation. As these pages make their appearance, the President will probably be on the point of starting for Texas; whence, after a reunion with his old regiment and a possible rabbit hunt or two, he will proceed to the heart of Colorado for several weeks' hunting of bear or mountain lion in the wilderness. His main object will be to obtain fresh air and that toning up which comes to him with hardy out-of-door life in the unmodified wilderness of the great Western mountains.

Meanwhile, the affairs of government *Business at Washington.* at Washington promise to go on smoothly, even with some dispersion of department heads. Mr. Hay sailed for the Mediterranean on March 18, for a number of weeks of much-needed rest. Mr. Cortelyou has taken the helm at the Post-Office Department, and his thoroughgoing methods will in due time begin to show their effects. He is so fortunate as to have secured for the position of First Assistant Postmaster-General the services of Mr. Frank H. Hitchcock, of Massachusetts. Mr. Hitchcock, like Mr. Cortelyou, has made his way through sheer personal merit, without any reli-



HON. FRANK H. HITCHCOCK.
(First Assistant Postmaster-General.)

ance on political influence. He is a Harvard graduate, and has been at work in Washington for some fourteen years. He was chief of the division of foreign markets in the Agricultural Department when Mr. Cortelyou, nearly two years ago, made him chief clerk of the new Department of Commerce and Labor. When the campaign opened last June, Mr. Cortelyou, as national chairman, made Mr. Hitchcock a confidential assistant at headquarters. Now Mr. Hitchcock is again Mr. Cortelyou's right-hand man, in the administration of our vast postal business. The new Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General was named on March 15. He is Mr. Peter V. Degraw, who has had much experience as a newspaper man, and also in business, and is highly regarded by Mr. Cortelyou.



PRESIDENT CRAIGHEAD, OF TULANE UNIVERSITY.

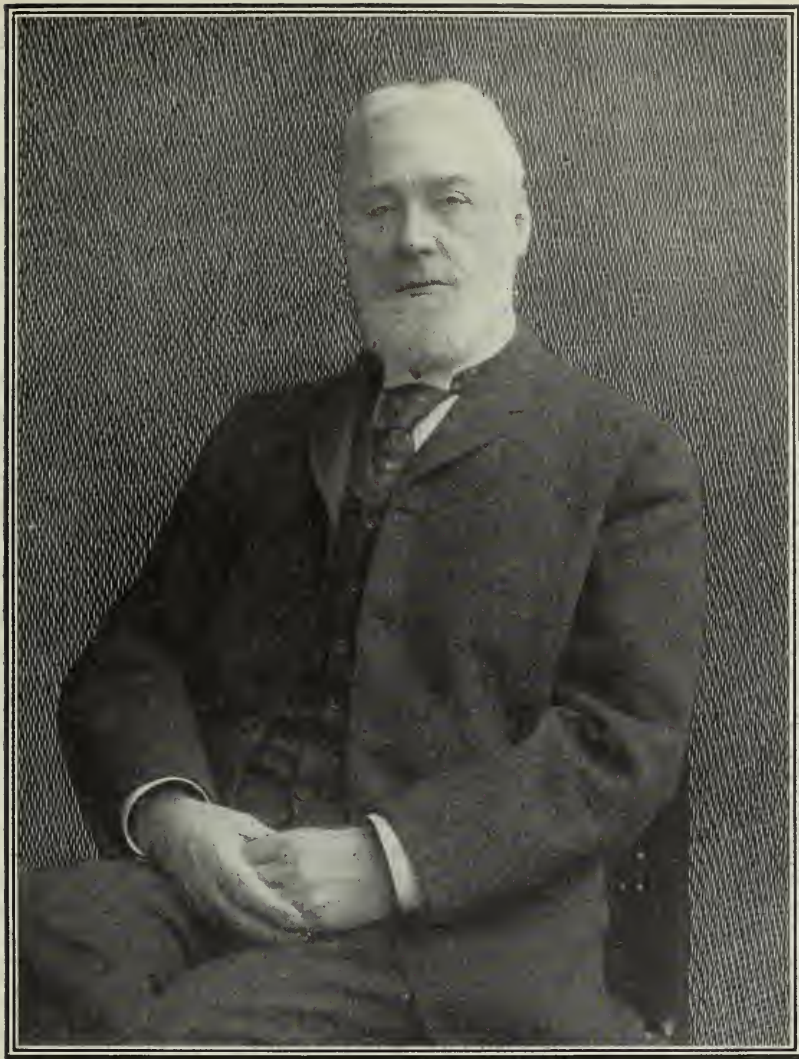
Among the nominations sent to the Senate at the opening of the special session, on Monday, March 6, was that of the retiring Missouri Senator, Hon. Francis M. Cockrell, to be a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Meanwhile, Mr. Cockrell's name was going before the Missouri Legislature every day in its deadlocked struggle over the election of the new United States Senator. The contest was finally closed on the day when the Legislature was obliged, under the constitution, to adjourn,—namely, Saturday, March 18. Mr. Cockrell had held, throughout the session, the solid Democratic

votes, eighty-three in number. The winner had to obtain eighty-eight. Mr. Thomas K. Niedringhaus had been selected by the Republican caucus, but a group of men controlled by Mr. Richard Kerens had held out in the hope of electing that gentleman through sheer persistence. At the last moment a compromise was effected among the Republicans, and the toga fell to the Hon. William Warner, of Kansas City. Major Warner is Wisconsin-born, and he had finished his college studies and was practising law in that State when he went into the Civil War. At the close of the war he settled in Kansas City, Mo., and he has served his fellow-citizens there as mayor, member of Congress, United States district attorney, and in other ways. He is a man of worth and repute, who will make an excellent Senator. The Delaware Senatorial deadlock was unbroken as these pages were closed for the press. The death of the venerable Senator Bate, of Tennessee, last month, resulted in the selection, as his successor, of the present governor, Hon. James B. Frazier, who will belong to the younger element in the Senate, being only forty-seven years old. Mr. Frazier has an established reputation as a public man of intelligence and high character, and he is an especial supporter of education.

*Southern
Education.*

The march of educational progress seems to be taking on a quickened pace in every part of the country. Several things are happening to call special attention to education in the South. On the 13th of the present month Dr. Edwin A. Alderman will be installed, in a formal way, as president of the University of Virginia. He entered upon the duties of the post in the autumn, but Jefferson's birthday is the fitting time at Charlottesville for celebrating a great occasion in the history of the university that Thomas Jefferson conceived, built, and inaugurated. Jefferson did not believe in having a chief executive for his university, but changing conditions bring new needs, as Jefferson himself would have been the first to recognize. Professor Kent writes about the university for this issue of the REVIEW, and Professor Trent about Dr. Alderman. At Tulane University, New Orleans, whence Virginia called Dr. Alderman, a new president was inaugurated last month in the person of Dr. E. B. Craighead. Dr. Craighead was called from an institution in Missouri. Although a young man, he has already had considerable educational experience. Throughout the South there is marked interest in the development of common-school education, and a remarkable increase in local taxation for school purposes.

*Two New
Senators.*



MR. ROBERT C. OGDEN, OF NEW YORK.

An Educational Leader. Such efforts have been heartily promoted by the Southern Education Board, with the coöperation of the General Education Board. The vacancy left at the head of the General Education Board by the death of Mr. William H. Baldwin, Jr., has been filled by the selection of Mr. Robert C. Ogden, who is already president of the Southern Education Board. The annual conference for Southern education, closely connected with the work of the Southern Board, is to be held this month at Columbia, S. C., from the 25th to the 28th. Mr. Ogden has been for several successive years the presiding officer of this important gathering. Although a New York merchant whose business requires close and intense application, Mr. Ogden so manages the expenditure of his time,

his thought, and his energy as to serve a number of public interests and good causes in such a manner as to make his influence felt throughout the nation. One of the subjects that has long interested him most is that of the educational progress of both races in the Southern States. The Southern Education Board and the Southern Conference are made up almost wholly of Southern people, most of them engaged in educational pursuits. Their regard for Mr. Ogden, and their persistence in keeping this New York business man at the head of their board and of their yearly assemblage, is due solely to their strong sense of his unselfishness, rare efficiency, breadth of mind, talent as a speaker and presiding officer, and unflinching qualities of generosity and kindness.

The British Parliamentary Situation. The interminable dispute between England and Ireland, which is so largely a question of apparent ineradicable differences of race and religion, has demanded another sacrifice, in the resignation of the Rt. Hon. George Wyndham, chief secretary for Ireland and one of the most popular members of Mr. Balfour's ministry. This had been brought about early in March by the hostility of the Unionists which had been aroused over the efforts of Sir Antony MacDonnell in behalf of the so-called Dunraven scheme, involving a moderate concession of Home Rule to Ireland, and including a grant for university education on Roman Catholic lines. The ministry had issued a statement that Sir Antony MacDonnell had gone beyond his authority and that he had been reprimanded. Subsequent revelations, however, had brought out the fact that Sir Antony had really acted under the authorization of his superiors. This had aroused distrust toward the Balfour government, and had resulted in the resignation of Mr. Wyndham from the cabinet, although Sir Antony MacDonnell still remains under-secretary. Upon a motion (March 3) to adjourn Parliament, the government then triumphed by a majority of only 42. Early in March, Mr. Walter Hume Long had been appointed as Mr. Wyndham's successor. It was then felt that the fall of the ministry was near at hand. Public sentiment throughout the kingdom and all the efforts of the united opposition had been in the direction of forcing a ministerial crisis, and an appeal to the country, particularly on the fiscal question.

Resumption of Fighting in Manchuria. With the exception of a very few minor outpost encounters, there were no land operations other than fortifying between the two armies in Manchuria from the time of the battle of the Sha-ho, ending October 17, for four months. General Mistchenko's Cossack raid to the southward, and General Grippenbergs's attack, had been without result, and the latter had ended in disaster for the Russians. The three Japanese armies had maintained the same relative positions in which they had fought their way from Hai-Cheng northward. Kuroki's was the right, Oku's the left, and Nodzu's the center. By the middle of February, Marshal Oyama had been reinforced by Nogi's one hundred thousand veterans of Port Arthur, hereafter to be known as the fourth Japanese army, operating to the west of Oku. A somewhat mysterious fifth army, under command of General Kawamura, had been operating somewhere between Kuroki and Vladivostok, and, while its movements had not been

known definitely, it had been expected to threaten General Kuropatkin's left. Both Russians and Japanese were within a few miles of Mukden, the sacred city of the Manchus. This city of half a million people lies in a plain,—really the valley of the Hun River,—with the Hun and the Liao rivers twenty to thirty miles west and southwest. Eastward are the Mao-Tien Mountains, extending along the line of the Port Arthur & Harbin Railway. Before the general engagement began (on February 23), the Russian and Japanese lines had formed a huge bow, or crescent, the Japanese to the southward, extending over a hundred miles of plains and hills from Chang-Tan eastward across the railway to Lone Tree (Putiloff) Hill, almost all the strong positions being held by the Russians.

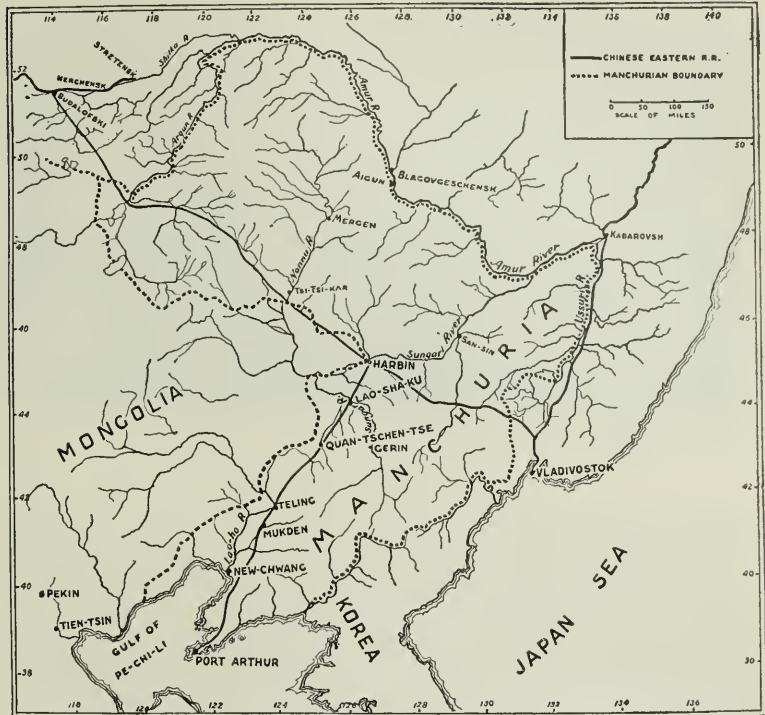
The Battle of Mukden. On October 2, General Kuropatkin, in a pompous proclamation, had announced to his army a general advance, and had declared that "the time has arrived for us to compel the Japanese to do our will." On March 8, five months later, he had sent two telegraphic dispatches to the Czar,—one reading, "I am surrounded;" the other, "Our armies have escaped." The campaign of five months, which began with the disastrous Russian repulse on the Sha-ho River, had ended with the terrible Russian rout at Mukden and Tieling. The end of winter had seen the remnants of the Russian army in disastrous retreat to Harbin, with General Kuropatkin recalled in disgrace. In the series of engagements known as the battle of Mukden, extending over the period from February 20 to March 15, the Russians had lost more than 150,000 soldiers dead, wounded, or prisoners, and 70 large guns. By the middle of March, the shattered Russian forces, which had fought a rear-guard action all the way from Mukden to Tie Pass, had been somewhat reorganized by the veteran General Linevitch, whom the Czar had appointed as General Kuropatkin's successor, to make another stand against the pursuing Japanese. Marshal Oyama, commander-in-chief of the five Japanese armies of Kuroki, Oku, Nodzu, Nogi, and Kawamura, had paid the price of between 45,000 and 50,000 men for his victory. Immense stores had been burned by the Russians, and the Japanese commander had announced that among the spoils were 70 large siege guns, 60,000 rifles, many railroad cars and wagons, 2,000 horses, and a vast supply of ammunition, clothing, and provisions. The total casualties on both sides had been more than 200,000 men, of which more than 50,000 had been killed.

Some
Geographical
Facts.

A glance at the accompanying map, and a few figures of distances between the principal points mentioned, will give a clearer understanding of the vast size of the country fought over (as large as Germany and France together), and of the stupendous tasks of the rival commanders. From Port Arthur to Liao-Yang, on the railroad, it is 232 miles; from Port Arthur to Sha-ho, 258 miles; to Mukden, 276 miles; to Tieling, 318 miles; to Harbin, 617 miles. From Mukden to Tie Pass, the distance is about 40 miles. From Tieling to Harbin, the distance is approximately three hundred miles, this representing the Russian army's line of retreat after its defeat on March 16. From Harbin runs the main line of the Siberian Railroad, westward to Russia.

Harbin and Kirin are the large, important cities, the former being a busy milling town at the junction of the Port Arthur branch with the main line of the railroad. Harbin, a city of about 300,000 inhabitants, is of modern growth and is the distributing point for the rich grain lands of Manchuria. Possession of Harbin would give the Japanese the power to cut off Vladivostok completely by land just as they did Port Arthur, while Admiral Togo could again blockade the harbor. Kirin is southeast of Harbin and off the railroad. It is, however, a Russian stronghold and a large center of Chinese caravan trade. By March 21 the Japanese advance guard was reported within two days' march of Harbin.

It was the old Japanese game of flanking again. While the Japanese right, under General Kuroki, crossing the Sha-ho River, swung around the Russian left, driving it from the mountains in the vicinity of Tie Pass to Fushun, an important fortified post (and the Russian coal depot) on the Hun River, Nogi's force had attacked General Kuropatkin from the west. Nogi had marched through the neutral zone south of the Liao River, to Sin-Min-Tun, a violation of neu-



MAP OF MANCHURIA, SHOWING THE COUNTRY TAPPED BY THE TRANS-SIBERIAN AND CHINESE EASTERN RAILWAYS.

trality against which the Russians and Chinese had protested. This neutral zone, however, had already been used by the Russians as a base to forward coal and supplies to their army, so the Japanese Government claimed that the neutrality had become null and void. On March 3, Nogi rolled up the Russians in flight, and his advance was not checked until his right wing had come into touch with Oku's left, only about eight miles south of Mukden. While the armies of Oku and Nodzu continued to pound the Russian center, with tremendous losses to themselves and to the enemy, Nogi's left, after a forced march of forty miles, fell upon the Russian center. Through this Oku and Nodzu drove a wedge, and, although Generals Linevitch and Kaulbars had made a desperate defense and General Rennenkampf's Cossacks had performed prodigies of valor, the Russians had found themselves (by the end of the first week in March) attacked in so many places on the north of their flanks that it had become a question with Kuropatkin, not only of retreat, but of saving large bodies of troops from being surrounded and annihilated. One large army of about one hundred thousand Russians had been completely isolated, and up to the middle of March its fate was not known.



Kuroki.

Oku.

Nodzu.

Nogi.

Kawamura.

COMMANDERS OF THE FIVE JAPANESE ARMIES IN THE FIELD.

*A Disastrous
Russian
Retreat.*

Early on the morning of March 10, the Japanese occupied Mukden, and the Russian retreat had become a rout. The next day the important fortified town of Fushun was seized by the Japanese, and thereafter the Russians, disorganized and suffering from hunger and the weather, poured northward to Tie Pass, forty miles from Mukden,—outmarched, outgeneraled, and outfought. Tie Pass, some three hundred miles from Harbin, is a break in the high mountains of the lower Siberian range, through which run the railroad and the Liao River. It is the only safe gateway for a retreat to Harbin. It had been strongly fortified by Kuropatkin before the battle of Liao-Yang, as the Russians had then looked upon it as a possible avenue of retreat. On March 16, this important position, offering but slight resistance, had fallen into Marshal Oyama's hands, and on the next day the Czar had recalled General Kuropatkin by telegraph and transferred the supreme command to General Linevitch. Almost at once followed the departure of the former commander-in-chief from Manchuria, leaving the veteran Linevitch, who is now in his sixty-seventh year, faced by the terrible problem of saving a starving, beaten, disheartened army of from two hundred thousand to three hundred thousand men, which had already lost more than one-third of this number, in the face of a triumphant, well-equipped, victorious enemy following in close pursuit. Both sides had fought with almost fanatical bravery, and, in the retreat from Mukden, General Rennenkampf's Cossacks, who guarded the Russian rear, had been almost annihilated. The desperation of the Russian resistance can be seen from the fact that in front of Oku's army, on the plain

southwest of Mukden, eight thousand of Kuropatkin's men lay dead as the result of the two days' attack by the Japanese.

*The Battle
and the
Victor.*

Judging by the figures of the men engaged and the number of dead, wounded, and prisoners, the battle of Mukden is the most tremendous of modern times, if not of all history. Despite Russian claims of a larger force, General Kuropatkin probably had not more than 350,000 effectives in the series of actions known as the battle of Mukden. The Japanese force had been estimated at from 400,000 to 700,000, the general staff at Tokio guarding its secrets well. It is certain that very close to a million men battled at Mukden for three weeks. The Russian generals displayed heroic—but ineffective—leadership. Field Marshal Oyama's truly wonderful achievement is due, not only to the tremendous conceptions of this man, whom the German critics are calling the greatest master of strategy since Napoleon, but to the brains of his camp, the marvelous efficiency of the Japanese military organization, and, last but not least, to the almost incredible dash and endurance of his men. On another page of this issue is presented a graphic character sketch of the Japanese field marshal and a glimpse of the methods by which he is winning.

*Kuropatkin
and his
Successor.*

In his telegram recalling General Kuropatkin, the Czar had no word of praise, and this had been regarded as an unparalleled degradation. Except among his enemies, General Kuropatkin is personally the object of much sympathy and respect. Perhaps when the detailed history of the war is written



Linevitch.

Kaulbars.

Rennenkampf.

Bilderling.

Stakelberg.

KUROPATKIN'S SUCCESSOR AND HIS GENERALS.

it will be found that this man of simple, honest character, who cared for his men and never spared himself, had performed an almost superhuman task in saving as much of his army as he did in the face of official corruption, lack of support, and opposition at home. Almost all of his private dispatches, it is alleged on reliable French authority, had vehemently reproached the home authorities for lack of supplies, and had expressed almost desperate condemnation of the inefficiency and quarrelsome, unsoldierly conduct of his officers. At best, General Kuropatkin's was a hard task, since his home government had been stupidly ignorant of the forces it would have to meet in a real conflict with Japan. It is significant to note, in this connection, that the Japanese have nothing but admiration and respect for the Russian commander, and that they regard the war up to date as a tribute to the real genius of General Kuropatkin. The general staff at Tokio knows infinitely better than the Czar's government knows the difficulties and obstacles which have faced General Kuropatkin. They regard his masterly retreats and splendid resistance as the real achievements of the war. His successor, Lieutenant-General Linevitch, is a bluff infantry officer who has risen from the ranks by force of his own personal energy. He has an excellent record, and was especially complimented by the Czar for his leadership of the Russian contingent at Peking in 1900. Since then, until the outbreak of the war with Japan, he had been military commander of the army in Manchuria. In the retreat to Mukden, Linevitch's regiments had entered Tie Pass in perfect order, with their bands playing. This veteran was the only one of the Russian generals who had made a perfectly orderly retreat.

*Peace
Prospects.*

What effect will the battle of Mukden have on the question of peace? It is Russia's boast that her answer to defeat is always reënforcements, and, at an imperial council of war, held immediately after the Japanese capture of Tie Pass, the culmination of the terrible Russian defeat at Mukden, it had been decided to mobilize another army of 450,000 men and send them at once to the far East. The Czar and official Russia were still talking war, but it is not easy for the rest of the world to see how, in view of her crushing defeats in Asia and the deepening unrest at home, it will be possible for Russia to carry on active operations much longer. Nor can the world easily understand how this vast army, if once raised, can be transported to Harbin, when this must be done in the face of the opposition of the Russian people to the war, as shown by the frequent mutiny of reserves, and the great strain already upon the Trans-Siberian Railroad. During the past year Russia has not been able to maintain more than 400,000 men in a constant series of reverses and retreats in Manchuria. How, then, can she expect to transport and support nearly half a million more men for offense? It had been reported and denied that twice during the past six months the Japanese Government had made, through France and the United States, a general statement of the terms upon which it would be willing to conclude peace. These terms had been variously stated, but they had all included Japanese control of Korea, Port Arthur, and the Liao-Tung Peninsula, the retrocession of Manchuria to China, and the control of the Chinese Eastern Railway by an international commission. Since the victory at Mukden, dispatches from various

European capitals, supposed to be officially inspired, had declared that Japan would also demand the cession of the island of Saghalien, and a war indemnity of at least \$500,000,000.

The French Bankers and Peace.

This question of indemnity had been the one which, reports and official utterances said, Russia would never consider. It had all along been contended by Russian statesmen and generals that Japan was to be defeated because of the eventual exhaustion of her resources. Hence the determination to send another large army to Manchuria. It would seem, however, that the inexhaustible Russian resources are not inexhaustible after all, and the action of the Paris bankers in refusing (early in March) to make further loans to the Russian Government under existing circumstances would seem to be evidence that the empire's ability to borrow money abroad had about reached its limit. In 1890, Russia, at the instigation of Bismarck, was shut out from any further loans in Berlin. Since then, by clever use of the alliance with France as a patriotic motive, she has been able to place loans in Paris footing up approximately \$1,600,000,000. When the St. Petersburg government (late in February), however, endeavored to secure an additional loan of \$20,000,000 in Paris, the bankers of the French capital (at the suggestion, it is generally believed, of the government) declined to float the loan unless the intentions of Russia with regard to the prosecution of the war were made clearer. Later, it had been reported, the bankers decided to make the loan, but on much less favorable terms than formerly. This is the first time that French investment houses have refused to take a Russian loan since Russia first turned to Paris. With Berlin still hesitant, Paris skeptical, London impossible, and New York unsympathetic, there is no European financial center, not even Vienna, to which the Czar's government can turn with any assurance of financial support, except upon conditions such as it would not be willing to accept. The action of the French bankers in denying Russia the sinews of war on such easy terms as heretofore has undoubtedly made for peace.

Japan's Triumph a Solid One.

Those who wonder why Japan, since she boasts that she could put a million men into the field in a comparatively short space of time, has not done this and annihilated Kuropatkin, but has permitted him to escape each time from the clutches of her generals, forget that the Japanese Government and general staff have been always counting on the effect of the victories upon European Russia.

The question of beating Kuropatkin's army and getting him out of the way is a secondary consideration. The great purpose of Japan has been not to win victories so much as to impress upon the Russian Government the absolute futility of Russia maintaining in the far East such an empire as would menace the national existence of Japan. With each successive blow, Japan knows that Russia's danger at home increases. The Tokio government has aimed to gradually force the Russian armies out of Manchuria, and several facts, perhaps not sufficiently emphasized, will indicate that winning battles on the field is only part of the task of the sons of Japan. Among the ablest "brains" of Oyama's army are Generals Nisshi and Hasegawa. General Nisshi is now at Dalny; he is military and civil commander of that part of Manchuria which the Japanese have conquered, and his headquarters hereafter will be at Port Arthur. General Hasegawa, commander of the famous Imperial Guard, is military and civil governor of Korea, subject, of course, to the fiction of the authority of the Korean Emperor. What the Japanese armies have marched over, Japan has made her own, and the presence of these two of her ablest executive and vigorous, brainy men in the occupied territory back of the fighting armies is sufficiently indicative of the fact that the Japanese Government realizes to the full the importance of all the factors in the problem before it.

The North Sea Commission's Verdict.

The two features of the naval situation in the war during February and March had been the verdict of the North Sea Commission and the intentions of the Russian Government regarding the Baltic fleet. On February 25, the international commission appointed to investigate the facts in the case of the firing on the Hull fishermen by the Russian Baltic squadron on October 21 had made public its report. The verdict had, in general, favored the British contention that Admiral Rozhstvenski's act was unwarranted, but this decision had been softened somewhat by a vague and not entirely congruous observation as to the military valor and humane sentiments of the Russian admiral and of the officers of his squadron. The gist of the decision is given in the following paragraph:

The act of firing on the fishing fleet when no torpedo boats were present was, in the opinion of the majority of the commission, unjustifiable. The Russian commissioner dissents from this opinion and holds that the action of unknown vessels was responsible for what happened. The majority consider that the firing, even accepting the Russian version, was unduly prolonged. The fishing fleet was in no way guilty of hostile action.

Under the circumstances, the commission believes that Admiral Rozhstvenski was warranted in continuing his route without pause, but the "majority regret that the admiral did not inform the neighboring maritime powers of what had occurred." The majority of the commission consider that the Russian admiral's precautions had not been excessive under the circumstances, although they hold that there was no torpedo boat in the vicinity. Upon the publication of the verdict, in accordance with Russia's advance agreement to indemnify the Hull fishermen, Count Benckendorf, the Russian ambassador to Great Britain, had at once paid over to the British foreign office £65,000 (about \$325,000).

*Naval Losses
on Both
Sides.*

Despite the persistently repeated report that Admiral Rozhstvenski had been recalled, it had been announced on March 17 that the Russian Baltic fleet would continue its course to Chinese waters. The Czar had decided to order Admiral Rozhstvenski to meet Admiral Togo and make one more effort to destroy Japan's naval power, thus crippling the communications

between her armies on the Asiatic mainland and their home base. Most of the careful students of the war believe that Russia cannot possibly defeat Japan on land, and that her only chance of victory lies in destroying the Japanese sea power. Without securing command of the sea, even such Russian leaders as Admiral Skrydlov are claiming that it will be impossible for Russia to crush Japan. Up to the middle of March, the naval losses of the two powers, as compiled from official statistics, had been: Russia, 7 battleships, 13 cruisers, and a number of other vessels; Japan, 1 battleship (the *Hatsuse*), 3 second-class cruisers (the *Yoshino*, the *Miyako*, and the *Kaimon*), and 2 coast-defense vessels (the *Heien* and *Saien*).



THE RUSSIAN IMPERIAL FAMILY.

The little girl to the extreme left in the picture is the Grand Duchess Tatiana (born 1897); below her is the Grand Duchess Marie (1899); next to her is the Grand Duchess Anastasia (1901); and standing up beside her father is the Grand Duchess Olga (1895). In his mother's arms is the Grand Duke Alexis, heir to the throne (born August 12, 1904).

*The
Vacillation of
the Czar.* Nothing, perhaps, could illustrate the vacillating and non-effective policy of Czar Nicholas better than his two official utterances of March 3. In the morning he had issued a manifesto calling upon the Russian people to rally around the throne and defend it against a domestic enemy. This manifesto was couched in terms of a plea calling the people to obedience to the Church and to the autocracy. The manifesto, as it afterward transpired, had been prepared by Pobyedonostzev, the Procurator of the Holy Synod (or at least under his direction), and had been published in the *Official Messenger* without the knowledge of the Czar's ministers. Characterizing the reformers, the Czar said:

Blinded by pride, the evil-minded leaders of a revolutionary movement make insolent attacks on the Holy Orthodox Church and the lawfully established pillars of the Russian state, thinking that by severing the



ALEXANDER BULYGIN.

(Successor to Prince Mirski as Russian minister of the interior.)

natural connection with the past they will destroy the existing order of the state and set up in its place a new administration on a foundation unsuitable to our fatherland.

Nevertheless, he continued, "Russia has passed through many great wars and disturbances, and will pass through others if the government officials only do their duty." Therefore, the Czar concluded,

Thinking unceasingly of the welfare of our people, and firmly trusting that God, after he has tried our patience, will give victory to our arms, we appeal to right-minded people of all classes to join us, each in his calling and in his place, in single-minded coöperation of word and deed in the great and sacred task of overcoming the stubborn foreign foe and eradicating the revolt at home, and in wise efforts to check the internal confusion.

This had been received with dismay by the Russian Liberals. In a few hours, however, it had been followed by a rescript addressed to Minister of the Interior Bulygin (successor to Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski). The Czar ordered the minister of the interior to thank the zemstvos and other public bodies for their interest and loyalty, and proceeded to express his desire to attain the fulfillment of the imperial intentions for the "welfare of the people by means of the coöperation of the government with the experienced forces of the community." Furthermore, the Czar announced that he is himself determined, "with the help of God, to convene the worthiest men possessing the confidence of the people and elected by them to participate in the elaboration and consideration of legislative measures." The Czar did not say just how he purposed convening these worthiest men, and the following paragraph in the rescript had not given much hope to those who had looked forward confidently to some representative form of government:

Taking into consideration the peculiar circumstances of the fatherland, the multiplicity of its races, and in certain parts of the country the weak development of citizenship, the Russian rulers in their wisdom instituted reforms in accordance with their mature require-

ments, but only in logical sequence, at the same time considering the continuation of firm historical ties with the past as a pledge for the durability and stability of the present.

It will be seen from these paragraphs, not any too clear at best, that the Czar has no intention of granting any real power to the people or of limiting in any way the prerogatives of autocracy. The national assembly is to be a purely advisory body, and the Czar reserves to himself the privilege of adopting or rejecting any of its suggestions. The fact, however, that the new body, for which it is expected members will be chosen by popular vote at the end of the present year, will afford the representatives of the people a chance to make their wants known to the sovereign is certainly a great advance over present conditions in Russia.

The Russian Peasants in Full Revolt.

The disorder still continued throughout the empire. Early in March there had been serious rioting in the Caucasus, particularly in the cities of Tiflis and Baku. In fact, the entire Georgian people had appeared to be in revolt, and the military had resorted to the severest measures in their attempts to put down the uprising, in which, however, they had not been successful. Poland had been declared under martial law. Throughout the south and southwest of European Russia a peasant uprising of serious proportions had taken place. Large bands of armed peasants had plundered estates, including those of the Grand Duke Vladimir and the late Grand Duke Sergius, and killed many of the landlords. This condition, like the *jacqueries* which devastated France before the revolution in 1789, is looked upon by the Russian Liberal leaders, and European statesmen generally, as the beginning of the final stages of the revolution in Russia,—for revolution it has become, although several years may yet elapse before the full fruition of its work is seen. The mixed commission of representatives of workingmen, of employers, and of the government, however, which, under the presidency of Senator Chlidovski, was to have inquired into the grievances of the workingmen of St. Petersburg, had not been permitted to complete its work. At the Czar's command, the commission had been dissolved because the workingmen had failed to elect representatives to succeed those who had been arrested and deported by Governor-General Trepov. The working out of the assembly granted in the imperial rescript had been intrusted to Minister of the Interior Bulygin's committee, upon which the Liberals had already demanded that the zemstvos be represented. A report is expected in about three months.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From February 18 to March 20, 1905.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

February 18.—The House passes the pension appropriation bill, including an appropriation of \$4,500,000 to pay pensions under President Roosevelt's Order No. 78.

February 20.—The prosecution in the Swayne impeachment trial before the Senate closes its case. . . . The House passes the naval appropriation bill, retaining the provision for two battleships.

February 21.—The Senate passes the Military Academy appropriation bill. . . . The House passes the Philippine tariff bill and a measure providing for the return of Union and Confederate battle flags to the States.

February 23.—The Senate passes the Panama Canal zone bill. . . . The House passes the river and harbor appropriation bill and a resolution calling on the Interior Department for information regarding the Osage oil-land leases.

February 25.—The Senate sends the Panama Canal zone and the Statehood bills to conference. . . . The House considers the sundry civil appropriation bill.

February 27.—The impeachment trial of Judge Swayne before the Senate ends in a verdict of acquittal on all the articles. . . . The Senate passes the naval appropriation bill. . . . The House passes the sundry civil appropriation bill.

February 28.—The Senate passes six bills, previously passed by the House, providing for safeguarding passengers on steam vessels. . . . The House debates the general deficiency appropriation bill.

March 1.—Both branches hold day and night sessions and pass the Post-Office, pension, river and harbor, and general deficiency appropriation bills and the Philippine tariff bill.

March 2.—The Senate passes the sundry civil appropriation bill, after striking out the House amendment for the payment of mileage for the "constructive recess" of 1903. . . . The House adopts a resolution for a railroad-rate inquiry.

March 3.—Senate and House reach agreements on all the appropriation bills.

March 4.—The Fifty-eighth Congress comes to an end.

CALLED SESSION—SENATE.

March 4.—The Senate of the Fifty-ninth Congress convenes in special session, Vice-President Fairbanks presiding.

March 6-7.—The Senate receives from President Roose-

velt nominations of cabinet members, ambassadors, ministers, and others, and a message urging prompt ratification of the Dominican protocol.

March 8.—The Senate confirms the diplomatic and consular appointments made by President Roosevelt.

March 10.—Funeral services for Senator Bate, of Tennessee, are held in the Senate Chamber.

March 13-17.—The Dominican protocol is debated by the Senate in executive session.

March 18.—The special session of the Senate ends without reaching a vote on the Dominican protocol.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

February 17.—Governor Hoch, of Kansas, signs the bill passed by the Legislature appropriating \$400,000 for a State oil refinery (see page 471). . . . Secretary Taft recommends the government control of the opium traffic in the Philippines and its abolition after three years.

February 21.—A special federal grand jury is drawn at Chicago to investigate the beef combine. . . . The President and his cabinet approve Secretary Hitchcock's plan for leasing the Osage oil lands so as to protect the Indians.

February 24.—The police commissioner of New York City is enjoined by Justice Gaynor from enforcing street-traffic regulations. . . . The Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York City authorizes the expenditure of \$600,000 for a site to be occupied by a municipal lighting plant.

February 25.—Chicago Democrats nominate Judge Edward F. Dunne for mayor on a platform declaring for the municipal ownership and operation of the street-car lines. . . . President Roosevelt appoints Senator Joseph V. Quarles federal judge for the eastern district of Wisconsin.

February 26.—The engineering committee of the Panama Canal Commission unanimously recommends a sea-level canal, to be constructed in twelve years at a cost of \$230,500,000.

February 27.—Four members of the California State Senate are expelled on the charge of accepting bribes. . . . The United States Supreme Court upholds the validity of the Kansas anti-trust law.

March 2.—President Roosevelt appoints H. A. Gudger, of North Carolina, to be judge of the Supreme Court of the Panama Canal zone, in place of Judge Kyle, of Alabama, resigned.

March 3.—President Roosevelt transmits to Congress the report of the Commissioner of Corporations on the meat industry (see page 464).

March 4.—Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, and Charles W. Fairbanks, of Indiana, are inaugurated President and Vice-President of the United States. . . . William M. O. Dawson (Rep.) is inaugurated governor of West Virginia.

March 6.—President Roosevelt nominates George B. Cortelyou, of New York, to be Postmaster-General, and renominates the other members of his cabinet; for In-



HON. JAMES B. FRAZIER.
(Senator-elect from
Tennessee.)

terstate Commerce Commissioner he names Francis M. Cockrell, of Missouri, and for solicitor of the Department of Commerce and Labor, Edward W. Sims, of Illinois.

March 7.—President Roosevelt nominates Charles H. Treat, of New York, to be treasurer of the United States. . . . The New York City Board of Aldermen appropriates \$600,000 toward a municipal lighting plant.

March 13.—The United States Supreme Court affirms the constitutionality of the peonage laws.

March 15.—President Roosevelt nominates Peter V. De Graw to be Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General. . . . Democrats in the Tennessee Legislature nominate Governor Frazier to succeed the late United States Senator Bate.

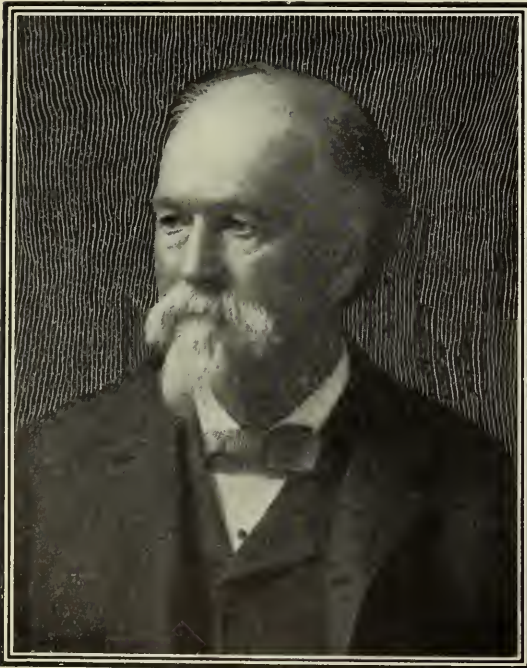
March 16.—The Colorado Legislature votes to install Peabody as governor on the understanding that he will at once resign in favor of Lieutenant-Governor McDonald.

March 17.—Governor Peabody, of Colorado, resigns office, and is succeeded by Lieut.-Gov. J. F. McDonald. . . . Attorney-General Hadley, of Missouri, institutes proceedings against the Standard Oil Company.

March 18.—The Missouri Legislature elects Maj. William Warner (Rep.) United States Senator, on the sixty-seventh ballot.

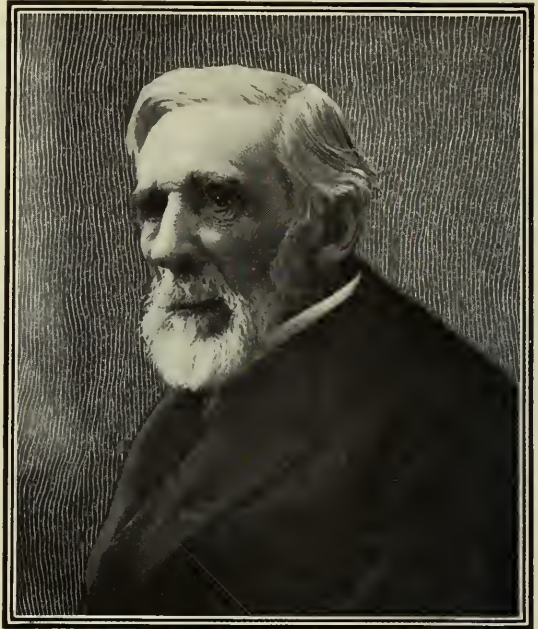
POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

February 18.—The Russian Council of the Empire is summoned in extraordinary session to consider the situation arising from the murder of the Grand Duke Sergius.



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THE LATE SENATOR JOSEPH R. HAWLEY,
OF CONNECTICUT.



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THE LATE GEORGE S. BOUTWELL,
OF MASSACHUSETTS.

February 20.—The students, professors, and directors of the University at St. Petersburg vote to close the institution until fall and demand a constituent assembly; martial law is declared at Tsarskoe-Selo.

February 21.—In the British House of Commons, John E. Redmond's amendment to the address in reply to the speech from the throne, declaring that the present system of government is opposed to the will of the Irish people, is defeated by a vote of 286 to 236. . . . The French Chamber of Deputies debates the naval estimates. . . . Sir Wilfrid Laurier introduces a bill in the Canadian Parliament creating the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan out of the Northwest Territories. . . . M. Justh, a leader of the Independent Labor party, is elected president of the Hungarian Chamber.

February 22.—After a long debate in the Belgian Chamber, M. Verhaegen's motion for the settlement of labor disputes by boards of conciliation is passed by a large majority. . . . A provisional government is reported established by Armenians at Batum and Kutais.

February 23.—The French Chamber votes, by a large majority, in favor of new ships for the navy.

February 24.—The assassination of President Morales, of Santo Domingo, is attempted.

March 1.—Russian workmen, asked to choose delegates for a commission authorized by the Czar, demand concessions from the government before acting. . . . Lord Selborne is chosen British high commissioner in South Africa, succeeding Lord Milner.

March 2.—The Russian Committee of Ministers votes to grant religious freedom to the people. . . . The Emperor Francis Joseph decides to receive a delegation of leaders of Hungarian parties in opposition (see page 443).

March 3.—The Czar announces his decision to convene an assembly of representatives of the people, which will have no real power. . . . A new Cuban cabinet is formed, with Jean Francisco O'Farrell as secretary of state and justice.

March 4.—The entire Italian cabinet resigns because of the illness of Premier Giolitti.

March 6.—Mr. Wyndham, the chief secretary for Ireland, resigns from the British ministry.

March 7.—In the British House of Commons, a motion for remedial measures for evicted Irish tenants is defeated by a vote of 220 to 182. . . . Because of the failure of the workmen to send delegates, the Czar dissolves the Russian commission to investigate labor troubles.

March 10.—The Cuban Congress adjourns, deferring action on important measures till next session.

March 12.—In the reorganization of the British cabinet, Walter Hume Long becomes chief secretary for Ireland, and the Marquis of Salisbury president of the Board of Trade. . . . General Valencia renounces the presidency of Colombia.

March 15.—A committee's report to the French Chamber of Deputies urges a speedy separation of church and state.

March 17.—The French Chamber of Deputies votes to reduce the active term of service in the army to two years.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

February 17.—A parcels-post treaty is signed between the United States and Great Britain.

February 18.—Great Britain, France, Italy, and Russia decline to accede to Prince George's proposal for the annexation of Crete by Greece.

February 19.—Peru lodges a formal protest against the recent treaty between Chile and Bolivia.

February 21.—The powers accept the proposal for higher Turkish customs duties on condition that the additional revenue shall be devoted to reforms.

February 25.—The North Sea Commission finds that there were no hostile vessels near the Dogger Banks when the English trawlers were fired upon, but that the Russians' fears of attack were justified; Admiral Rozhstvenski is held responsible.

February 27.—The British House of Commons votes down an amendment to force the government to intervene in Macedonian affairs.

March 1.—Assurance is given to the Haitien minister at Washington that the United States has no intention of annexing Santo Domingo.

March 6.—President Roosevelt nominates the following ambassadors: Whitelaw Reid (N. Y.), Great Britain; Robert S. McCormick (Ill.), France; George V. L. Meyer (Mass.), Russia; Edwin H. Conger (Iowa), Mexico; and Henry White (R. I.), Italy; and the following envoys and ministers: W. W. Rockhill (D. C.), China; David J. Hill (N. Y.), The Netherlands; Henry L. Wilson (Wash.), Belgium; William M. Collier (N. Y.), Spain; Brutus J. Clay (Ky.), Switzerland; Thomas J. O'Brien (Mich.), Denmark; Charles H. Graves (Minn.), Sweden and Norway; Edward C. O'Brien (N. Y.), Paraguay and Uruguay; John B. Jackson (N. J.), Greece, Montenegro, and Bulgaria; John W. Riddle (Minn.), Roumania, and Servia; and Samuel R. Gummere (N. J.), Morocco.

March 17.—The French Government sounds the United States as to the course to be pursued by this gov-

ernment in the matter of Venezuela's failure to pay the French claims.

March 18.—President Roosevelt appoints Edwin V. Morgan, of New York, minister to Korea.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

February 22.—St. Petersburg reports Kuropatkin flanked from Sin-Min-Tuu and forced to retire from Shakhe positions.

February 24.—General Kuropatkin reports that twenty Japanese torpedo boats and a large warship are proceeding to Vladivostok. . . . The Russian prisoners in Japan number 44,400.

February 25.—Russians report capture of Beresneff Hill by General Kuroki after fierce fighting and with heavy loss.



Photo by Habenicht.

THE LATE MRS. JANE STANFORD.

(One of the founders of Stanford University.)

February 26.—The Russians sustain a severe defeat at Tsen-ho-Cheng. . . . Japanese drive back Russian advance forces and apparently prepare to attack passes forming part of Russian line on the east.

February 27.—St. Petersburg reports that Japanese have crossed Shakhe River; both flanks of Russian Tsinkhetchen line have been turned. . . . Newchwang reports Japanese shelling Mukden, causing great damage beyond Russian lines.

February 28.—Mukden reports severe fighting along entire line. . . . Kuroki holds Tie Pass. . . . Russians under Rennenkampf sustain heavy defeat in action near Tsinkhetchen.

March 2.—St. Petersburg reports Kuropatkin moving stores from Mukden....Japanese continue attack on Sha River, drive in both flanks, and advance to within a few hundred feet of Putiloff Hill.

March 3.—Japanese appear to be steadily gaining; four divisions are eleven miles west of Mukden....St. Petersburg hears that Kuropatkin is in full retreat on Tieling, with his line pierced and both flanks threatened.

March 5.—Opposing armies in Manchuria have had a full week of most determined fighting day and night; more than 100,000 officers and men are believed to have been killed....Japanese are within five miles of Mukden....Kuroki continues attack on the east of Russian line south and southwest of Fushun....Nogi, with Port Arthur veterans, suddenly strikes to the westward.

March 7.—Oyama reports repulse of Russian attack on Japanese eastern flank....Battle rages all day west and northwest of Mukden.

March 8.—Kuroki gains great victory on the east, forcing Russians to retreat....Russians evacuate positions south and southwest of Mukden and fire great stores....Japanese force appears north of city.

March 9.—Oyama reports railway between Mukden and Tieling destroyed....Kuroki drives Russians toward Mukden and Fushun district....Japanese hold all the region west of the railway and south of the Hun River....Fighting continues north and northwest of Mukden.

March 10.—Oyama reports success of Japanese enveloping movement....Mukden and Fushun are occupied; the Japanese take many prisoners, guns, and great stores of supplies....Kuropatkin telegraphs that his armies are retreating.

March 11.—Kuropatkin telegraphs Czar that all his armies are out of danger....Oyama reports sharp pursuit of retreating Russians, whose rear guard is under heavy artillery fire.

March 13.—Remnant of Kuropatkin's army reaches Tie Pass, hard pressed on both flanks by Japanese....Kuropatkin reports 50,000 wounded in last days of fighting....Czar summons a war council to consider the whole situation.

March 14.—The Japanese attack the Russians south and west of Tie Pass, and are repulsed on the south with heavy losses.

March 15.—Admiral Rozhstvenski's squadron leaves Nossi-Bé for an unknown destination.

March 17.—The Czar recalls the command of the Manchurian army from General Kuropatkin and places General Linevitch temporarily in command.

March 18.—Kai-Yuan, about thirty miles from Tie Pass, is evacuated by the Russians....The occupation of Fakomen by the Japanese is confirmed.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

February 20.—The miners' strike in Belgium spreads.

February 22.—President Roosevelt speaks at the University of Pennsylvania, on "Some Maxims of Washington;" the degree of LL.D. is conferred on the President, Emperor William of Germany, Sir Henry Mortimer Durand, the British ambassador, and others....A bust of Washington is presented to Congress by the French ambassador as a token of the friendship of France for the United States (see page 460).

February 24.—The piercing of the Simplon tunnel is completed.

February 26.—Fire on the Illinois Central docks at New Orleans causes a loss of \$5,000,000....A coal-mine explosion at Wilcoo, W. Va., kills more than twenty persons.

February 27.—The Evangelical Cathedral is dedicated at Berlin.

March 3.—In a railroad collision near Pittsburg seven persons are killed and twenty injured.

March 4.—The Charcot antarctic exploring expedition is reported as having arrived at Puerto Madrin, Argentina.

March 7.—The employees of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company of New York City go on strike.

March 9.—Grand Chief Stone, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, having ordered the striking motormen on the New York subway and elevated lines to return to work, the strike is practically ended.

March 10.—The charter of the striking motormen's union of New York City is revoked for violating agreement.

March 19.—Explosions at the Rush Run and Red Ash mines, near Thurmond, W. Va., cause the loss of twenty-four lives.

March 20.—Nearly one hundred persons are killed in a fire resulting from an explosion in a shoe factory at Brockton, Mass.

OBITUARY.

February 19.—Rt. Rev. Dr. William E. McLaren, Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Chicago, 73....Cicero J. Hamlin, the leading breeder of trotting horses in the United States, 85.

February 20.—Congressman Norton P. Otis, of Yonkers, N. Y., 65.

February 22.—William F. G. Shanks, a well-known New York newspaper man, 68.

February 23.—Ex-United States Senator Jonathan Ross, of Vermont, 79.

February 25.—Ex-Mayor Edward Cooper, of New York City, 80....Prof. Albert Benjamin Prescott, of the University of Michigan, 72.

February 26.—Sir Wemyss Reid, the British editor, author, and publisher, 63.

February 27.—Ex-United States Senator George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, 87.

February 28.—Mrs. Jane Stanford, the widow of Senator Leland Stanford, 79....Eugene Guillaume, the eminent French sculptor, 83.

March 1.—Ex-United States Senator Edward O. Wolcott, of Colorado, 57.

March 6.—Ex-United States Senator John H. Reagan, of Texas, last surviving member of the Confederate cabinet, 86.

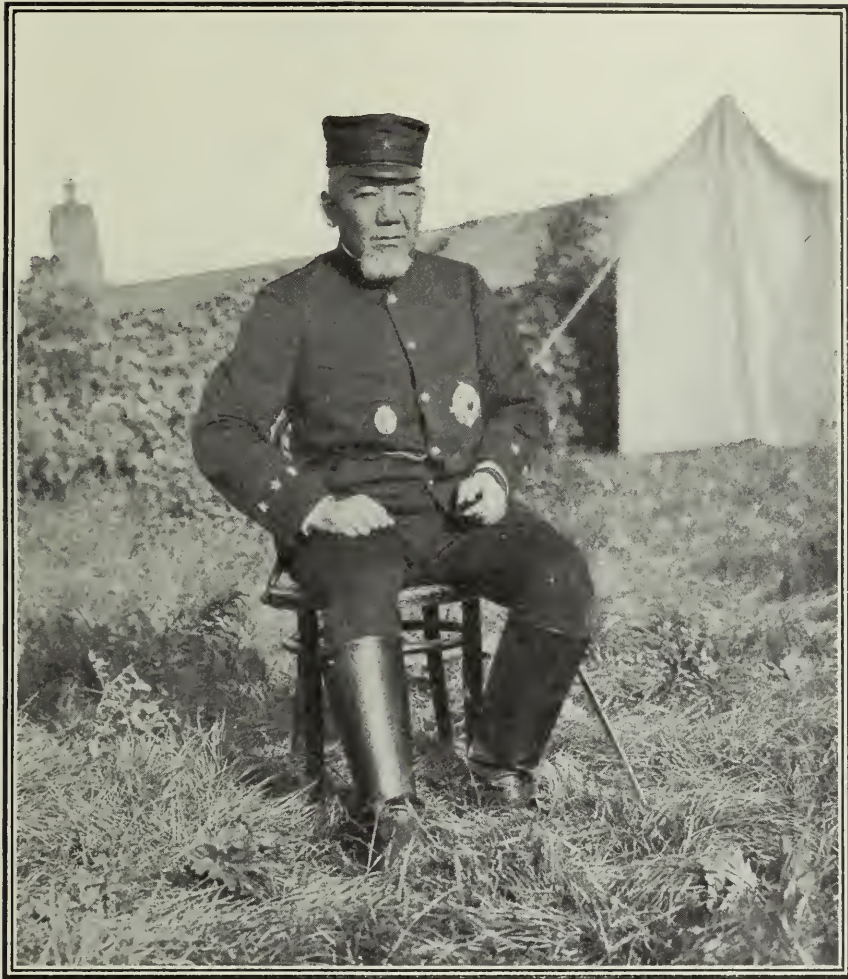
March 7.—A. M. Palmer, the old-time theatrical manager, of New York City, 67.

March 9.—United States Senator William B. Bate, of Tennessee, 78.

March 12.—Caleb Huse, foreign purchasing agent of the Confederate government in the Civil War, 75.

March 17.—Ex-Congressman Lot Thomas, of Iowa, 61....Charles C. Cole, formerly associate justice of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, 64.

March 18.—United States Senator Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut, 78....Ex-Gov. Cyrus G. Luce, of Michigan, 80.



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FIELD MARSHAL MARQUIS OYAMA.

(Commander-in-chief of the Japanese armies in Manchuria, and victor of the battle of Mukden.)

OYAMA, VICTOR OF MUKDEN.

BY ADACHI KINNOBUKE.

THE battle of Mukden has been fought, and history is richer—and sadder. The smallest of the so-called civilized powers has fought probably the greatest battle that history, sober-minded and a respecter of mathematics, has ever known. This battle was the greatest in number of men engaged, in the territory covered, in its complexity of development, in the bearing it will have on history. Nippon fought it against Russia, the largest empire on earth, as geography goes, and, as all military Europe told us, the greatest of military powers.

The captain of the Nippon camp, the victor of this great battle, does not measure many inches above five feet. In peace and in war, it is his amiable custom to style himself, to the more intimate of his foreign friends, "the ugly old man."

He is the embodiment of the spirit of the Nippon campaign in Manchuria. His character is a striking comment on the conservative nature of this Manchurian campaign. If there be a military commander in the service of His Majesty who typifies the ripe completeness of

system, who emphasizes the apotheosis of the military machine, Marquis Oyama is certainly the man. In putting him at the head of the Manchurian campaign our country has paid the highest tribute to the military genius and ability of General Kuropatkin. Every movement of this campaign has been planned like so many different component parts of a huge piece of machinery. No place was given for the flash-light,—for the volcanic eruption, so to speak, of the military genius of individual commanders.

Picture to yourself a man sitting among his friends in a modest Chinese hut or in a tent, fifteen miles from the front,—a genial old man. The hut is the converging center of many hundreds of telegraph and telephone wires. The officers of his staff are silent at the receiver. Now this and then that officer turns to him. The entire mission of his life seems to be to take things with ease and comfort. It is not exactly a picture of an heroic soldier on the firing line, such as the military tradition of Russia seems to have a certain weakness for even in this day. You see in this old man an engineer-in-chief, whose brain is in touch with the farthest wheel of the huge piece of machinery called the Manchurian army of Nippon. The name of the master engineer is Marquis Oyama.

He was born in the clan of Satsuma, in the thirteenth year of Tempo,—that is to say, in the Christian year of 1842. Singularly fortunate must have been the star of Oyama Iwao. He was born in the death-hour of the historic era of Tempo, a Satsuma samurai. This is not a long phrase, but it tells a volume; and of a Roman in the proudest hour of the world-reign of Rome you could hardly say a happier thing. The tutor of the tender years of Oyama was Saigo Nanshu, unquestionably the greatest military genius Nippon has produced since the days of Iyeyasu.

Iwao was close kin to Saigo. And when I assure you that Oyama, Kuroki, Togo (men of Satsuma all), and, in fact, all the leaders of the military Nippon of to-day, are a rather thin shadow of the master-genius of Saigo you can see how great was this master.

In the Japanese war of restoration—as those troublous days of half a century ago are called to-day—when the imperial forces fought against the men of the Shogun for the restoration of the sovereign power of the land to the emperor,—at the battle of Fushimi, up the Tokaido, and beyond the Yedo,—Oyama fought in the ranks, under Saigo, then the commander-in-chief of the famous brocade banners of His Majesty. After the war of restoration, when the era of Meiji,—the enlightened reign,—was still young, Oyama,

with many another Satsuma youth, under the great minister of war, Saigo, received official honors and positions. Then came the civil war of the tenth year of Meiji, when the Satsuma men, headed by Saigo Nanshu, rose against the imperial forces.

Oyama Iwao was one of the rare few who remained with the men of the imperial army. In 1877, at the head of a division of the imperial forces, he took field against the master whom he worshiped, against the tutor of his youth, against the very glory of his own house and blood. One thought consoled him,—he knew that the revolt was none of his master's making. His military experience and education had been made larger by his schooling in Europe, and through the Franco-Prussian War he had been one of the military attachés. All of this, however, did not count much against Saigo and his men; and none knew it better than Oyama himself,—provided, always, Saigo played the game with his heart in it. And this civil war was the first stage which called forth what was within him,—called into flower of action all the military education at home and abroad which he had enjoyed. His steps were already upon the top rounds of his young manhood,—he was entering upon his thirty-fifth year.

It was a pale break of day upon a ghastly night. Saigo's men had beaten the imperial army and cut it into such and so many unsightly pieces that the men had no little difficulty in remembering the proud, original force of which a few days ago they had been a part. Oyama was with the battery which brought up the rear; the salvation of the army was in the keeping of the few guns which were dragging their shattered wheels over the heaps of dead. Tired, worn, their clothes tattered and covered with blood, and some of them with wounds, those men of the rear guard were,—although you would never have believed your own eyes,—in a storm of merriment all the while. Laughing and bubbling as if they were so many school-boys out on a stolen frolic, they did not seem to know that the storm of their laughter was vying with the storm of shells which was hounding them and their comrades. And the soul of the boisterous mirth was the division commander, General Oyama. "I had to keep them in good humor," he said, speaking of that memorable day, "or it meant death to us and annihilation to the army." I do not know whether it is because death to the men and annihilation to the army are not the most pleasant thing in the world to think of, or because Marquis Oyama has a decided weakness for levity. Of one thing I am sure. He enjoys the

reputation, especially among the men of the army, that in camp he does not seem to be enthusiastic,—with that whole-souled boyish enthusiasm which is his,—for anything save the frivolous and farcical.

Chief of police, associate minister of the interior, vice-minister of war, he has been, with distinction, and in 1882, in his fortieth year, he accepted the portfolio of minister of war. In 1884, he was appointed chief of the general staff. Ten years later, in the Chino-Nippon War, he took the field as the commander of the second army. To it was intrusted the work of besieging and reducing Port Arthur, which was at the time considered almost impregnable. Exactly twenty days after the landing of the army the portly form of Oyama was carried through the streets of Port Arthur on the shoulders and arms of his men. In nearly twenty-four hours he had succeeded in taking the impregnable by storm.

"I understand," said an American friend of mine, the other day, "that the brain of Oyama's camp is General Kodama and the commanders of the different army corps. Why was Oyama placed at the head of them all?" Field Marshal Oyama is placed at the head of the Manchurian army of Nippon because—(1) there is no one who could more fittingly represent the supreme commander of the Nippon army and navy, His Majesty the Emperor, than does Marquis Oyama; (2) because he is the Abraham, the patriarch, among the soldiers of Nippon, and because he is the heroic tradition of the Satsuma samurai in a genial and living personality; (3) because to him all the chief commanders under him are as children of his own rearing; because to him are known all the strength and foibles of all his men; because among the living men fit to take the field there is none who can act as the master-prompter with quite as much grace, great good-humor, and intimate knowledge as does Oyama; because with the field marshal at the head of the Manchurian army the sad picture of the house divided against itself is an impossible spectacle; (4) because of the commander of the Nippon army in this war is expected a great thing,—nothing less than the salvation of Nippon and the ultimate and permanent peace of the far East,—and it was necessary that he be a man of broad horizon, a man who understands nice distinctions in the proportion of things, a man with a gift for modifying the suggestions of his officers to advantage without rejecting them outright; (5) because the field marshal is a singular man in that his calmness of temper seems to increase with the increase of difficulties and the sunshine of his good-humor

to brighten as the storm of reverses frowns more darkly all about him.

Some one has compared Marquis Oyama with the head of his staff, General Kodama, and likened them unto an ocean and a diamond point of a rugged cliff with a bright sun playing upon its sharp ridges against the sky. No one knows better than Oyama himself how much better, how much more brilliantly, General Kodama would play at the game of tactics than he. But why should he be troubled about it? Has he not Kodama at his elbow to do that for him? None better than he knows that, in the matter of Manchurian geography, with all its topographic vantage-points for the campaign, in the knowledge of local conditions in Manchuria and Siberia, of the character of the people there, of climatic conditions, and in the knowledge of the Russian soldiers and officers, General Fukushima surpasses the field marshal so far that there is no comparison between them. Oyama knows that Kuroki, Oku, Nodzu, Nogi, are wiser in the orders that they issue to the men under them than he could possibly be. But, again, why trouble himself with these things, since he has men under him who can do all these things better than he? It is enough for him and for his country to know that in the doing of the large thing, in having a wider horizon and vaster vision, none of his officers pretend to compete with him.

Remarkable man that he is in so many respects, he is a little more than remarkable in one thing. Here is a son of Satsuma, a soldier, a product of the transition period of Nippon. He had been reared upon the far-Eastern ideal of a great man in whom a great or heroic deed is always supposed to cover a multitude of sins. There he stands to-day in his sixty-third year. Judged by Christian, or Buddhist, or Confucian ethics, his home life is without a stain, and altogether he is a gentleman the like of whom it would be hard indeed to find among the leaders of Nippon.

The historian whose eyes see beneath the surface of things might, in his hunger after truth, look for the reason of it all in the person of the Marchioness Oyama. A graduate of Vassar, her life is a living history of the progress of Nippon womanhood, quite as much as that of the field marshal is of militant Nippon. She was one of the first band of young girls sent abroad by the Tokio government as the pioneers of world-wide education among the daughters of her country. Her international culture has given her rare qualifications to be one of the leaders of our women. And it is no secret of our history that upon her women has always rested the greatness and glory of Nippon.



PART OF THE CITY OF PORTLAND,—MOUNT HOOD IN THE DISTANCE.

PORTLAND AND THE LEWIS AND CLARK CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION.

BY EDGAR B. PIPER.

(Managing editor, *Portland Oregonian*.)

PORTLAND is about to celebrate in an international exposition the centennial of the exploration of the Oregon country by Lewis and Clark. The title of Portland to be the seat of so important an undertaking rests on the fact that it has been for more than fifty years the chief city of the Pacific Northwest. It was identified peculiarly with the early and successful struggles of the American pioneers to wrest the wide territory of Oregon from the dominion of Great Britain, some of which are related elsewhere in this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*. So it is fitting, for commercial and sentimental reasons, that the exposition should be held there.

THE RISE OF A COMMERCIAL CENTER.

The beginnings of Portland date from 1845. Americans were then coming in freely. The site for the future city was selected by A. L. Lovejoy and "a gentleman named Overton," as the early histories politely describe him. Lovejoy, Overton, and F. W. Pettygrove surveyed the ground, and a dispute as to whether the name should be "Portland" or "Boston" was

settled by "flipping" a coin. The town at first grew slowly, and in 1850 a newspaper, the *Oregonian*, was established, and a brig, the *Emma Preston*, was dispatched to Canton, the pioneer in the Oriental trade with the North Pacific coast. The immigration of 1851-52 was heavy, following the passage by Congress of the donation land act. Portland then speedily distanced its rivals, of which once there were many, and assumed position as the metropolis of the Pacific Northwest. As it was at first the center of trade for a sparse but growing population, so it has become the leading commercial, financial, maritime, and manufacturing point of the great Columbia basin. The preëminence of Portland in the industrial, social, and political life of the Northwest may best find illustration in the fact that no other place in Oregon has more than one-tenth of its 130,000 population—and there are many prosperous towns—and it has suffered not at all by the competition of its thriving and ambitious rivals on Puget Sound. The enterprise of its merchants is great, the solidity of its banking institutions proverbial,

and the activity and acumen of its exporters remarkable. Before a single mile of railroad had been built in the Northwest, a fleet of stern-wheel steamboats plied the Willamette and Columbia rivers, and a large coasting trade had been built up with San Francisco. It would not be accurate to say that the railroad took up the development of Portland, the Columbia basin, and the Willamette valley where the steamboat left off. It is true that the city was rich and very prosperous, and the Willamette and Columbia rivers bore a thriving commerce long before railroads came. They opened up much undeveloped country; they gave Portland direct connection with the East; they brought in a great population; but they did not supplant the stern-wheeler. Portland is now the Pacific coast terminus of three transcontinental railroads,—the Northern Pacific, the Southern Pacific (Northern Line), and the Union Pacific (*via* the Oregon Railroad and Navigation Company). No other coast city has so many important railroad systems making it a center.

PORTLAND'S WHEAT AND FLOUR TRADE

Wheat-growing was the first great industry to be developed, and its export to Europe soon gave employment to many vessels. The manufacture of flour then followed naturally, and its sale, both in Europe and in the Orient, has reached large proportions. Indeed, the opening of Oriental ports to the flour trade, and the vast commerce

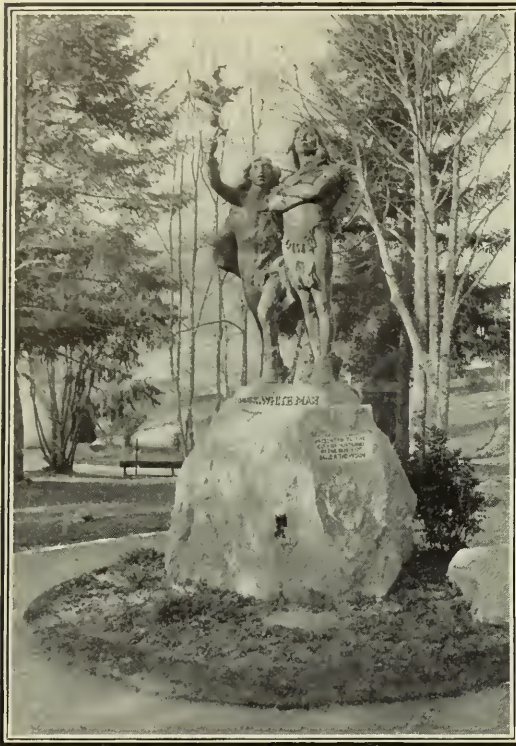


SIXTH STREET, PORTLAND, SHOWING OFFICE BUILDINGS.

that flows, on its account, from many Pacific coast ports, were largely due to the initiative and enterprise of a single Portland miller and



THE HARBOR OF PORTLAND.



"THE COMING OF THE WHITE MAN."

(Bronze statue by Herman A. Mac Neil, erected in City Park, Portland, by the family of the late D. P. Thompson.)

exporter. Here is the location of the largest flour mill on the Pacific coast. The proportion of wheat raised for export as wheat and flour in the Northwest is large,—much larger than in the middle West, where it goes mainly into domestic consumption. The total shipments from Portland, in 1904, when the crop was smaller than the average, reached 12,000,000 bushels, the entire yield of the State being 13,000,000 bushels. The average annual shipments for the past five years have been in excess of 14,500,000 bushels, and of the 1900 crop in Oregon and Washington, Portland handled 18,000,000 bushels. It must be understood that three Northwest States find, through Portland, a market for their grain, loading more vessels here than at any other port.

THE LUMBER INDUSTRY.

If there were no agriculture in Oregon, a great commonwealth might be supported by the manufacture of lumber alone. The timber resources of the State are enormous. The typical tree is the fir (Oregon pine), but the supply includes cedar, spruce, hemlock, and the like. The State's

standing timber reaches the almost inconceivable aggregate of 250,000,000,000 feet, occupying about one-half its area of nearly 100,000 square miles. In 1904, Oregon cut, approximately, 2,405,000,000 feet of lumber, valued at \$12,650,000. The mills of the Columbia basin manufactured 600,000,000 feet; the Portland mills, 413,559,285 feet. The cargo trade aggregated 164,564,015 feet. The sawmill and the farm, then, pioneers of industry in a remote territory, became potent factors in its progress before the era of railroads.

A HARBOR FOR OCEAN SHIPPING.

Portland is on the Willamette River, thirteen miles above its confluence with the Columbia and one hundred and twenty miles from the Pacific Ocean. It is at the foot of the rich Willamette valley on the south and of the immense area drained by the Columbia River from the east. Its location at the head of deep-water navigation on fresh water and in immediate adjacency to a productive agricultural field is therefore ideal. But it has not kept the trade of its tributary valleys on the one hand, nor the commerce of a great ocean-going fleet on the other, without persistent and expensive endeavor. The Columbia River carries a greater volume of water than the Mississippi, but its tendency in places is to shoal, and necessity for maintaining an open deep-water channel to the sea is imperative. It was long ago obvious that the United States Government could not be relied on to do the work alone, and it was undertaken by a local organization known as the Port of Portland Commission. The commission has, altogether, expended in the neighborhood of \$1,500,000 in diking and dredging the lower river in cooperation with the Government, and has thus developed a spirit of unity and self-help and determination to overcome all obstacles that is rare in any community.

The number of vessels in the foreign trade loading lumber at Portland in 1904 was forty; for the coasting trade, one hundred and thirty-eight. The city has, besides, a semi-monthly steamship service to the Orient. A great portion of the cargoes carried by Puget Sound steamships to China and Japan is provided by Portland flouring mills. In the expansion of the Pacific trade, then, Portland has played a prominent part, and is confident that it will have much to do in future.

OREGON'S VARIED INDUSTRIES.

It is impossible to describe in detail all the lines of industrial activity for which Portland and Oregon are notable. Portland does a large

and growing jobbing trade,—\$175,000,000 annually. It has important manufactures; it is the chief sales depot for the great hop crop of Oregon. The State cultivates fruit of many kinds in commercial quantities, and ships East both fresh and dried. It is high among the States in wool production. The ranges of eastern and southern Oregon are alive with horses, cattle, and sheep. Its climate, soil, and luxuriant grasses are perfectly adapted to dairying. It is rich in minerals, both coal and precious. Activity in gold mining has recently been marked. There is, indeed, scarcely an industry,—agricultural, horticultural, or mineral,—to which some part of the great area of Oregon is not in some degree adapted. And, finally, it has wide arid tracts on which the United States Government has undertaken the establishment of elaborate irrigation works under the Federal Reclamation Act.

THE CLIMATE OF PORTLAND.

Portland is in the same degree of latitude as St. Paul and Minneapolis, Bangor (Maine) and Halifax (Nova Scotia), cities which are associated in the public mind with great extremes of winter cold and summer heat. It may be astonishing to know, however, that the temperature here is remarkably uniform the year around.

Snow is unusual, and uncomfortable heat is rare. It is seldôm that the mercury drops below freezing point, and only once in the history of the Weather Bureau has it descended to zero. On the other hand, protracted hot spells have not occurred within the memory of the oldest inhabitant. The characteristic weather of winter is rain, and of summer, clear skies and only occasional showers. In other words, there are two seasons,—wet and dry. It is a mistake, however, to suppose that the typical winter weather is heavy and continuous rainfall. The annual average precipitation is 39.8 inches; the average for Boston is 40.8 inches; New York City, 43.4 inches. The even temperature of Portland is congenial for floriculture, so that there are cultivated here, for example, roses in great profusion and remarkable for size, color, fragrance, and form. The peculiar adaptability of climate and soil to the production of roses has caused Portland to be known as the Rose City, and a display of that familiar flower during the period of the fair is sure to excite, perhaps more than anything else, the wonder and admiration of all visitors. The rose season will be at its height about June 15, but it will continue during the entire summer and fall. Ten acres in the Agricultural Gardens at the exposition are to be devoted entirely to roses.



VIEW IN CITY PARK, PORTLAND.

(This park is declared by visitors to be a spot of exceptional beauty.)



VIEW OF THE LAKE FRONT, SHOWING "THE TRAIL," THE BRIDGE OF NATIONS, AND THE GOVERNMENT BUILDING.

THE EXPOSITION,—ITS GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS.

The gates of the Lewis and Clark Centennial and Oriental Fair will open on June 1, 1905, and close on October 15, 1905,—a period of 137 days, including Sundays. Work has so far progressed that all will be in readiness for the first day. The plans for the exposition were laid about five years since by citizens of Portland, but they have far outgrown the original designs, and much greater outlay has been incurred than at first seemed possible or desirable. That it is not to be in any sense a local exposition will be obvious when it is said that twelve States have made appropriations for the purpose of participating, and the majority of them will erect their own buildings. The value and probable success of the enterprise have so impressed some of these States that their respective legislatures now in session are being urged to increase their appropriations, and in some instances this will doubtless be done. The United States Government will officially take part, making a very elaborate exhibit. Great Britain, Canada, Germany, Holland, Italy, Japan, China, Turkey, Austria-Hungary, Sweden, Norway, Bel-

gium, Switzerland, Egypt, Korea, Siam, Russia, and other foreign countries will make satisfactory displays, some officially, others through private exhibitors. The exposition will represent an expenditure approximating \$7,500,000. Portland alone contributed \$400,000; the State of Oregon, \$450,000.

The fair will occupy 406 acres adjoining the principal residence district of the city, a natural sloping greensward overlooking Guild's Lake and the Willamette River. Of the gross area,



EXPERIMENTAL GARDENS, FROM CENTENNIAL PARK.

186 acres is land, including forest, parks, and landscape gardens, while 60 acres forms a peninsula in the lake. Guild's Lake is a fresh-water body 220 acres in extent, separated from the river by a narrow span of land. The grounds are twenty minutes' ride by electric car from the center of Portland. It is not too much to say that in the entire history of expositions they have not been rivaled. The scenic outlook is magnificent, the immediate environment most captivating. If the exposition will be unique in any particular, it will be in its striking combination of land and water effects. The exhibit buildings are for the most part conventional in type, but they are carefully built, architecturally attractive, and very finely grouped. They comprise eleven main structures, special pavilions, administration building, auditorium, State, Territorial, and concessions buildings, and various private edifices. The cost and dimensions of the principal buildings are as follows:

	Dimensions.	Cost.
Forestry Building.....	206 x 100 feet.	\$30,165.18
Oriental Exhibits Building....	308 x 160 "	55,425.00
Agricultural Building.....	460 x 210 "	69,130.60
European Exhibits Building...	462 x 100 "	51,720.00
Machinery, Electricity, and Transportation Building....	500 x 100 "	28,540.00
Festival Hall (Auditorium) ...	108 x 120 "	12,534.65
Mines and Metallurgy Building	200 x 100 "	14,320.00
Arts and Varied Industries Building.....	240 x 375 "	38,216.00
Fine Arts.....	25 x 175 x 150 feet. (L-shaped) about	10,000.00

The United States Government Building, to be located on the peninsula, will cover three acres and cost \$250,000. Occupying a reservation of its own, the Government Building is designed to be an exposition in itself. The Government made an appropriation of \$475,000,



MR. H. W. GOODE.
(President and director-general of the exposition.)

which is to be expended under its own direction and for the purpose of making its own display. Appropriations made by various States to cover the cost of participation already foot up to \$790,000, while large additions to this total are expected from legislatures now in session.

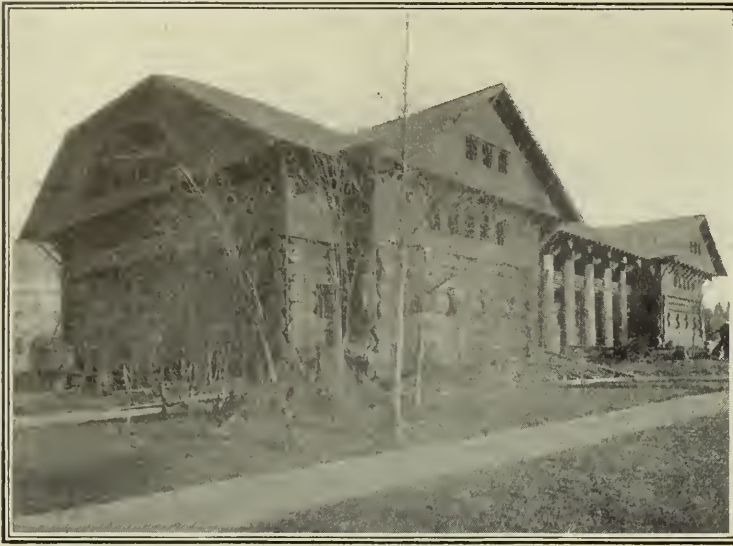
THE FORESTRY BUILDING.

One feature that will perhaps attract greater attention than any other is the Forestry Building. It is altogether unique in design and construction, and is in itself visual evidence of the



Mr. I. N. Fleischner. (First vice-president of the exposition.)
 Mr. Oskar Huber. (Director of works.)
 Col. H. E. Dosch. (Director of exhibits.)
 Mr. Harry E. Reed. (Secretary of the exposition.)
 Mr. J. A. Wakefield. (Director of concessions and admissions.)

SOME OF THE MEN WHO ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR THE SUCCESS OF THE FAIR.



THE FORESTRY BUILDING.

splendid timber resources of the Oregon country. It is made entirely of logs, all of giant dimensions. Reduced to the exact reality of figures, there was used in its building two miles of five-foot and six-foot fir logs, eight miles of poles, and many tons of shakes and cedar shingles. One of the logs, said to be not larger than others, weighs thirty-two tons. Uncommon taste has been employed in combining many rough timber features into an *ensemble* of rare beauty and symmetry.

THE FAIR'S ATTRACTIONS FOR EASTERN VISITORS.

The purpose of the exposition promoters has been not to overdo. They realize that they will



VIEW IN CENTENNIAL PARK.

(The grounds abound in pleasing landscape effects.)

be at a disadvantage if they invite comparison with expositions conducted on the largest possible scale, such as those of St. Louis and Chicago. They have endeavored, however, to profit by a previous exposition experience, and they have enlisted here services of the best St. Louis talent. The result is, they have been able to select much that attracted favorable notice at St. Louis and to discard the unimportant and uninteresting. They do not rely on overwhelming mass, but on single features of merit and interest. It must not be understood that the policy is to reproduce in miniature the wonderful St. Louis show, or even to follow its plan. The highest

aim of the Lewis and Clark management is to create an exposition individual and distinctive, expressing with fidelity and clearness the sentiment, history, and life of the Pacific Northwest and their direct relationship to the Orient. Many things, no doubt, will be seen here that have been seen elsewhere, but the dominant note of the exposition will be the achievements and ambitions of the people of this far-off region in all branches of art, science, and industry. If the fair shall have nothing else worthy of remembrance, one may be sure that the visitor will discover in the Forestry Building something entirely new to him, and on "The Trail" a variety of spectacular display scarcely second either to the "Midway" or to the "Pike."

It is announced that during the fair period thirty-four annual conventions, many of them national in scope, will assemble in Portland. Among the more important are the American Medical Association, National Conference of Charities and Corrections, Order of Railway Conductors, National Good Roads Association, American Library Association, Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress, National Irrigation Congress, American Association of Traveling Passenger Agents, and other organizations of dignity and importance. The board of exposition directors has named a local committee on congress and conference which has undertaken in part the duty of arranging programmes for various conventions, and which has, besides, made plans for an educational conference, a conference on



CENTENNIAL PARK, SHOWING BUILDINGS IN DISTANCE.

civics, a conference on Indian affairs, a conference on the relation of employer and employee, and a conference on the relation of the United States to the Orient. The latter series will be valuable and highly interesting, inasmuch as its growing list of speakers and delegates already includes the names of many distinguished public men, among whom may be mentioned the following, who have definitely consented to come: for the conference on Oriental affairs, Secretary Taft, Senator Foraker, and Rev. Arthur J. Brown, D.D.; for the educational congress, President Tucker, of Dartmouth; Prof. Howard J. Rogers, of New York; United States Commissioner of Education William T. Harris, Prof. Martin G. Brumbaugh, of Pennsylvania, and President Benjamin Ide Wheeler, of the University of California; for the civics conference, Clinton Rogers Woodruff; Prof. Amos P. Wilder, of Madison, Wis.; Rev. Dr. Josiah Strong, president of the League for Social Service; Prof. John Graham Brooks, of Cambridge, Mass.; Commissioner of Corporations J. R. Garfield; Mr. J. De Witt Warner, of New York City.

The fair will be open on Sundays, but all machinery will be stopped and "The Trail" closed. Special attention will then be given to music and educational and religious exercises.

For the Sunday meetings, Dr. Frank Gunsanlus, Dr. Josiah Strong, and Dr. Newell Dwight Hillis have accepted invitations to speak, and there will be many others.

To the intending excursionist it will be interesting to know that the facilities afforded for side trips from Portland during the exposition will be numerous. The scenery of the upper Columbia River is most impressive. A trip down the Columbia to Astoria and the Pacific Ocean is a day's delight. Trolley cars connect the city with Vancouver and Oregon City, and a ride by rail up the Willamette valley will charm all who may be interested in the changing beauties of farmland and forest. There is an excellent street-railway system carrying travelers to adjacent foothills, to parks, and to points of interest along the river. Hotel accommodations will be found to be ample. The site of Portland itself, on the banks of the broad Willamette, with the verdant hills in the background and with a fine panorama of snow-capped mountains in the distance, is one of its chief charms. Civic improvement, in view of the approaching exposition, has become a local watchword. Portland has much to show, and a hospitable purpose to show it to all visitors.



Sir Francis Drake, the English sailor-discoverer and freebooter. (From a painting in the Marquis of Lothian's collection.)

Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, who aimed to dominate all the northern seas. (From the painting by Kneller.)

Captain Cook, the English globe-circumnavigator and discoverer. (From the painting by Dance.)

THREE OF THE EARLIER FIGURES IN THE OPENING UP OF OUR GREAT NORTHWEST.

WHAT THE PORTLAND EXPOSITION REALLY CELEBRATES.

BY AGNES C. LAUT.

(Author of "Lords of the North," "Heralds of Empire," "Story of the Trapper," "Pathfinders of the West.")

IT is a mistake to regard the Portland Exposition as a celebration solely of the Lewis and Clark centennial. It celebrates very much more than the feat of the two great American explorers finding the way from the Missouri to the Pacific. The real significance of the exposition is a public and national observance of the heroic period in the history of the American West. And however unheroic our practical commercialism has become, the exposition is a public reminder that all the prosperity, all the national achievement, in the great Northwest had its fountain sources in the chimerical dreams of enthusiasts, who were reckoned of small account in their own day, if not actually regarded as fools; but who, nevertheless, were made of the stuff to risk life and fortune to prove the faith that was in them. They asked no reward but to follow the light kindled by the fires of their own enthusiasm. It was to the great Northwest that light led.

England, France, and Spain were the actors in the hero-drama of the Atlantic coast. England, Spain, Russia, and the newly organized United States acted the hero rôles on the Pacific coast, with the important difference that, on the

Pacific, the adventuring was nearly always a matter of individual and not of national effort.

Some one has said that there is no heroic period in American history similar to that of the robber barons and the sea Vikings of older lands; that in America there is only a history of the beaver. That is in one sense perfectly true. But the history of the beaver is heroic. It was the beaver that lured the French westward to the Rockies. It was the little sable that led the Russian Cossacks across Siberia to the Pacific; and it was the rare sea otter that brought Americans, English, and Russians around the world to the Pacific coast of America. Spain sought gold, but, like the prospector the world over, was discreetly secret about her findings, and if there was no precious metal, barely troubled to stake out a claim of first possession. Russia wanted furs; England, land; but on the west coast, the United States came into a heritage of all three.

The Lewis and Clark expedition was really the culmination of two great movements—one westward, the other east. Radisson and Groseillers, the Quebec fur-traders, were the first to penetrate into the Northwest as far as the Mis-

issippi. There followed the explorations of Marquette and Joliet and La Salle in the Mississippi Valley. Then came La Vérendrye, pushing westward as far as the Rockies. What lay beyond the Rockies, between the mountains and the western sea? It was this question that Lewis and Clark answered; but their answer was prompted, if not forced, by that other movement from the west, east.

Before any French trader had found the Mississippi, there came cruising round the world Francis Drake, English gentleman and courtier when at home, cutthroat freebooter and pirate of the high seas when abroad. Spain had sought to lay claim to all those waters bordering her new-world territory by naming her governors of New Spain admirals of the south seas, and Drake must teach England's enemy that the rest of the world had something to say about that claim to Pacific seas. At least, that was the excuse the English conscience gave itself for English gentlemen on piratical ventures, bound to sack every Spanish settlement and ship found in those south seas. Drake succeeded so well in loading himself with Spanish plunder in the South Pacific that he was afraid to venture home the way he had come, past Spanish lands. So he coasted northward of New Spain, to what is now California or Oregon, seeking a northeast passage back to England. Needless to add, he did not find such a passage; but he was knighted for his exploits. It was felt he had given England a claim to something somewhere that was Spanish.

If Spain was to dominate the south seas, why not Russia the north? That was the aim of Peter the Great when he sent Vitus Bering, the Dane, coasting what is now Alaska in a vain search for an imaginary continent of "Gamaland." And that remained the aim of Russia when she sent her fur-traders cruising the west coast of America from Alaska to California, and planned to establish forts in the Sandwich Islands. The story of those fur-traders is a record by itself. They were the Vikings of the new world, coasting two continents in cockle-shell skiffs made of sea-lion skin or green timbers calked with moss and tallow. For fifty years after Bering's voyage of 1741, they scoured the North Pacific, banditti of the trackless sea hunting the sea otter. Then, the ambitions of the Bear roused the jealousy of the Lion. The English suddenly awakened from their long inactivity to remember that Francis Drake had been out on the west coast of America in 1579. Cook was at once sent by the English Government to settle the question of that northeast passage, and also—quite incidentally—to take possession of any unclaimed territory between New Spain on the south and the Russian's Alaska on the north. This was in 1778.

It is here that the United States exploitation of the Pacific begins. With Cook, the English navigator, went a young American corporal of marines, a native of New England, a ne'er-do-well dreamer with the vision of a prophet to foresee possibilities, but hopelessly impractical to realize the visions that he saw. This was John Ledyard, who began life with ambition to be an evangelist to American Indians and ended a penniless soldier of fortune in Africa. Ledyard saw an unclaimed empire between New Spain and Russian Alaska. He easily guessed that the distance between the Rockies, which La Vérendrye had found, and the Pacific coast, which he cruised with the Englishman, Cook, was not an inconsequential, narrow strip of land, as the maps represented, but a vast area of incalculable wealth, that might some day be a part of the newly federated United States. He had also seen Cook's crew sell in China one-third of a water-rotted cargo of sea-otter skins for



THE GOOD SHIP "COLUMBIA" IN A SQUALL IN THE PACIFIC AT THE MOUTH OF THE COLUMBIA RIVER.

(From the old Davidson drawing.)



IDEAL PORTRAIT OF THE SQUAW SACAJAWEA, WHO PILOTTED THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION.

(From the statue by Bruno L. Zimm, exhibited at the St. Louis Exposition. The head of the statue is an exact model of the only full-blooded Shoshone Indian girl east of the Wyoming reservation.)

ten thousand dollars. Why, he asked himself, could not an American ship sent out to explore the Pacific coast defray expenses by trading in sea otter? Hurrying back to his native land, he propounded his plans to leading men of New York and Philadelphia. But a visionary is always distrusted, a penniless visionary most of all. People listened to his schemes, but they did not encourage them with offers of a ship or credit. Besides, Cook's voyages had not yet been given to the public, and there seemed to be nothing to substantiate Ledyard's tales of golden wealth. So enthusiastic was Ledyard to explore the great territory between the Ohio and the Pa-

cific that when he could not obtain a ship to sail to the Pacific he determined to sail for Europe, tramp it across the two Siberias to the Pacific, chance across the Pacific on some Russian trading ship, and work his way eastward from Indian tribe to tribe from the Pacific to the Mississippi. All the world knows how Russia defeated his project by expelling him forcibly from Siberia on pain of death if he returned; but stranded in Paris, he met Jefferson. To Jefferson he told all that he knew of what the Pacific territory promised in wealth, and it was in the enthusiasm of Ledyard, communicated to Jefferson, that the idea of an American expedition from the Missouri to the Columbia had its origin.

Three other events drove home with force to Jefferson the need of an immediate exploration of Louisiana. This territory had been purchased by the United States for fifteen million dollars. Alexander MacKenzie, a Scotchman, had crossed from the Athabasca to the Pacific, and claimed that northern region for England. If Ledyard had been granted a ship, he could have been on the Pacific coast before MacKenzie, and what is now British Columbia might have been American territory, inasmuch as Cook touched only the islands, not the mainland. Third and most important of all in hastening Jefferson's plans to explore Louisiana was the discovery and entrance of the Columbia River by Gray, an American, in the spring of 1792. While Ledyard was in Europe the story of Cook's voyage was being prepared for the press.

When the voyage was published, the world was astonished at the extent of the territories described. Merchants, especially, were roused by the report of the enormous profits to be made in the sea-otter trade. Boston men were always famous as first to act. That is why the American trader was uniformly known among Indians from Athabasca to the Missouri as a "Bostonian." Sitting around the fire of Bulfinch's library in Boston, one night, were Derby and Hatch and Burrell and two or three others, talking over the profits of the sea-otter trade as related in Cook's voyage. A few weeks later they had formed a partnership, and outfitted the two ships *Columbia* and *Lady Washington*, under Kendrick and Gray, to proceed to the Pacific coast. The first voyage was a loss; but on the second voyage of these ships, after for nine days vainly trying to cross the breakers, Gray caught a favorable wind, and, with all sails set, drove the *Columbia* clear across the narrow channel, between beach combers and sand bar, into the wide area of a magnificent river. The river, which Cook and Vancouver and a host of others



Capt. William Clark.

(From the portrait in Independence Hall, Philadelphia.)

Capt. Meriwether Lewis.

(The best-known portrait.)

ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO, THESE MEN OPENED THE WAY ACROSS THE CONTINENT TO OREGON.

had said did *not* exist, Gray named the Columbia, after his ship. No doubt the motive of the British navigators, in persuading themselves there was no river where Gray discovered one,

was to throw discredit on Spanish explorations. For Heceta, the Spanish navigator, had seven years before sighted, at a distance of many miles, what he said was like the entrance to a river here; but Gray, the American, was the first to discover this river, and to enter it. This, and the purchase of Louisiana, put the American Government in the odd position of owning territory east of the Rockies and a river west of the Rockies, but not knowing in the least what lay between the Columbia River and Louisiana. And then Baranof, governor of the Russian Fur Company, the little Czar of Alaska, was pushing Russia's claims farther south. It will astonish most readers to be told that Russia's plans for supremacy in the Pacific materialized to the extent of a large fort in California, fur-trading stations in southern California, and two forts in the Sandwich Islands. If Louisiana extended to the Pacific, it was time to prove it. Hence the Lewis and Clark expedition.

LAST OF THE GREAT PATHFINDERS.

Lewis and Clark were the last of the great pathfinders. They were the meeting-point between the heroic days of the adventurers, who essayed the wilds for gold or fur, and the pioneer days of the patient nation-builder. All who came after them,—Astor, with his fur-trading company of the Pacific; Fremont, Jean de Smet, Marcus Whitman,—were either pioneers or explorers, not pathfinders in the true sense of the



GEN. JOHN C. FREMONT, PIONEER, EXPLORER, SOLDIER.

word. Of the expedition itself there is no need to tell. The story is a household word. But there are some features of it absolutely unique in the pathfinding of America. From St. Louis to Fort Clatsop, on the Pacific, not a single plan miscarried for three years, not one day's work was bungled. This does not make as spectacular heroism as the rashness of some discoverer who sacrifices half a hundred men to death or disease; but it is more to the credit of the leaders.—a higher kind of heroism, and of the level-headed sort, typical of what constitutes American progress.

The great difficulties of the exploration were not, of course, in ascending the Missouri or indescending the Columbia. All that was necessary here was to follow the currents of the rivers, though this is not the easy matter the town man may infer when it is remembered that both the Missouri and the Columbia can only be followed in some places by long portages overland,—one of eighteen miles, across cactus ground that cut the feet of the men like knives, or by tracking up stream to armpits in ice-water, over rock bottom as slippery as glass. To follow the courses of these rivers was not the greatest difficulty. It was to cross the Rockies,—to go from where the Missouri ended to where the Columbia began. This was accomplished,—as is often the case in life's greatest crises,—not by the wisdom or courage of the leaders, but by the quiet, unconscious heroism of one of the burden-bearers,—a simple, hard-working Indian woman, Sacajawea; a captive, then a slave, redeemed from slavery by purchase to become the wife of Chabonneau, the French half-breed guide. Sacajawea it was who piloted the explorers through the fastnesses of the pathless mountains. Seven years later, the Astorian fur-traders, with a dozen

old Canadian hunters of the Northwest Company, tried to cross these same mountains, only to become lost, bewildered, reduced to starvation. What the French-Canadian hunters failed to do for Astor's adventurers, Sacajawea, the Indian woman, did for Lewis and Clark.

Among later heroes of Pacific-coast adventure Whitman, whose ride down the mountains across the continent from Oregon to the East became famous, probably ranks foremost in the public mind. Whether this adventurous race in the face of all dangers was to save his mission, or to save Oregon for the United States—a disputed point among *savants*—it certainly gave him rank among the heroes of the early West.

Such is the heroic era of Pacific-coast history that the Portland Exposition celebrates,—an era that for dare-devil, dauntless courage far surpasses anything in the border warfare of England and Scotland or sea fights of the old North Sea Vikings. So much better did the makers of that heroic era build than they knew, so much better did the reality prove

than the dream, that they left an empire where they found a wilderness. It is said that the trade products of what is known as the great Northwest are four hundred times greater in a single year than the purchase price of Louisiana. For those practical people who wonder what the exposition is all about and pooh-pooh all heroism but what can be expressed in terms of the dollar bill, this is a fact to be remembered. It may give point to their respect for glory-seekers of those old heroic days, for Bering and Cook and Grey and Heceta and Ledyard coming from the West eastward, and for Radisson and Marquette and La Salle and La Vérendrye and Lewis and Clark going from the East westward, and even for the poor slave-squaw Sacajawea.



JOHN JACOB ASTOR, PIONEER FUR MERCHANT AND CAPITALIST.
(From the painting by Chapell.)



SOOTY TERNS, TAKEN ON BIRD KEY, DRY TORTUGAS.
(Thousands of them thus hover over the heads of visitors.)

BIRD-HUNTING WITH THE CAMERA.

BY HERBERT K. JOB.

(Author of "Among the Water-Fowl" and "Wild Wings" [forthcoming; Houghton, Mifflin & Co., New York and Boston]. Photographs by the author, selected from "Wild Wings.")

THE true sportman goes hunting not because he loves to kill, nor (ordinarily) because he lusts after the fleshpots. Interest in the observing of wild life enters also as a factor, together with the satisfaction of matching wit against wit in the chase as a game of skill. Why, then, need one employ shotgun or rifle as the implement when there is another which, to say the least, fulfills all these requirements and has other advantages besides.—the camera?

I wish, at the outset, to enter the claim that I write as a sportsman, not as a fanatic, in honestly advocating the substitution of the camera for the gun in the greatest possible measure. Not being a vegetarian in practice, nor an ultra-sentimentalist, I am aiding and abetting the killing of domestic animals for food through my account at the meat market. Hence I cannot consistently claim that it is a sin in itself to take the life of a wild animal for what may be considered a really useful purpose. As a student of ornithology, I own a gun, and occasionally,—though seldom, of late.—use it for the obtaining of some bit of scientific information. In time past I have hunted with it considerably, and believe that my friends consider me quite a good shot, so that it is not a case of "sour grapes."

Thoroughly conversant with both gun and camera, I deliberately choose and prefer the camera for genuine sport and the greater enjoyment.

I do not deny that I am in part influenced by what any thoughtful person tends more and more to feel as the years go by, a growing distaste for the shedding of blood and destroying life. As in my own case, there are thousands who love the excitement of, the chase, and yet cannot help feel the pang of sympathy for the conquered victim, so beautiful and so worthy to live,—unless it be one of the noxious "varmints" on which we are compelled to wage war.

Another element entering into the problem is the economic one of the decrease of game and of wild life. This is an age of nerve strain, and more and more people need the sport of the field in order to keep well and to live. Population increases by leaps and bounds. We need the interest and beauty of wild life to entice us afield, but if any considerable proportion of us wish to shoot, even in moderation, soon there will not be any wild game left upon our continent. Agriculture, our basal industry, becomes menaced by the spread of insect pests in proportion as the balance of nature is overthrown. People are awakening to these facts, and every year sees



YOUNG COOPER'S HAWKS.
(In their nest in a chestnut tree.)

many additions to the game laws, further restricting the hunter and protecting the game. We may soon be driven to the step, which has been taken in some quarters abroad, of imposing a license fee upon every owner of a firearm. As there, shooting will tend to become the sport only of the rich. Yet why need matters take such a course? Why should we wish further to reduce the numbers of the rapidly dwindling wild life, which adds so much of beauty and interest to our national domain, when we can have just as much sport, exercise, excitement, exhilaration, in matching our wits with those of the wild children of Nature, and that without shedding a drop of blood or diminishing even by one the population of the wilds?

There is no denying that it is far harder to photograph satisfactorily a free, wild adult bird or animal than it is to kill it. Indeed, this branch of the subject stands about at the pinnacle of the art of photography, as regards difficulty and technique. It is hard enough to make a first-class portrait of a person who desires to be photographed, even with all the accessories at command. But imagine the difficulty of securing such if the desired subject were determined to let no one approach him! According as one looks at it, this may act as a deterrent or an attraction. To me it is the latter; good photo-

graphs of wild birds or animals are still scarce enough to make success a real triumph.

Fortunately, on the other hand, there are many offsets to the discouragements. Adult wild creatures are not the only "game" to work upon. In fact, one had better not plan to begin with them. First, one should practice the rudiments of photography, if possible, with the advice and assistance of some experienced friend, studying one of the many booklets of simple directions. Then go hunting with the camera, taking the gun too if one must. Photograph the haunts of the game,—a selected bit of scenery, a forest glade, a wooded lake, a rocky gorge, a lonely trail, a fine tree, the scenes at camp, and the like.

Next, work on the nests of birds, or upon young birds or animals, all of which require genuine hunting to discover, but which, when found, cannot escape, and yet can do many annoying things to baffle the attempt to obtain their pictures. And here comes in one great advantage of this new hunting,—that it is never out of season. Hunting with shotgun or rifle is a sport only for autumn or, in a small degree, for winter, whereas there are no times nor seasons nor laws to restrict hunting with the camera. Spring is no less delightful a season than autumn to be afield; probably to most people it is more so. But spring and early summer,—the breeding-



KITTIWAKES, NESTING ON THE CLIFF OF BIRD ROCK,
GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE.

(Taken by the photographer being lowered over the cliff.)

season of animals and birds, when they are tamest and return persistently to a home center,—afford the very best opportunities, though there is also hunting for the whole year. One may thus spread the year's sport over all the seasons, keep in good physical condition by not refraining for long periods from proper outdoor exercise, and find in each season its own special delight.

Another great advantage is that game for the camera is far more abundant than that for the gun. Only a few kinds of birds or mammals are naturally or legally available as game, and many of these are becoming very scarce in most localities. Where, for instance, are the woodcock of our younger days? On the other hand, every living thing is proper game for the camera sportsman, and the whole field of wild life is open to him—or to her—without restriction.

This suggests still another advantage. While a woman may use the gun, as some do, it is seldom practicable, for many reasons, but there is nothing to hinder her from using the camera. Indeed, camera-hunting will open up the realm of refreshing, invigorating field sport to a multitude of the gentler sex who have been unjustly deprived of its joys and its advantages. This is no admission that the sport is not a virile one; true art is virile. But this sport and art may take on as strenuous features as one may find desired. Not long ago my wife and I, with a lady camera-hunter, spent a day in the woods. My special quest was to photograph a hawk's nest with a brood of young. It was in a good-sized chestnut tree. The young hawks were peering over the edge of the nest, and the ladies sat down and watched them, and me too as I spiked my way up the tree and clung on aloft

in a precarious position, straddled across between two forks of the tree, balancing myself with one hand and manipulating the camera with the other. When I finally descended, my friend assured me that I could have a clear field in that sort of camera-hunting for aught of her.

However, she found the nest of a cedar-bird in a low apple tree, and secured, I think, some good pictures of those young birds. So one can select the game desired,—hawks or cedar-birds, grizzly bears or squirrels, as the case may be.

In selecting a camera for this enchanting sport, I should advise beginning with a long-focus, cycle-style instrument, of any reputable maker. By long focus I mean a fairly long draw of bellows, not less than 16 inches for a 4 x 5, so that one may focus on a small object at close range and secure a large image, and also be able to use a single member of the doublet lens, which will give a double-sized image at the same distance, and also requires twice the length of bellows as the doublet. Cycle style is a term sometimes, though not always, used for a light-weight, long-focus

camera, having only front draw of bellows, suitable to carry on a bicycle. The most practicable size is that using a 4 x 5 plate. Good, sharp pictures taken with such an instrument can be afterward enlarged to any desirable size. For this camera no expensive lens is necessary, only a good "rapid rectilinear" doublet lens, but one that will give a clear image to the very corners of the picture. A good idea is to have a lens a size or two larger than the one ordinarily made for this size of camera, though this is not essential. This will insure an entirely clear image, and a larger one of the subject at a given distance. Be sure to buy a camera



YOUNG GREAT WHITE HERON, ON A MANGROVE TREE, NEAR ITS NEST, FROM WHICH IT HAS CLIMBED OUT.

(Photographed on the Florida Keys, where, some seventy-five years ago, the species was discovered by Audubon.)

which can be focused through the back, and not one for only a film roll-holder, focused by measuring the distance, which latter would be almost useless for camera-hunting. I should advise using glass plates, though cut films in plate-holders will do, if they are of a grade as rapid as the fastest plates. Unfortunately, they are much more expensive than plates.

Such a camera is excellent for all-around general work, especially for scenic pictures, nests, young birds or animals, and for making exposures from a distance by means of a thread. To photograph wary subjects with it, the best way is to focus upon some spot such as the nest, to which the subject is likely to return, attach a spool of strong black linen thread to the shutter, and go into hiding, pulling the thread at the opportune moment. Food will sometimes serve as the lure.

In order to secure a picture by stalking, with camera in hand, with such an instrument one must use the "finder," and focus by the distance scale, estimating the distance with the eye, as one would use a "kodak." This, of course, is somewhat uncertain and unsatisfactory. Twin-lens cameras are heavy and unwieldy, and focusing-finders are unreliable. The best device for this purpose is the "reflecting," or "reflex," style of camera, with a mirror arrangement by which one can see the game in full-sized image, upon a ground glass on top. With the slide withdrawn from the plate one can see to focus, and then can snap the instant everything is ready. Unfortunately, there is but one such now on the market,—the Graflex,—which, having the monopoly of the field, is excessively expensive. It is to be hoped that competition may soon put such an instrument within the reach of all. To successfully photograph flying birds, or animals in rapid motion, a very rapid exposure is necessary, sometimes as short an interval as one one-thousandth of a second, and this can be attained only with what is called the "focal-plane" shut-

ter. This can be fitted on to the back of the ordinary camera. Yet it is hard, with this arrangement, to aim and focus accurately, and the "reflex" type of camera is far better. Moreover, to match these short exposures, a very rapid and rather expensive lens is required for the best results, though one can accomplish much with a good ordinary lens by judicious management and under favorable circumstances.

My purpose in this writing is simply to suggest to others, especially my fellow-sportsmen, the possibilities and pleasure of hunting with the camera. Just try it and see! Take a camera along on the summer vacation or fishing-trip and experiment upon scenery, sporting scenes, young birds, domestic animals, and what not. Take it in the crisp, glorious autumn, when it is such a keen delight to live. Try it on the wild fowl from the gunning-stand, when they have swum in close to the decoys; on flying fowl from the gunning-float or the line of boats; from the pit by the shore, on bay birds. Give the quail or grouse a try as they flush before the dogs. I have failed in this last, as have, apparently, all others; but it can be done. Who will be the first to succeed? No little *éclat* awaits him. But though you may not catch the quail, you can more



MALE BURROWING OWL.

(On guard at his front door, on a North Dakota prairie.)

easily get fine glimpses of men and dogs in action in permanent form for refreshing your memory when the season is over. Then there are the deer and the big game of the Northern forests, if one be fortunate enough to sojourn in those wilds.

When nature is snow-bound and ice-sealed, these are fine times for hill-climbing and cross-country tramps, looking up game haunts for future use, taking the camera to capture many a fine scene of snow or frost. Feed the birds with fat meat and seed around the house, and photograph them by leaving the camera focused upon the food and pulling the thread—from indoors, if you like—when they are busy eating. The trapper may occasionally provide a subject

for portraiture in captivity, or one may follow him around to his traps. Try the sea-gulls from ferryboat or wharf, if you are near a coastwise city, or attempt wild ducks from an ice-blind. There are many photographic problems besides these which ingenuity may suggest or overcome.

With the advent of spring subjects multiply. The nesting-season of the birds begins by early March, in the latitude of New England, with the great horned owl, which uses a platform of sticks in tall trees in the woods. After many attempts, I have been able to conquer and have wrested its likeness from the wary, savage creature. There are other owls, too, and by April the hawks begin to nest, from which there are many unique camera trophies yet to be won.



GREAT HORNED OWL RETURNING TO NEST AND YOUNG.

(Part of a rabbit lies on the edge of the nest. The camera was rigged up near the nest, in a neighboring tree, and the exposure made at an opportune time by a thread from a bower 100 yards off in the woods. So far as known, this is the first photograph of the great horned owl from wild life.)

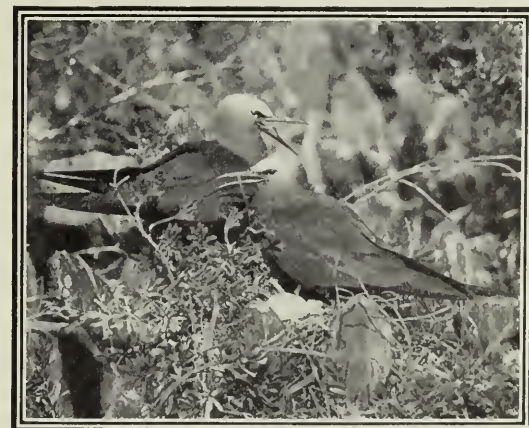


COOPER'S HAWK INCUBATING.

(Nest, 42 feet up a hemlock tree. This bird was probably never photographed before in a wild state.)

By care and cunning one may accustom even so wary a bird to the camera, and screwing it up near the lofty nest, pull the thread from a bower, with successful result. I speak from experience.

By the first of June the great host of the birds is nesting, and "what is so rare as a day in June,"—or in May, either,—with the camera! A small tent improvised from an old umbrella, with the socket-stand driven into the ground and a thin cloth canopy fitted over it, dyed to the color of the surroundings, can be pitched beside the nest of a bird or the hole or burrow of some animal, and experience will prove that "patient waiters are no losers" in this sport.



PAIR OF NODDIES ON NEST.

(Bird Key, Dry Tortugas, Gulf of Mexico. Their frail nests of twigs are built upon the bay-cedar bushes. A warden, hired by the Audubon societies, protects this great colony of sooty terns and noddies throughout the nesting season.)



QUAIL ON NEST.

(This bird became so tame, owing to continued immunity from harm, that she would allow herself to be handled on the nest without leaving.)

would ask the reader to note carefully the accompanying portrait of a nesting game-bird, and say whether this is not of more value and interest than a whole back-load of game—for a few people to eat—toothsome as it may be found.

Or the oyster-catcher,—a fine large shore bird, though not so delicately flavored,—it was grand sport to photograph it down on that Southern key, left alone by my party, buried in a trench in the sand, all but head and arms, to deceive the wary birds, and, finally, to photograph the unsuspecting mother.

It is better to plan vacation trips with a view to this fine sport than to loll about on dress parade at some fashionable resort. Instead, visit some great resort of the birds or other game,—such a place, for instance, as the bird rocks of the Gulf of St. Lawrence,—and take the wonderful sea-birds on their precarious nesting-sites on the cliff or in the whirl of rapid flight.

Already there is a notable movement in this direction. There are thousands of hunters with this new and harmless weapon scattered over this country. A movement is now under way to form a national association of camera-hunters for mutual pleasure and help and additional protection of wild life. The time is evidently near at hand when sportsmen's clubs will compete more enthusiastically to secure the best photographs of wild game than for big bags or

large heads and horns, and such trophies will oust the latter from the place of honor in the club-room. Indeed, there will be hunting clubs, devoted to camera sport alone, which will rival and surpass the expensive organizations which must lease whole townships for exclusive shooting privileges.

One need not be sanguine enough to expect that in time every hunter will sell his gun and buy him a camera; certainly I am not. But many, like myself, have turned from gun to camera, many more will do it, and thousands, finding at least a partial substitute, will shoot less. President Roosevelt, genuine sportsman and lover of wild nature, explains his own position on this question in the following letter, written about the author's recent book, "Among the Water-Fowl," and soon to appear as an "Introductory Letter" to "Wild Wings":

WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON.

MY DEAR MR. JOB,—As a fellow Harvard man, I must thank you for your exceedingly interesting book. I have been delighted with it, and I desire to express to you my sense of the good which comes from such books as yours, and from the substitution of the camera for the gun. The older I grow the less I care to shoot anything except "varmints." I do not think it at all advisable that the gun should be given up, nor does it seem to me that shooting wild game under proper restrictions can be legitimately opposed by any who are willing that domestic animals shall be kept for food; but there is altogether too much shooting, and if we can only get the camera in place of the gun, and have the sportsman sunk somewhat in the naturalist and lover of wild things, the next generation will see an immense change for the better in the life of our woods and waters. But I am still something of a hunter, although a lover of wild nature first.

Faithfully yours,

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.



AMERICAN OYSTER-CATCHER INCUBATING.

(Taken from a long distance, the photographer being partly buried in the sand for concealment. Believed to be the first life-photograph of this species.)



THE ODENSE RIVER, DENMARK, WITH THE CHURCH OF ST. CANUTE IN THE BACKGROUND.

THE CENTENARY OF HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN.

BY JULIUS MORITZEN.

ONE hundred years having passed since the birth of Hans Christian Andersen, posterity is agreed that his fame must rest on the universality of what he wrote and fancied; that his stories and his poems apply to young and old alike, and to every country; that while to Denmark belongs the honor of having reared her illustrious son, the work he did is the world's heritage.

On the second day of April, 1805, there was born to a poor shoemaker and his wife, of Odense, the boy at whose cradle the muse of inspiration must have stood loving guard. And here, within the shadow of the famous Church of St. Canute, Hans Christian grew to boyhood; within earshot of the deep-sounding bells of St. Canute, the future poet laid the foundation for that mastery which now entitles him to the world's homage. Next to the Great Book, and to Shakespeare, no other writings can show a more lasting quality than that which attaches to the fairy tales of Hans Christian Andersen. Since his death, in 1875, editions on editions of his tales have appeared in all countries, and in almost every language.

Come with the writer to the city of Odense; to the nooks and the haunts where Andersen

dreamed the dreams that fired his imagination. In the case of Andersen it is doubly true that the city of Odense, with its hoary tradition, proved the fertile ground where the germ of fantasy became as the full-grown tree of knowledge the moment the poet's magic wand lifted the seed into the bright sunlight. Long before he wrote out his splendid thoughts the coming story-teller had realized his true vocation, and in spite of the hardships he suffered in his native city, the famous Dane retained to the last his love for the ancient town that Odin, according to tradition, founded in that long ago.

As you approach Odense, the tall steeple of the Church of St. Canute sounds the introductory note to the literary journey on which you have embarked. For this is the edifice to which the poet refers many times in his numerous stories. But before gaining closer acquaintance with the centuries-old structure, other interesting objects, identified with the early life of Andersen, claim attention. As you leave your train and set foot on Odense ground, the celebrated King's Garden comes into view directly across from the station. It is here the school children of Denmark erected a fine statue of the poet. Located on the banks of one of the sev-



THE STATUE ERECTED BY THE DANISH CHILDREN IN THE KING'S GARDEN.

eral miniature lakes, the snow-white swans that sweep the surface of the water are in true unison with the monument of the famous writer, who as a boy marveled at the majestic birds, and later immortalized them in one of his stories.

In the background of the King's Garden stands the great yellow structure which was the royal residence of Frederick VII. on that popular monarch's visits to Odense. As it appears to-day it was in the time of Christian VIII., when, as Crown Prince, he resided there. It was before this august personage that Hans Christian was brought by the influential Colonel Guldberg, who had interested himself in the precocious lad, and now asked his Royal Highness to have him sent to the "Latin" School, the

foremost institution of learning in the city. But the shortcomings of the candidate were so evident that the Crown Prince could not look upon Andersen as a satisfactory applicant. His offer to extend his patronage to the boy, were he to select some trade, was impetuously scorned by the youthful genius. As a compromise he was sent to the "Free" School, where his wretched spelling almost drove his teacher to distraction. Andersen tells it all himself, quite unreservedly, in his autobiography, together with the fact that, when later his talent emerged from out of the land of dreams, Christian VIII. made fitting amends to the world-poet, Hans Christian Andersen.

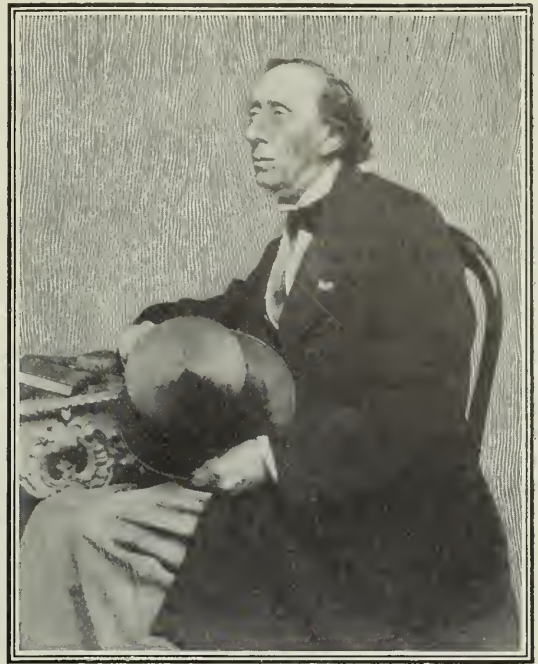
As you roam through Odense a hundred-and-one objects recall to mind that here the Danish author must have laid the unconscious foundation of his fame. The streets present a curious mingling of the old and the new; antique structures and buildings of the most modern kind stand side by side in picturesque contrast. Among the noteworthy buildings that have changed the district bounding the King's Garden are the Provincial Archive, the Museum, the Hotel Grand, and the new "Latin" School, the successor to the institution which had been the goal of Andersen as a boy.

It is in the lower part of the town, the narrow streets of which border on the Odense River, that the hand of time has left the houses almost identically as they were in the days when Andersen walked the rough cobble-stones of that section. The sluggish stream that gave up its secrets to the author of "The Bells" remains the



HOUSE OF ANDERSEN'S BOYHOOD, WITH COMMEMORATIVE TABLET.

same to-day as it was nearly a century ago. The banks are crowded with those big-leaved plants—the elephant ears—that served as shelter for the famous snail family in the fairy tale. It requires no far stretch of the imagination to see arise out of that mystic stream the water sprites and the fairies which hold high revel in the pages of Andersen's wonder-stories. Walk along the river on an evening, as the descending shadows wrap everything around as with a cloak of gray, and there, against that great tree trunk, you may easily picture to yourself the soldier as he is about to do the errand of the witch and enter the hollow of the tree where is the treasure in gold and silver. The great water-wheels of the Monk's Mill, at the foot of the narrow street of the same name, send forth their foam-churned mass as in the years gone by. Near there may still be seen the identical stones which the mother of the future poet used as her wash-board, her only means of making a livelihood when the elder Andersen was called to his fathers. And it was here, says the son in his autobiography, that "an old woman, who rinsed clothes in the river, told me that the Chinese Empire was situated straight under the very river of Odense, and I did not find it impossible



HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN.



THE MARKET SQUARE OF ODENSE.

at all that a Chinese prince, some moonlight night when I was sitting there, might dig himself through the earth up to us."

The house in which Andersen was born was torn down shortly after his birth. The poet never had any recollection of the place. But the building that now bears the tablet in his honor is identified with his early life up to the time when he started away from home to seek his fame and fortune. Here it was that his imagination conceived "The Snow Queen." "By means of a ladder," he tells in "The Story of

My Life," "it was possible to go out on the roof, where, in the gutter between, it and the neighbor's house, there stood a chest filled with soil, my mother's sole garden, where she grew her vegetables. In my story that garden still blooms."

A stone's-throw from the house stands the House of Correction, which Andersen incorporated in many of his stories. Farther down, fronting the river, is the bishop's garden, with the ecclesiastical residence, just as it appeared when the poor boy watched it longingly from the bank of the stream, opposite. Years afterward, when the Odensians paid their tribute to his world-wide fame, he was to be the guest of honor of the bishop in this very place. That was the hour when, as he says, "I was to fulfill the prophecy which the old woman made to my mother when, as a boy, I left my birthplace. Odense should indeed be illuminated for me."

The eternal democracy of humanity decreed that Odense, the most patrician city in Denmark, should become known to the world because of the genius of one most lowly born. A fascinating literature has sprung from the historical records touching the place as a church center. Down through the centuries that followed the founding of the city, the origin of which can be traced as far back as the year 987, chivalry and conquest were the two predominating traits of Odense. The splendid Church of St. Canute

was erected in memory of the martyr-king who conquered England, and later met his death in the old wooden church of St. Alban.

The history of St. Canute's Church, no less than the magnificent interior of the structure, must have produced a lasting impression on a mind so flexibly attuned as Andersen's. The unbounded religious sentiment, so noticeable in many of his writings, undoubtedly owes its presence to the grandeur of the edifice, as it was the outward expression of the religion of the country. Assuredly, his boyish ear must have caught the poetry of each mellifluous tolling as the bells rang forth their messages of joy and sadness. To the lad who lived and dreamed in the shadow of the mediæval structure, St. Canute's Church became as a daily lesson in that schooling that no master can control. Through many of his most famous stories there runs the echo of unconscious allusion to the great Gothic structure on St. Albani Square.

While the spirit of religion had a firm grasp on everything in the life of Andersen, his reverence did not prevent him from letting loose his fanciful imagination whenever the mood inspired him to hitting right and left. No literature ever earned the name of pure fancy to a greater extent than that which he gave forth; yet truth distinguished was its proper title. In "The Emperor's New Clothes," for instance,

satire throws every conventionality to the winds, and this in the face of the fact that Andersen himself was considerably of a hero-worshiper. But the duty came to him to unhorse sycophancy, and in order to do this effectively he had to assail royalty itself.

It would be asking too much of the average reader of the present day to have him listen to a recital of what Hans Christian Andersen has written. Biographies without number have appeared from time to time; his stories are available in every bookstore, in every library, from one end of the world to the other. Since it has become the fashion, however, to make the century-mark a moment for retrospection, the writer ventures to say that the work of Andersen has done as much for humanity as that of any other literary man of his time, irrespective of country and nationality. As the children's Shakespeare, he knew how to enter into the kingdom of the juvenile, and bring forth a treasure-trove of truisms that have stood many a man and woman in good stead. In his "Picture Book Without Pictures," besides, the artistic scheme is such as to appeal to the most æsthetic sense. The pigments that went into the making of this and others of his works were nature's true colors, and those that life produce. "Truth Tales" might well be the proper title for the stories of Hans Christian Andersen.



THE SCENE OF ANDERSEN'S "THE BELL'S HOLLOW."

THE CRISIS IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

BY DR. M. BAUMFELD.

(American correspondent of the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*.)

FROM time to time reports appear in the American newspapers that the Emperor of Austria intends to retire because he has become weary of fighting against the frequent crises which are believed to be undermining the Hapsburg monarchy. No one who knows Francis Joseph, the monarch, will put much faith in these reports. Those who are unfamiliar with the situation in the dual monarchy, who again and again hear of the enormous difficulties and problems which are piling up before this old man of seventy-five, whose entire life has been a real tragedy, full of the bitterest sufferings, will readily comprehend the desire to end all this by one simple act to insure for himself for his last years in some secluded spot that bit of joy which may still be allotted to him. Hence these are entirely logical rumors. It must not be forgotten, however, that Francis Joseph, with full right, will go down in history as the most untiring, and dutiful of emperors, and that to-day he is even less inclined than ever to shirk his duties.

In foreign countries there seems to be little comprehension of the important fact of his thoroughly active participation in the government. Constitutional in the best sense of the word, it



FRANCIS JOSEPH I., EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND KING OF HUNGARY.

is ultimately his will by which the empire is governed. It can be stated that his ministers have become accustomed to be freely subservient to his will in the most difficult situations. This naturally arises from two facts. First, there is

his experience of nearly sixty years as monarch, an experience which only a fool would undervalue. To be an excellent monarch it is not absolutely necessary to be an ingenious statesman. The art of government can be learned, as can any other, by any one with but mediocre endowments. There is, however, this distinction, that, with the undeniably business-like turn which this art to-day has taken, experience is an unsurpassable teacher. No wonder, therefore, that even self-conscious ministers do not hesitate to acknowledge the infinite superiority of this monarch, who represents so important an epoch in history as regards his broad-featured power of perception and his acuteness of grasp in difficult situations. Equipped with a marvelous memory, always accustomed to be ruler not only in word but in action, familiar with the smallest, most obscure details of the governmental machinery whose secrets are being carefully guarded in the state archives, Francis Joseph must, beyond a doubt, be characterized as one of the best and most reliable connoisseurs of the intricate conditions of his empire.

His absolutely impersonal sense of justice, the honest good will which he so uniformly bestows upon his subjects, however, are of even greater importance than this experience. Possibly it is the emperor alone who, throughout the entire years of his rule, has inwardly clung to the idea of a just distribution of power to all the component nations thereto entitled. If, out of the present crises, the idea of a settlement, which even to-day cannot be considered improbable, between nation and nation and not between politician and politician should prove itself a successful expedient, it may positively be stated that, with it, Francis Joseph's fundamental idea of government will celebrate its greatest triumph. For, judging from his entire character, he is mediator for the empire, an honest arbitrator in the highest sense of the word.

THE PROBLEM OF THE SUCCESSION.

In addition to these political motives, personal ones come into consideration in the question of a possible resignation, which, to be sure, are political in a further sense. By the death of the crown prince, Rudolph, a most difficult situation has arisen. The difficulties of this situation have considerably increased since the presumptive heir to the empire, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, made the morganatic love marriage with the Princess Hohenberg, formerly Countess Chotek. Much as we may honor the man for this marriage, he thereby increased the difficulties of the critical situation arising from his successorship to the throne. The empire of Austria will

on his accession receive an emperor, but no empress. This emperor will have a wife whom he dearly loves, but whose equivocal position will give rise to no end of painful considerations, memories, and feelings. Moreover, the Princess Hohenberg is a woman whose ambition, regardless of imperial renunciations and imperial regulations, is centered on this one thing,—a crown to which she can never attain; a woman of energetic cleverness, with strong political inclinations, and entirely of that type of whose art in intrigue Bismarck so often bitterly complained. Many claim that it was solely by her political cleverness that she captured her husband, for the countess has but few physical attractions.

The Archduke and heir-apparent then overcame the difficult obstacles and gained the sanction of his imperial uncle for this marriage, to which the so-called higher public reason was so strongly opposed. This opposition would perhaps have been crowned with success if Countess Chotek had not been considered such a faithful daughter of the Church. In order to insure her assistance for the future, the Church exerted its all-powerful influence in her behalf.

The Princess Hohenberg, however, is not only decidedly Clerical, but also a fervently patriotic Czech in her sentiments. By birth and blood relationship closely connected with several of the most powerful families of the Bohemian nobility, she naturally looks to these not only for support, but also as valuable aids in furthering her ambition. In this connection it should not be forgotten that the Emperor of Austria is, at the same time, King of Bohemia, although Francis Joseph, to the disappointment of the Czechs, has always declined to be crowned as such in Prague. Francis Ferdinand will perhaps not have such strong constitutional feelings. Perhaps he will not seriously consider the joint interests of the empire's politics when (which will undoubtedly be the case) his wife will persuade him that no imperial house-laws and no renunciations can prevent her being crowned with him Queen of Bohemia. That would be one crown. Even the other, far more resplendent,—that of the sacred Saint Stephan of Hungary,—the shrewd princess may one day succeed in placing on her head. The Magyar parties which have made entire separation from Austria their principal idea have all along contended that, neither the laws of the house of Hapsburg nor the Archduke's solemn renunciation of all claims to the crown by the children of his marriage with the Countess Chotek can prevent Hungary from acknowledging her as their lawful queen, and crowning her as such.

ARCHDUKE FERDINAND, HEIR TO THE THRONE.

No one can deny that the Archduke Francis Ferdinand has an absolutely honest nature, even an impetuous candor which people standing so near the throne are hardly privileged to show. He completely ignores, as he has frequently proved, court traditions, and gives entirely un-concealed expression to his sympathies, and even more to his antipathies. Therein lies great danger for a monarch who, in the fullest sense of the word, must act in as strictly a constitutional manner as must the Emperor of Austria-Hungary. This is, moreover, further peril for so impulsive and self-conscious a nature as is that of Francis Ferdinand. There was a time when, for two reasons, his accession to the throne was not seriously considered. It was supposed that, from personal motives, as well as in the interest of his country, he would desire to avoid the difficulties for himself as well as for the empire which must inevitably arise from his marriage. Moreover, he has become heir to the enormous fortunes of the house of Modena-Este, which inheritance would pass over to his brother, Otto, upon Francis' ascension to the throne. For a long time it was considered possible that he would renounce his rights to the throne in favor of the oldest son of this brother, the young Archduke Carl. It was held that Francis Ferdinand, who has never been credited either with great talents or with particular ambition, did not covet the thorny power which the throne of Austria-Hungary offers to day.

But this notion proved to be a mistake, with very serious consequences. The Archduke tried by all methods, good and bad, to remove these doubts, and undertook with conspicuous stubbornness to destroy the myths regarding his personal passivity in this question. He developed great activity, and this, too, in a good and bad sense. He endeavored, with admirable ardor, to make up all that had been neglected in his education in preparation for the highest dignity. In his riper years he became an industrious, serious student, who, in a comparatively short time, had perfectly mastered different foreign languages, all laws and political sciences, and those higher diplomatic questions which are indispensable to a modern monarch. Persons who have come near to him as instructors have repeatedly spoken to me of his intelligence, his power of perception, but also of his stubbornness of personal opinion, his ambition, his strong, quick temperament. He will most certainly be an unrelenting hater, and a man who will be most careful not to relinquish one particle of his lawful rights. The same opinion I have heard from

experienced generals, who relate with astonishment that, as a soldier, Francis Ferdinand stands much above the average, but that even in that capacity his impetuosity causes him to be absolutely unrestrainable. In a word, the development of this generally underrated man into a strong personality is to-day universally acknowl-



ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND, HEIR-APPARENT TO THE THRONE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

edged. But think of the problems which will confront him when he ascends the throne!

It is not only useless but senseless to attempt to deny or even mitigate the seriousness of the conditions at present existing in the dual monarchy. A combination of crises of all kinds has arisen, sparing not even the foundation of the empire's existence. These crises seem to be constantly and intensely combining into one single, unsurmountable one. It is difficult in the limited space at my disposal to explain these crises in all their complexity. In Austria the principal question is one of nationality, particularly the relations between the Germans and the Czechs in Bohemia, which has brought about a complete standstill of the parliamentary government. Par-

liament has been repeatedly dissolved. During the interim, administration has been based principally upon the emergency clause embodied in paragraph 14 of the fundamental law of the empire, which stipulates that when Parliament is not in session, and the needs of the state demand it, urgent laws may be provisionally passed by the government with a view to their ultimate ratification by the Diet. Most of the statesmen whom Austria has at present in her service have exhausted their resources in these attempts to bring about ultimate ratification by the Parliament. By means of the so-called "obstruction" tactics, which enable even a small minority to prevent the majority from carrying through its motions, the Germans and the Czechs have alternately suspended the actions of the Parliament. In this way they actually permitted absolute rule, which was compelled to make the most important decisions without any consideration for the rights to which the people are entitled. It is an extraordinary proof of the genuine ability of the Austrian officials that, during this time of extra-parliamentary government, a series of equally important as well as progressive laws could be passed. It should also be emphasized that, in spite of the serious political crises in the empire, economic and industrial progress of all kinds has been brought about. It is, however, impossible for an empire to be ruled for any considerable length of time by an emergency government. The *Ausgleich* with Hungary, as well as the negotiation of the new commercial treaties, absolutely demand parliamentary action.

HUNGARY DOES NOT DEMAND SEPARATION.

The situation in the dual monarchy has been aggravated to a very considerable degree by the recent elections in Hungary, which, to the general surprise, resulted in so overwhelming a victory for the Opposition. The Liberal party, which has been in power for many years, suddenly finds itself overwhelmed and defeated. This is the first time in Hungary that, through election results, a cabinet has been compelled to retire, as was the case with the Tisza ministry. Now, however, it is a question of a complete change of system. The victorious party is the independent one, which is devoting all its energy to the execution of its programme of a commercial and partially political separation from Austria. I wish to emphasize the fact that this is not a question of a formal separation of the empire. While discussing this question I will quote from a very competent expert, Count Albert Apponyi, one of the most successful leaders of the Opposition. During his stay here in the United States, in the fall of the past year, in an address

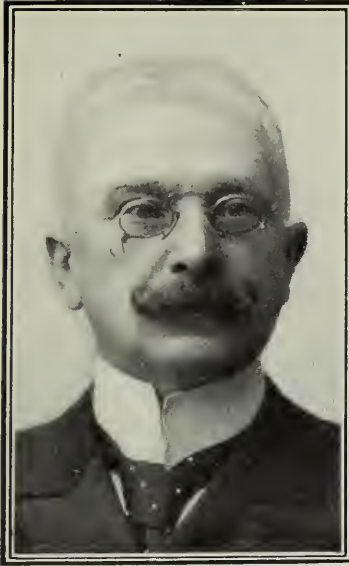
delivered at the Art and Science Congress, held at St. Louis, on the juridical nature of the relations between Austria and Hungary, the former president of the Hungarian Parliament declared :

I should not like to be misunderstood. My strong insistence, my whole country's strong insistence, on her national independence does not in the least imply a will—or a wish—to break away from Austria. We mean to keep faith with the reigning dynasty. No nation in its dominions is more absolutely certain in that respect. We mean loyally to fulfill our compact of mutual defense with Austria. In a word, what our forefathers agreed to as being obligations freely accepted by Hungary we mean to adhere to, as honest men should. All we want is that equal faith should be kept with us, that those equally binding enactments of the "Pragmatic Sanction," which make Hungary secure of her independence as a sovereign nation, as a kingdom.—*nulli alio regno vel populo subditum*, as the law of 1791 puts it.—should be fulfilled with equal loyalty.

Francis Kossuth, the leader of the Independence party, has also assured the world, not only of his loyalty to the imperial house, but also of his great faith in its ruling abilities. It was an event of far-reaching historical importance when the son of the man who had declared all rights of the Hapsburg house annulled was received by the same Emperor, Francis Joseph, against whom all this enmity had been directed. It is characteristic of the sense of duty of this monarch that he did not hesitate for one moment to receive the son of his most dangerous enemy when, through what was, doubtless, a demonstration of confidence on the part of the Hungarian people, he came as the bearer of their wishes.

The famous *Ausgleich*, or, in English, "compromise," between the two powers, Austria and Hungary, can be primarily considered a creation of the Hungarian statesman, Deak. After a long and painful study of all existing old Hungarian laws, and with the strictest adherence to all the privileges conferred on this nation by its former rulers, he succeeded in making a treaty which to this day forms the basis of the relations between Austria and Hungary. This compromise is embodied in the law of the year 1867. This law primarily repeats the most important principles of the historic "Pragmatic Sanction," through which the question of hereditary rights is settled. Since the year 1686, hereditary right to the Hungarian crown has been conferred on its male lineage. Charles VI., who had but one daughter, afterward Empress Maria Theresa, succeeded, in 1723, in enforcing the acceptance of that law in Austria and Hungary which, under the name of "Pragmatic Sanction," insures the hereditary right also to the female descendants.

Furthermore, by the Compromise of 1867 the right is granted to the people of Austria and



Baron Gauth von Frankenthurn (Austrian). The recently chosen Austro-Hungarian premier.



Count A. M. A. Goluchowski (Pole). Privy-councilor and minister of foreign affairs for Austria and Hungary.



Count Albert Apponyi (Hungarian). Former president of the Hungarian Lower House.

THREE EMINENT AUSTRIAN STATESMEN OF DIFFERENT NATIONALITIES.

Hungary to have control over their own respective governmental functions. It secures the organization of those branches of administration which control the common affairs of both countries. Legislation in foreign and military affairs, such as assenting to international treaties, framing laws on the conditions of military service, on recruiting, etc., is expressly reserved to the independent action of both legislatures, which are, however, expected to agree on these matters. To provide for these common affairs, three common departments of ministry exist,—foreign affairs, finance, and war. The expenses of these departments are jointly to be borne by both countries, and both countries are to have equal control over them. Their financial relations were settled as follows: common expenses are to be met from the income through customs, 70 per cent. of the balance to be borne by Austria and 30 per cent. by Hungary. During the last few years, owing to new, careful calculations, this proportion has been changed by 3 per cent. in Austria's favor. The compromise, as a whole, was to be agreed upon for ten years at a time, but through negotiations thereby necessitated between the two countries, the possibility of changes was expressly provided for. Finally, a common treaty of customs and commerce has been concluded. The question of title was settled. The monarch was henceforth to be called Emperor of Austria, King of Hun-

gary, and the monarchy the Austro-Hungarian Empire. In the very roughest outline these are the contents of that compromise, the continuance of which is now endangered by the last victory of the Independent party in Hungary. Since the year 1868 the compromise has undergone repeated and extensive changes, even in regard to military questions, which are particularly near to the heart of the Emperor, who is an enthusiastic and experienced soldier.

Though the Emperor seems decidedly opposed, even at this date, to those demands of the Hungarian radical party which pertain to the replacing of the German language (up to the present time the sole official one for the entire army) by the Hungarian for those regiments stationed in Hungary, the radicals also demand that the Hungarian flag shall take the place of the imperial one, the Hungarian hymn that of the imperial. The great struggle, whether it should be "imperial-royal" or "imperial *and* royal," is ended. The Hungarians have won the "and," have been given their own court dignitaries, and the Emperor of Austria resides in Budapest for a considerable length of time each year as King of Hungary. All these were concessions which could readily be made without ceding one particle of the idea of a joint empire. They did not stop here. The movement for a complete separation was again and again brought into the army, which, for political and practical reasons,

should remain completely uninfluenced by these questions. Every intelligent Hungarian,—above all, every one who has been a soldier,—must realize that the demand for different languages of command in a joint army is not only theoretically impossible, but, if practically adopted, would doubtless lead to catastrophes. It may be stated that in the Austro-Hungarian army, reorganized according to the newest and best principles, this language question is the only weak point which might influence the position of the nation as one of the world-powers.

THE MONARCHY WILL NOT BREAK UP.

Commercial separation cannot be concluded before the year 1907, for until then by covenant the existing relations must remain. It is sought to procure a prolongation of this term until 1912, particularly in view of the recent new treaties of commerce made with Germany. What course may then be adopted hardly permits of a discussion at the present writing. In this connection it might be well, particularly in foreign countries, to impartially judge these events. At present Hungary sends about 73 per cent. of its total products to Austria, whereas Austria sends but 57 per cent. to Hungary. Without a doubt Hungary risks and loses more in case of a commercial separation than Austria, especially in view of the fact that it is essentially an agricultural state, and its industries, which, to a certain extent, have been artificially created through governmental concessions and support, might barely be able to meet the needs of the country. Influential men, who are thoroughly versed in economic affairs, claim that it would have been greatly to the interest of Austria had the first steps for a commercial separation been taken long ago. However, if we examine the situation, we readily come to the conclusion that even a partial abandonment of the Compromise of 1867 is far from being as great a catastrophe as is claimed by those who are least in touch with the real situation. The two portions of this empire are so dependent upon each other that a complete annulment of the existing community on duty interests could but be replaced by new arrangements probably differing very little from the present ones.

To deduce from these conditions, as is frequently done, a necessary dissolution of the monarchy of Ilapsburg would be to ignore the very necessity for its existence. The idea of a dissolution, repeatedly expressed in foreign newspapers, may be dismissed as being utterly untenable. The German provinces of the Alpine country, as well as German Bohemia, are usually assigned to the German Empire. Any one

even partially familiar with inner political conditions in Germany must realize that the men at the helm of that empire will be extremely reluctant to admit so many millions of Catholics, and thereby deprive the dominant Protestant party of its overwhelming influence. Equally unfounded are the theories that the Slavic races of Austria will be linked to those of Russia, or that there will be a new kingdom Poland, of which Galicia will be the principal constituent. The most radical Hungarian can hardly cherish the ambition for a completely in-



FRANCIS KOSSUTH.

(Leader of the Independent party in the Hungarian Diet.)

dependent kingdom of Hungary. At best this could be but a power of second, or even third, rank. Furthermore, such a kingdom would at once be confronted by all the difficulties which would be presented by the Roumanians, Croats, Servians, and Slavs of Hungary hitherto successfully suppressed by the Magyars.

In the limited space at my command it is impossible to enter into a discussion of the political rank taken by the Austro-Hungarian Empire among the world powers as viewed in the light of the Triple Alliance and the last treaties with Russia. I can but call attention to the famous dictum that, in the interests of universal peace, this monarchy would have to be created were it not already in existence.

PRESIDENT ALDERMAN, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM P. TRENT.

THE approaching inauguration on April 13, Jefferson's birthday, of the first president of Jefferson's university is an event that must interest all admirers of our greatest political and, one might almost add, educational idealist, much more all who have any knowledge of the past and present of that University of Virginia, the founding of which was the chief employment of Jefferson's later years. The event possesses much significance also to those who have watched with sympathetic admiration the career of Dr. Edwin Anderson Alderman, to whose direction the fortunes of the university have been committed, as well as to the increasing number of men and women who are devoting their labor and their wealth to fostering the educational resources and activities of the New South. Finally, the student of the history of American educational methods will doubtless see in Dr. Alderman's inauguration a fresh proof of the fact that the modern college president.—an incarnation of executive ability, devoted to the service of education, practically unknown in any other country,—has become an integral factor of our educational system. Even the University of Virginia, so long, under its chairmen of the faculty, faithful to its founder's prejudices against the concentration of executive power in the hands of an individual, has been forced by pressure from within and from without to align itself with its sister universities in this essential feature of educational government; and in this fact many will see another step in the slow but certain nationalizing of the South, as well as an indication that in the future the University of Virginia will be widely known as a national institution of high standing.

It is needless to say that in a short article like the present none of these reasons for regarding Dr. Alderman's inauguration as an event of much significance can be dwelt upon at any length. It would be interesting to discuss Jefferson's educational ideals, to say something about the unique history, the wide influence in the South, and the promising present status of the University of Virginia, to enlarge upon the truly magnificent prospects for educational progress in the South that are unfolding before the eyes of patriotic Americans. It must suffice to say that, were Jefferson living to-day, he would probably acquiesce more heartily in the experiment

of intrusting the University of Virginia to the care of a competent president than he did in 1826, when William Wirt was elected to the office which that eloquent lawyer declined to fill. It would be unfair not to add that, whatever may have been the attitude of the faculty of the university in the remote and in the more recent past with regard to the proposal to place a president at their head, it seems clear that two or three years before the election of President Alderman the faculty put themselves on record as advocating the creation of the new office, and that they welcomed heartily to the post the man whom the board of visitors some months ago elected to fill it. A slight sketch of Dr. Alderman's career should suffice to explain why, having brought themselves to view with unanimity the new office, the faculty should have greeted cordially and hopefully the new officer.

CHAMPION OF THE SOUTHERN FREE SCHOOL.

Edwin Anderson Alderman was born in Wilmington, N. C., on May 15, 1861. He got his main training for college at a Virginia school, which means that he came somewhat under the influence of the institution over which he now presides; but he took his college course at the University of North Carolina, at Chapel Hill, where he graduated as a bachelor of philosophy in 1882. He at once began teaching, and in two years he was made superintendent of the schools of the town of Goldsboro. This position gave him practical proof of a fact which had doubtless become clear to him through his study of the history of education and his observation of his own people,—to wit, that North Carolina and the South were to be lifted from the slough in which the period of Reconstruction had left them to material and spiritual prosperity mainly through the agency of a truly popular education. It was his fight for the extension of a system of good free schools supported by local taxation that made Dr. Alderman, just as truly as his devotion, intelligence, and oratorical ability made the fight as much of a success as it could have been under the circumstances. With his friend, Dr. Charles Duncan McIver, he spoke in hamlet and town and city throughout the State, conducted teachers' institutes in nearly every county, wrote and lectured on educational topics, pressed

his ideas home in personal talks with farmers and tradesmen, lawyers and legislators,—in short, conducted a true crusade, none the less romantic because it may never be celebrated in fiction or in song, a crusade that has been oftener attempted with fair success in the South than outside friends of that non-self-advertising section are perhaps aware of. This local work was the best possible basis for Dr. Alderman's career, because it not only brought him in contact with all the elements of his native State, but also caused him to gain the sympathy and support of the leaders of the new education both in the rest of the South and in the nation at large. In the years that have followed he has never let go his hold upon the confidence of the South or his grasp of Southern conditions; yet at the same time he has never allowed his absorption in State and sectional problems of education to limit his interest in other matters of concern to the citizen or in the affairs of America as a whole. He will make all the more successful Virginian because in his formative years he was so loyal a North Carolinian, so broad-minded a Southerner, so true an American.

AS UNIVERSITY PROFESSOR AND PRESIDENT.

While Dr. Alderman was thus laboring as an educational pioneer and thus developing as a man and as a citizen, he was also, as was natural, being advanced from position to position of increasing importance. In 1886, he was chosen to be president of the North Carolina Teachers' Assembly; from 1889 to 1892 he served as assistant superintendent of public education for the State. In the latter year he became professor of history in the State Normal and Industrial College at Greensboro, and shortly afterward he was transferred to his *alma mater*, the University of North Carolina, as professor of the history and philosophy of education. His holding these two chairs for a period of four years when he was just turned thirty must have been an important factor in Dr. Alderman's development. It gave him an opportunity to formulate the views of life gained during the years when he was going up and down the State in his educational crusade; it broadened and deepened his culture by concentrating his mind upon two great and interrelated fields of inquiry, by allowing him to indulge his taste for reading, by bringing him in intimate contact with a picked body of students and teachers. How well he improved these opportunities is shown by the fact that in 1896 he was unanimously chosen president of the University of North Carolina.

Another period of four years followed, during which Dr. Alderman's reputation as an orator

and an educational leader increased both at home and abroad. It was a period of great confusion in State politics, yet he managed to alienate not a single faction from the university,—surely a signal proof of his tact. The institution grew in numbers, in influence, and in material resources, and faculty and students, according to competent testimony, became more and more conscious of a common unity of purpose. It was not surprising, therefore, that in the spring of 1900, after the death of Col. William Preston Johnston, the trustees of Tulane University, at New Orleans, should have called Dr. Alderman to the vacant presidency of their well-endowed institution.

AN ORATOR OF NATIONAL REPUTE.

He accepted the call, and entered upon another four years' period of usefulness. What secret relation exists between his career and that mystic number may be left to the consideration, or rather to the contemplation, of those versed in occult matters; it is more to our purpose to emphasize the fact that, as at the University of North Carolina, Dr. Alderman's four years of presidency meant progress and unification for the institution under his care. He is reported to have liberalized the programme of studies, to have quickened the corporate life of the students, and to have done much to awaken the interest of the citizens of New Orleans to the importance of the university, not merely as a group of handsome buildings occupied by an earnest body of scholars and students, but as a true center for the intellectual life of the entire city. While thus active in his local duties, President Alderman was no less alive than he had always been to his responsibilities as a representative of the South in the educational life of the nation. He spoke frequently in the North, gaining special applause for his speeches at the installation banquet to President Butler and at the ceremonies attendant on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of Johns Hopkins University. He also entered heartily into the work of the Southern Education Board, becoming director of its efforts in the Southwest and winning the warm respect and affection of his colleagues in that important enterprise. Thus, when, in 1904, he accepted the call to be the first president of the most widely influential university in the South, he entered upon his task as a speaker of national reputation, a trained college executive, and a mold of educational opinion. His standing as a representative Southerner has been recognized by President Roosevelt, who has consulted him in matters of importance,—one among many signs that the



Photographed especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Davis & Sanford, New York.

PRESIDENT EDWIN A. ALDERMAN.

unfortunate chasm that so long separated American politics and American scholarship is being bridged over.

This brief sketch, based upon printed and oral appreciations of President Alderman's character and work which seem thoroughly genuine in their spontaneity, may perhaps suffice to indicate the line of reasoning followed by those who prophesy for him a brilliant career as the executive head of the University of Virginia. Those who have met President Alderman in private life, those who have read his utterances on educational matters,—for, although not a professional author, he knows how to wield his pen,—and, above all, those who have been charmed by the good sense, hearty humor, and sympathetic qualities that mark his eloquence, have grounds

for their belief in his future that transcend formal reasons, and are perhaps more convincing because more contagious. At the approaching inauguration ceremonies these friends and admirers of the new president will join with chosen alumni of the University of Virginia to express their confidence in the man, in the institution, and in the future of education in the South and in the nation. President Alderman has the opportunity of extending the limits of the university's work while preserving that tradition of faithful, single-hearted labor in the pursuit of knowledge which has been the crowning glory of the institution founded by the most alert-minded of all our Presidents. It is a great opportunity, which, if seized, will give us a national university of modern type in the South.



THE CAMPUS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, CHARLOTTESVILLE, LOOKING SOUTHWARD FROM THE ROTUNDA.

THOMAS JEFFERSON'S UNIVERSITY.

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES W. KENT.

(Of the University of Virginia.)

THE recital of this story of the University of Virginia, by happy accident, is begun on March 7, on the eightieth anniversary of its continuous existence. The span is more than the threescore-and-ten of promised human life, but not longer than that allotted many a living man, who overlaps the entire history of this institution. For an institution, then, it is still young,—in that period of lusty youth just entering upon its maturer development. Yet the story of this brief existence, however marred in the telling, is not in itself uneventful or uninteresting.

JEFFERSON'S EARLY PLANS.

Preceding the day of its formal opening, March 7, 1825, there was a period of more than forty years during which the project for higher education was in the heart of the university's great founder, Thomas Jefferson. The tenacity with which he held to his guiding idea, and the pertinacity with which, in the face of opposition and against hope, he fought to realize his ideal, constitute the human element of suffering and self-sacrifice that hallow the foundations of this university. Of his long life the last forty years, crowded in part with public duties and craving in part well-earned repose, never dimmed his vision of that ideal. This persistency alone should endear the University of Virginia to all who respect philosophic foresight, tireless endeavor, and achieved purpose.

Certainly, as early as 1779, Jefferson had in mind the transformation of his own *alma mater*, William and Mary College, into a university, and later, in his developed scheme, he still uttered the hope, reiterated recently by President Roosevelt, and cherished by many loyal citizens, that somehow the nursery of statesmen, William and Mary, and the child of his old age might be bound together in some organic union. Not until 1800 is there any mention of an up-country university, but after that date he never reverts to his plan of reorganizing William and Mary. In 1803, Dupont de Nemours writes, at his request, a plan for a Virginia university. This, with other schemes studied in foreign countries or prepared at his instance by well-known publicists, became the source from which afterward, with generous election, Jefferson chose these things best suited, as he said, "for us and now."

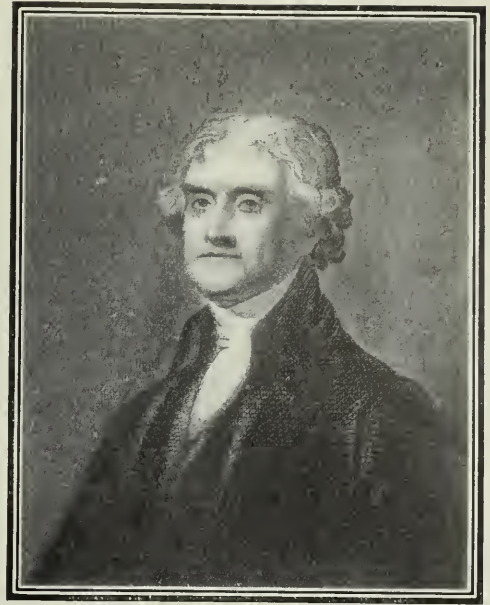
GENESIS OF THE UNIVERSITY.

In Charlottesville, the county seat of Albemarle, and a village almost at the foot of the "little mountain" on which, about 1772, he had built his beautiful colonial house, the trustees of Albemarle Academy were duly appointed and incorporated. This was in the very year (1803) in which Jefferson was thinking of his university. Time passed, and the project for an academy seemed about to fail, when, in 1814, a new board of trustees, with Jefferson as the

quickenng force, was appointed. This academy at once gave way to a more pretentious foundation, to be known as Central College.

By another interesting coincidence, in the very year (1816) that Central College was established by an act of the Virginia Assembly, the temper of these legislators was tried with reference to the establishment of the university. This bill, in which the name University of Virginia first occurs, was defeated, but by so narrow a margin that one of its opponents moved that the bill be printed for the information of the people. The site of Central College was chosen, and the erection of one pavilion with flanking dormitories ordered begun. But this did not satisfy the friends of education, and the battle raged again in the legislative halls. Joseph Cabell, with unerring tact and chivalrous patience, led the contest, which his great friend and chieftain planned in long and adroit letters. The outcome of this protracted debate was the appointment of a commission to make a report as to the proposed university and its site. This commission assembled in a small hostelry in Rockfish Gap of the Blue Ridge Mountains.

There were twenty-one commissioners present on that opening August day in 1818,—among them Jefferson and Madison and many others bearing distinguished names. The first impor-



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

(Founder of the University of Virginia.)

tant business was the choice of a site. The original bill had named some place west of the Blue Ridge. Jefferson wanted it on the east side of



MONTICELLO, JEFFERSON'S HOME, NEAR CHARLOTTESVILLE.

that range. With arguments more ingenious than convincing, he established its healthfulness by producing an imposing list of octogenarians then resident near his home, and proved its centrality by diagrams and cardboard devices. Against its competitors, Staunton and Lexington, the site of Central College readily won.

The report of this commission was made the occasion of another legislative battle, but the University of Virginia was duly chartered, with the site of Central College named as its location, on January 25, 1819. This, then, is the natal day of the university, but Jefferson's hope to see it opened in May was delusively optimistic. Six years were yet to pass before its doors were thrown open.

AN ARCHITECTURAL TRIUMPH.

In the meantime, the plans of Jefferson for its grounds and buildings were under execution.



THE BUILDINGS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, AS ERECTED IN ACCORDANCE WITH JEFFERSON'S PLANS.

(From an old print.)

In his own home, pronounced by a competent judge to be the best extant specimen of American colonial architecture, he had shown his artistic taste, but the people of his day were hardly prepared to value rightly the educational influence of classic models or appreciate the expenditure of funds upon what seemed to them so lavish a scale. Madison, in a letter to Jefferson, said, "One of the most popular objections to the institution, I find, is the expense added by what is called the ornamental style of architecture." No amount of censure could have prevented this careful attention to every architectural detail; for these plans, drawn largely by himself, were almost as dear to Jefferson as his idea of a university. How favorably these buildings impressed an intelligent visitor well acquainted with university buildings in this country and

Europe may be gathered from one of Ticknor's letters, written in 1824. In this letter, after telling of the situation of the University of Virginia, "in the midst of 250 acres of land, high, healthy, and with noble prospects all around it," he adds, "It has cost \$250,000, and the thorough finish of every part of it and the beautiful architecture of the whole show, I think, that it has not cost too much. They have a mass of buildings more beautiful than anything architectural in New England, and more appropriate to an university than can be found, perhaps, in the world."

Since that commendation was given wealth has flowed into the coffers of many universities, enabling them to erect splendid buildings and provide ample grounds. The growth here has not been so rapid, but all the improvements save two have been in keeping with Jefferson's original buildings, so that in unity of architectural impression it still attracts generous praise. Not long ago an architect, to whom has been intrusted much university work, pronounced it the most harmonious educational group in our country.

AN IMPORTED FACULTY.

If the opposition to the buildings because of their cost and character was largely confined to the State, the sending of a commissioner abroad to select a faculty gave rise to bitter national censure. The *Boston Courier*, with the *Connecticut Journal*, read "with indignation" that the professors had been engaged in England, and adds that "Mr. Gilmer [the commissioner] could have fully discharged his mission with half the trouble and expense by a short trip to New England." "This sending of a commissioner to Europe to engage professors for a new university," said the *Philadelphia Gazette*, is, we think, one of the greatest insults the American people have received." Other papers acquainted with the efforts previously made to procure Cooper, Bowditch, and Ticknor, or more hospitable to imported *savants*, spoke with cordial commendation of this departure.

After many delays and dangers the English professors were on the ground, and without ostentatious announcement or spectacular ceremonies, the university was opened on March 7, 1825.

The original faculty was composed of Long, Key, Blaetterman, Bonnycastle, and Dunglison, imported from England, with Emmett and Tucker representing American scholarship. In the next year Lomax was elected professor of law.

THE HONOR SYSTEM.

But the course of the new university did not run smooth. The independence of the schools, the purely elective system, the severe written tests of thoroughness, and the democratic form of government were primal signs manual cut into its very being, but that high spirit of manly self-control now prevalent did not manifest itself in these early years. It was true then and now that students are assumed to be incapable of falsehood, and a student's word is considered equivalent to his oath. In spite of this frank recognition of manliness, and the desire of the professors to accord every student this treatment, the new-found scholastic liberty was misapprehended. The American opposition to the English professors began to betray itself in petty misdemeanors which, accumulating and growing, came to open rebellion during the first year of the university. This gave occasion for a splendid spectacle, when the members of the board of visitors called the students together, and with words of strong reproof made stronger appeals for more manly conduct. The love of truth was in evidence when one after the other of those guilty made his confession. This appeal for self-government was only temporarily effective then, but it gave the key to which in later years the life of the whole institution was attuned.

A stricter government was attempted, but arbitrary and artificial provisions, notably one requiring the constant use of a uniform, were resented. This resentment, aggravated by unwisdom in dealing with slight infractions of the



THE ROTUNDA, AS REBUILT AFTER THE FIRE OF 1895.

law, so increased the tension that on November 12, 1835, there took place a military rebellion of a somewhat serious nature. Students of like spirit celebrated the anniversary of this event for the next ten years. Gradually, nevertheless, the forces of manliness and truth were waxing so strong that in 1842, when Mr. Tucker proposed the honor system of conducting examinations, it at once met with cordial indorsement and received the potent support of public sentiment.

This honor system, rooted in the principle of self-government, ingrafted upon the university from the beginning, is now generally interpreted elsewhere to mean some sort of convention among students by which all who cheat on examinations are to be expelled by the students themselves. The attempt is made to create artificially this state of affairs by some faculty action or class resolution. The honor system here is not an enactment of a legislative body, nor a principle applicable to a single episode in a student's life—the examination. It is a spirit permeating the whole student body and giving fineness of fiber and vigor of tone to academic life. It mightily reinforces the one practical rule of discipline the university knows,—namely, that every student must conduct himself as a gentleman. It is true that this system is inexorable with any form of subterfuge, fraud, or falsity on examinations, and no mercy is shown by his fellows to the student who violates his word of honor, but the writer has known the same principle applied in other matters. The most recent manifestation of this spirit is most interesting and promising. A student who had been insulting in his demeanor to his landlady was, after a careful examination made into all



LOOKING DOWN THE COLONNADE.



THE ACADEMIC BUILDING.

the circumstances, requested by his fellow students to leave the precincts of the university on the next train. This request had all the power of a categorical command from which no appeal would be taken. The university has no richer asset than the spirit of manly honor in its student life.

A UNIVERSITY WITHOUT A HEAD.

Mention was made above of the democratic form of government. Each school, as of Ancient Languages, Mathematics, etc., was a separate state, and the heads of these schools in faculty assembled formed the sole federation. This body, the faculty, elected its presiding officer for a term of one year, and during that time he was the executive head of the institution, but with no powers save those prescribed by the board of visitors or delegated to him by his colleagues. Before Jefferson's death, his fellow members of the board, at a meeting which for some reason he did not attend, elected William Wirt professor of law and president of the university, but Jefferson dissented to the latter part of this action, putting in writing the reasons for his formal protest. Wirt's declination of the professorship settled the question of presidency, and the government by a chairman of the faculty, first appointed by his colleagues and later elected by the board of visitors and continued in office through consecutive years, remained in vogue until last year.

Under this form of government, unique in this country, but distinctly reflecting its democratic spirit, the university made steady progress in equipment and attendance, with no diminution of self-devotion on the part of professors, and no relaxation of standards for the students. Her alumni were coming into important posi-

tions and filling them with such credit and distinction as to reflect honor upon the institution, of which the ultimate test is *the men she makes*. The influence of these men in all walks of life became a potent factor in Southern civilization, and the culture here obtained added to the social charm of that old *régime*.

THE UNIVERSITY IN THE CIVIL WAR.

The session of 1861 found about six hundred students in attendance, and for the first time since the military feature was given up years before we hear of military training. But this time, alas! it is not military training as a physical exercise or discipline, but as serious preparation for impending disaster. Two companies, the Southern Guard and the Sons of Liberty, were formed, and, under efficient drill-masters, fast rounded into soldierly form. But the government they wished to serve would not receive them as organizations. Forced thus to disband, they scattered to various commands in various States, rising to positions of influence wherever they served. Thus they proved that university training fits for the offices of war, as their brothers had established this for the offices of peace. Of the alumni, four hundred and sixty-three fell victims in this dire and deplorable struggle.

In spite, however, of the drain upon the student body in 1861, the session continued, and more noteworthy still is it that no session was lost in that war period. Those in whose hands lay the decision decreed that she should discharge her peaceful and pacific office. Within earshot of numerous bloody battlefields a small band of faithful professors, resisting the temptation to active service at the front, remained quietly at their posts to instruct the less than threescore students that came each session.

The university seemed to be aside from the path of great army movements, so that it was not until 1864 that any body of United States troops was in the neighborhood. In that year General Sheridan camped near it for several days, but "finding it in active operation, doing its peaceful work in its old way, the general promptly placed a sufficient guard over it, under command of a gallant Michigan soldier, and not a particle of injury was done to it or its property."

STUDENTS FROM MANY STATES.

During the period from 1866 to 1875 the university's fortunes were variable, and always sufficiently precarious to give her friends cause for anxiety, but she remained unswervingly faithful to her own high standards, with no thought of compromise for popularity, and grew steadily in reputation for the honesty and thoroughness of her work. As her distinguished alumnus, Dr. John A. Broadus, once put it, the very genius of the place was "Fear God, and work." With the celebration of her semi-centennial in 1875 there was a revival of interest in her welfare, but the changing conditions of the South, with the opening of other universities, made competition sharper in a territory once largely her own and led to some decline in her numbers. Her merits, however, were commanding attention and increasing respect, so that her temporary loss in the Southern States was almost made good by the gain she was making in other quarters, where her alumni had become known. On her rolls were and are names from almost every State and from many foreign countries, while she has the unique distinction of being the only State institution with nearly half of its enrollment from other States.

THE BURNING OF THE ROTUNDA.

Hope was rapidly rising with growing success when a seeming disaster befell her. It was on a bright Sunday morning in October (27, 1895) that fire was discovered in the upper end of a long building annexed to the rotunda. By noon

this annex was in ruins and the rotunda gutted, while the adjacent wings were badly damaged by dynamite. Never did the unquenchable spirit of the university assert itself more gallantly than in this crisis. On that Sunday afternoon, in an old-fashioned community where Sunday is carefully observed, the faculty met, arranged a provisional schedule, and reapportioned the remaining lecture-rooms. On Monday every class was met as usual, and duties were performed without pause or repining. Out of this seeming disaster there came so much good, that, with the single exception of irreparable library losses, it would be difficult to find any respect in which the university did not profit by this fire. Within the next three years about \$450,000 was expended in restoration, in equipment, and in adding the new buildings that now complete the quadrangle.

It is not strange that this destructive fire, with the necessity it entailed of much outside work and enlarged executive duties, should have led again to the proposal to elect a president, but the faculty and alumni, wedded to the old and tried form of government, were not yet ready for the change, and so the projected action of the board was relinquished. In 1898, the new buildings were opened with appropriate ceremonies, including a thoughtful and encouraging address by the Hon. James C. Carter, so lately passed to his reward.

ELECTION OF THE FIRST PRESIDENT.

In this restoration period of the university the progress was in many ways satisfactory, but the public as well as the authorities had become

accustomed to the discussion as to the wisdom of changing the old form of government to one in keeping with the demands of a more highly organized and active life. Finally, the visitors determined upon this course, and bent its energies to its difficult and delicate task. How well they solved their problem in the election of Dr. Edwin Anderson Alderman is known to all. Of this first president, who in September last entered so earnestly upon his duties, and who will be formally installed on April 13, 1905, more will be found elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

For the first time in the history of the University of



THE FAYERWEATHER GYMNASIUM.

Virginia the number of students has in this first presidential year passed seven hundred, distributed among the academic departments of collegiate and graduate studies, and the professional departments of law, medicine, and engineering. The type of student has not materially changed, except that in later years, and particularly in this session, there is a decided increase in the number of ambitious, self-helpful students who, on money earned, or borrowed, or made by honorable toil here, are bent on receiving an education. The students in general, without losing materially in that fine courtesy and somewhat courtly bearing, are apprehending more keenly the true dignity of all forms of labor and the respect due everywhere to the triumphant manliness of self-respecting toilers. This spirit is making it easier for men without means to help themselves by manual and menial labor without any loss of standing. Wealth has never counted for much here in fixing a man's station. The man with \$25,000 or more a year has been known here to desire in vain the popularity of some man able to spend \$300. But another advance has been made when the man spending \$300 makes it in college by honest labor and yet holds his place among his fellows.

TEACHING FORCE AND INCOME.

For the present body of students the teaching force is too small. It has always been the pride and glory of this institution that all students come directly and immediately in personal contact with their professors. They are not turned over to inexperienced assistants. This plan of giving to the student the best energies of the professor is excellent, but it is costly of the professor's time. By this may be explained the relative poverty in literary production of the faculty. Its members are all overworked. As a matter of fact, the increase in professors has not kept pace proportionately with the increase in students. To-day the number of students is six times as large as in those earliest years, while the faculty is only three times as large. An increase in the teaching force is almost imperative.

But no expansion in subjects taught or in manning or equipping present departments can be undertaken without enlarged revenue. The annual budget shows an expenditure for all purposes of about \$150,000, with an income from all sources so near the same amount that it is guesswork whether there will be a small deficit or a meager surplus. Under these conditions, wise and liberal expansion to meet new and growing needs is impossible.

The tone of the university was never finer. There is in the faculty a growing appreciation of the services due from any privileged institution to all the people of whatever class and condition. This desire for service, the very breath and inspiration of the new president, will be efficiently developed and wisely guided. In all philanthropic and religious movements the students in large numbers show a disposition to share, so that the large services this secular institution has rendered the Church and all good causes seem destined to be still larger.

LEADERSHIP IN ATHLETICS.

Alongside of this mental and moral growth may fittingly be placed the attention now paid to physical training. Success in athletic contests is hardly a satisfactory criterion, but Virginia's recognized leadership in her own territory and her worthy contests with the best athletic organizations in the country tend to prove her care for manly exercise. The gymnasium, the tennis courts, the golf links, the splendid athletic field, provide excellent opportunity for exercise. Lacrosse, basket-ball, hand-ball, track athletics, and indoor contests are among the forms of exercise, while the beauty of the surrounding country has, from Poe's day to this, been a constant lure to long rambles.

PECULIAR FEATURES OF THE UNIVERSITY LIFE.

The intelligent reader might well pause, however, to ask, "What, then, are the distinctive features of the University of Virginia at present?" Many of them, due to its far-brought traditions, its scholastic atmosphere, and its pervading spirit, cannot be listed in easy phrases, but there are several that may readily be noted.

First, the length of session is unusual. It is a nine months' session, calculated to the day, and in these months each week holds six,—not five,—full working days. There are no half-holidays or Saturday suspensions. Until recently, there was in this whole span of time but one legal holiday, and that was Christmas Day. In "these degenerate days," as the praisers of times past would call them, there is one day holiday at Thanksgiving, about two weeks at Christmas, and one by special enactment in the spring.

Second, the standards still rigidly maintained are unusually high. There are no such grades as sixty or fifty for passing. The lowest standard that obtains is 75 per cent., and in some courses it is 83 $\frac{1}{3}$. This standard is to be obtained, not by manipulation of class standing or prescribed allowances for special tasks, but on exacting written examinations. Under such a

standard failure can be no disgrace, but graduation is always an honor. In accord with this real value attached to earned degrees, no honorary degree has ever been conferred.

Third, the emphasis is put on the quality of work, and not upon the time of residence. The total abolition of the curriculum meant not only freedom of election within certain limits of subjects to be studied, but total freedom as to the order in which these may be pursued. As a corollary to this, the completion of the prescribed courses in whatever time, not the pursuit of them for any given length of time, is the basis of graduation.

Fourth, the honor system guarantees honesty of work and the *bona fide* possession of the knowledge shown in the examination papers. This spirit of honor, which is the very essence of college public opinion, saves the university from manifold petty annoyances or more violent outbreaks. When students are treated as men, addressed even in roll-calls as "Mister," believed without question, and trusted without any espionage, they cannot tolerate unmanly hazing, senseless destruction of property, or acts of gross discourtesy to their associates or professors.

Fifth, lack of multiplied rules of discipline. The principle that every student is expected to be a gentleman is the source; and that of any

man's standing. Under this principle, student self-government is established and maintained, not by class courts or organizations of students, but by individual assent to this condition of college citizenship.

Sixth, close contact of professor and student. The comradeship, the frank and friendly association, the mutual respect of rights, make life here not only practically free from all cleavage, but actually cemented with lasting personal friendships. And this constant mingling of old and young ministers to the youthfulness of age and to the maturity of the young.

The final word must be that of grateful and loving optimism. Under the leadership of our president, too sane an idealist to prove disobedient to the vision granted him of the university's possible usefulness, too practical a man of affairs to waste time upon mere chimeras, the forces within and without will surely unite to place this institution with the foremost leaders of educational thought. This position the University of Virginia deserves by the achievements of her splendid past; in this place she can best serve the present generation, and from this vantage-ground she can best labor with all leaders and with men in the ranks for a fuller consecration to the cause of *educating all the people*, each for his separate task.



SERPENTINE WALLS (OF SINGLE-BRICK THICKNESS) PLANNED BY THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THE WASHINGTON BUST BY DAVID D'ANGERS.

BY CHARLES E. FAIRMAN.

THERE have been many portraits of Washington. Prominence is always a shining mark for the painter or the sculptor. Portraits of Washington by Gilbert Stuart, and by Rembrandt Peale, and dozens of artists, sculptors, and engravers of lesser rank, are abundant, and yet it has been the opportunity of a noted French sculptor, David d'Angers, to give to the world the most important portrait of Washington, the man, yet produced. This portrait was formally presented to the American people by the republic of France through the French ambassador, J. J. Jusserand, on February 22, 1905, and now occupies an honored position in the rotunda of the nation's Capitol.

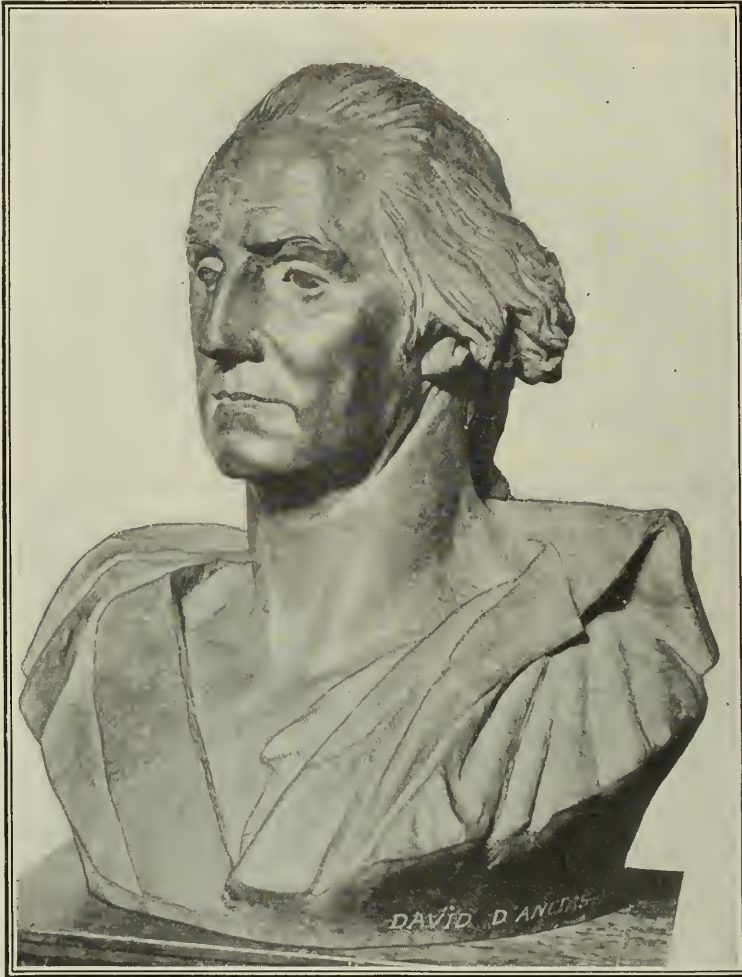
While other artists have given us a serene, complacent Washington, they have failed utterly in portraying any character of the man except his great dignity. In the portrait bust by David, we have an appreciation of the resolute charac-

ter of the man who passed through the stirring scenes of the Revolution. We have a glimpse of that heroic manhood that could rise above

the trials of his times, trials which have left their impress upon his face and developed rugged character. It is the face of a man with the strength of a Hercules and the courage and heroism that are fitting attributes of the father of the infant republic. It is a face that records the physical sufferings and the mental anguish of the man.

The original bust of Washington by David was subscribed for by a number of patriotic Frenchmen in the year 1826. At that time David was the most prominent sculptor of France. Lafayette,

the friend of Washington and his companion in arms, had collected a large number of portraits of Washington, and watched closely the progress of the model in plaster, making from time to time such helpful suggestions and pointing out



THE WASHINGTON OF DAVID D'ANGERS.

(Presented to the American people on February 22, 1905.)

from his portfolio of portraits such characteristics as seemed to best represent his former comrade. The bust, in marble, was finally presented to the United States, and given a place in the Library of Congress, the only location available at that time for the exhibition of such art works. Unfortunately, this bust was destroyed by fire, which occurred in the library on the morning of December 24, 1851. This fire also destroyed a large number of valuable works of art, among them a bust of Lafayette, also by David.

In Angers, the native town of the artist, are preserved all of the models of this renowned sculptor, which were bequeathed to the museum of Angers by the artist at the time of his death. David loved Angers, for in the days of his struggle for recognition it had recognized his genius, and had afforded him means to pursue his studies by voting him an annuity of six hundred francs per annum. This aid enabled him to pursue his studies with such earnestness that he soon won the prize of Rome, and from that time he was able to provide for his own expenses. His daughter, Madame La Ferme, is still a resident of Angers, and spends much of her time in the museum containing the models of her distinguished father. David was accustomed to sign his works David d'Angers. Some have said that this was done to avoid the confusion of his name with that of David, the painter. It seems more probable that he felt a proper gratitude for the assistance rendered him, and for this reason substituted the name of David d'Angers for his baptismal name of Pierre Jean David.

The loss of the bust, in marble, was deeply felt by the sculptor and by the French nation. David was in exile when the news of its destruction was brought to him, and he bemoaned his unfortunate condition and the loss of a work which he had considered a masterpiece.



THE PROFILE VIEW OF THE DAVID D'ANGERS BUST OF WASHINGTON.

Love for the United States has not diminished in France. A short time since the project of again presenting to this country a bust of Washington by David was commenced; the plaster model being still in existence, the work was finished in bronze. As in 1826, this work was subscribed for by citizens of the French nation, and it is a memorable fact that the three names heading the list of subscribers are those of Lafayette, Rochambeau, and De Grasse, descendants of the persons of these names who were valued allies of the United States in the struggle for independence.

By this act the French nation has honored the foremost American of his day, and the love of the people of France for David is also emphasized.



DR. WILLIAM OSLER, REGIUS PROFESSOR OF MEDICINE AT OXFORD.

DR. OSLER'S BALTIMORE ADDRESS.

AT the Commemoration Day exercises of the Johns Hopkins University, on February 22, last, the orator of the day was Dr. William Osler, who had been identified with the Johns Hopkins Medical School for a period of sixteen years, and who is now about to assume the duties of the regius professorship of medicine at Oxford, by appointment of King Edward. Dr. Osler's farewell address to his colleagues and students at Baltimore was a notable one, and because of certain views to which it gave forceful expression

it has been widely quoted by the newspaper press. Unfortunately, however, the quotations have not always been accurate, while some things that the distinguished speaker intended as pleasantries have been interpreted with solemn literalness and heralded abroad as revolutionary doctrines.

Dr. Osler began his address with a personal reference to the severance of official relations with the university, which on many accounts he deplored, and passed to a discussion of the possibilities of a national and international ex-

change of teaching faculties.—a cultivation of the nomadic spirit among students and instructors. Upon the younger men especially he urged the peripatetic philosophy of life and pointed out some of the evils of intellectual infantilism, or retention of the childish mind because of imperfect nutrition, and progeria, in which senility immediately succeeds childhood,—maladies for which he regarded an early change of academic air and diet as the most effective antidote. At this point Dr. Osler raised the question of a time limit for appointments on college and university faculties, remarking that it is a serious matter in our young universities to have all of the professors growing old at the same time. Then followed the paragraphs in the address to which the newspapers have devoted so much attention:

I have two fixed ideas well known to my friends, harmless obsessions with which I sometimes bore them, but which have a direct bearing on this important problem. The first is the comparative uselessness of men above forty years of age. This may seem shocking, and yet, read aright, the world's history bears out the statement. Take the sum of human achievement in action, in science, in art, in literature—subtract the work of the men above forty, and while we should miss great treasures, even priceless treasures, we would practically be where we are to-day. It is difficult to name a great and far-reaching conquest of the mind which has not been given to the world by a man on whose back the sun was still shining. The effective, moving, vitalizing work of the world is done between the ages of twenty-five and forty,—these fifteen golden years of plenty, the anabolic or constructive period, in which there is always a balance in the mental bank and the credit is still good.

In the science and art of medicine there has not been an advance of the first rank which has not been initiated by young or comparatively young men. Vesalius, Harvey, Hunter, Bichat, Laennec, Virchow, Lister, Koch,—the green years were yet upon their heads when their epoch-making studies were made. To modify an old saying, a man is sane morally at thirty, rich mentally at forty, wise spiritually at fifty—or never. The young men should be encouraged and afforded every possible chance to show what is in them. If there is one thing more than another upon which the professors of this university are to be congratulated, it is this very sympathy and fellowship with their junior associates, upon whom really in many departments,—in mine, certainly,—has fallen the brunt of the work. And herein lies the chief value of the teacher who has passed his climacteric and is no longer a productive factor,—he can play the man midwife, as Socrates did to Thesetetus, and determine whether the thoughts which the young men are bringing to the light are false idols or true and noble births.

The speaker announced as his second fixed idea "the uselessness of men above sixty years of age, and the incalculable benefit it would be in commercial, political, and professional life if, as a matter of course, men stopped work at this

age." It was in this connection that Dr. Osler, after alluding to methods employed by the ancients for disposing of sexagenarii, referred to the chloroform scheme proposed in Anthony Trollope's novel, "The Fixed Period." It was at this jocose reference that most of the shafts of Dr. Osler's opponents in the discussion that followed the delivery of the address were specifically aimed.

It will be remembered that Trollope's plot suggested a college into which, when the age of sixty was reached, men retired for a year of contemplation before the administering of chloroform. Dr. Osler declared that the benefits of such an arrangement were apparent to any one who, like himself, is nearing the prescribed limit, "and who has made a careful study of the calamities which may befall men during the seventh and eighth decades."

Still more when he contemplates the many evils which they perpetuate unconsciously and with impunity! As it can be maintained that all the great advances have come from men under forty, so the history of the world shows that a very large proportion of the evils may be traced to the sexagenarians,—nearly all the great mistakes politically and socially, all of the worst poems, most of the bad pictures, a majority of the bad novels, not a few of the bad sermons and speeches! It is not to be denied that occasionally there is a sexagenarian whose mind, as Cicero remarks, stands out of reach of the body's decay. Such a one has learned the secret of Hermippus, that ancient Roman who, feeling that the silver cord was loosening, cut himself clear from all companions of his own age and betook himself to the company of young men, mingling with their games and studies, and so lived to the age of one hundred and fifty-three, *puerorum habitu recoillatus et educatus*. And there is truth in the story, since it is only those who live with the young who maintain a fresh outlook on the new problems of the world.

The teacher's life should have three periods,—study until twenty-five, investigation until forty, profession until sixty, at which age I would have him retired on a double allowance. Whether Anthony Trollope's suggestion of a college and chloroform should be carried out or not, I have become a little dubious, as my own time is getting so short.

Our readers will doubtless be interested in the facts that Dr. Osler is fifty-six years old (having been born, in Ontario, in 1849); that he is the author of a number of standard medical treatises, not one of which, it appears, was published before his fortieth year, although we must assume that all were written before that time, and that the charm of his literary style,—the admiration of all his coworkers, young and old,—was never displayed to better advantage than in his most recent volumes, "Science and Immortality" (Houghton) and "Acquanimitas," a series of papers and addresses (Blakiston).

THE BEEF INDUSTRY AND THE GOVERNMENT INVESTIGATION.

BY EDWARD DANA DURAND.

(Special examiner in the Bureau of Corporations.)

IN conformity with a resolution of the House of Representatives, adopted in March, 1904, the President, on March 3d, submitted to Congress a report of Commissioner of Corporations Garfield on the beef industry.

This report is significant, not only in the facts it contains regarding the particular subject, but also as a practical indication of the policy of the Commissioner of Corporations outlined in his first general report, published last December. The keynote of the report is accuracy of investigation and freedom from prejudice.

METHODS OF THE BUREAU OF CORPORATIONS.

Since the beef report is the first published result of the economic investigations of the Bureau of Corporations, some account of the methods of inquiry will be of interest.

The first step was to get a bird's-eye view of the field to be explored, to ascertain the chief sources of information, and to formulate the problems. A digest was made of the more important material already published in government reports, periodicals, and financial publications regarding the alleged trust and its constituent members, and regarding prices and conditions in the cattle and beef business. Preliminary tables of prices of cattle and beef and of the leading by-products were compiled from trade publications. Statistics of the supply of cattle, of the local distribution of the slaughtering industry, of the proportion of the business done by the leading packers, and the like, were compiled and analyzed.

INVESTIGATIONS OF SPECIAL AGENTS.

After these preliminary investigations, the bureau entered upon its own first-hand investigations on a comprehensive scale. Skilled special agents were sent to the leading cattle markets, where they interviewed commission agents handling live stock, cattle-raisers, small slaughterers, buyers of cattle for export, officers of stockyards, and others familiar with the various phases of the business. Agents also visited the cattle-raising and cattle-feeding sections, from Illinois to California and from Montana to Texas. They not merely learned the complaints of the

cattlemen and the evidences which they had to offer regarding the alleged combination, but they also inquired widely into the conditions of production and supply in their relation to the situation of the cattle-raisers. These personal investigations were supplemented through schedules, sent to several thousand cattle-raisers and cattle-feeders. The information thus secured concerning the cattle business has not yet been published by the bureau. It appears that recent changes in the conditions under which cattle are raised have had much to do with the complaints of both the producer of cattle and the consumer of beef.

The special agents of the bureau also visited the leading centers of beef consumption throughout the country. They interviewed local slaughterers, retail dealers, inspection officers, and others, and secured extensive statistics and estimates regarding the source of beef supply and wholesale and retail prices. These inquiries were also supplemented by circulars. The bureau has yet to publish its findings regarding retail prices, but it is intimated in the report already issued that some of the complaint of excessive margins between cattle prices and beef prices is attributable to misunderstanding of the relation between the wholesale and retail prices of particular cuts of beef and the price of the carcass as a whole.

Still other representatives of the Bureau of Corporations visited the capitals of the leading States under whose laws the great packing companies are organized or admitted to do business. They compiled from the State records a large amount of information regarding the organization, capitalization, and officers of these companies and their numerous subsidiary or allied concerns.

EXAMINATION OF THE PACKERS' BOOKS.

Concurrently with the investigations mentioned, the Bureau of Corporations began to secure statistics directly from the records of the leading Western packers. At the outset, this work was chiefly confined to prices paid for cattle, in general and of the various classes, in particular markets, and to prices received for

beef at leading individual cities. Throughout the investigation the bureau aimed to examine and transcribe original records, rather than to accept figures furnished by the companies. With a few minor exceptions in the case of distant plants, this policy was carried out. Every precaution was taken, moreover, to verify the correctness of the figures. Many of the totals, selected at random, were tested by the items, often exceedingly numerous, on which they were based. Indeed, a large part of the statistical material used by the bureau was the result of its own direct compilations from a mass of items so great as quite to preclude the possibility of their being fictitious.

The study of the price statistics first compiled from the books of the packers brought into sharp relief the fact that mere comparison of the prices of cattle and of beef, however careful and complete, gives little basis for judgment as to the reasonableness of either. A score of other factors, often overlooked, enter into the determination of the profits of the packers. From the detailed statistics of prices, therefore, the bureau proceeded to the records of the packers showing the aggregate cost of all cattle, the total sales of beef, the costs of slaughtering and marketing, and the quantities, prices, and costs of production of by-products. From these factors, independently, the bureau computed the profit in the beef business of individual companies and of companies taken together. Only after this was done were the bookkeeping profits themselves examined.

Why, it may be asked, this elaborate procedure? If it was foreseen that only by knowledge of profits could a decision as to the reasonableness of prices be reached, why not have examined profits directly first of all? The answer is found in part in the broad conception of the bureau concerning its work. It has aimed to understand and describe the industry in such a way that hereafter the public may know the factors which must be taken into account in criticising prices, and that at any time in the future the investigator of the beef business,—be he the Commissioner of Corporations, or an independent scientific student, or a journalist,—may find his task lightened, and the paths of his inquiry so mapped out that he will not readily err therein. The bureau has sought a permanent basis of knowledge regarding the beef industry. It has sought not merely present facts but explanations that will apply as well to future conditions. Another motive for the adoption of such detailed methods lay in the desire to avoid the possibility of deception by false or misleading accounts, and still more to convince the public of

the correctness of the conclusions by showing the thoroughness of the investigation.

THE "BIG SIX."

The inquiries of the Bureau of Corporations were naturally concerned chiefly with the six great concerns which, by the injunction of 1902, were grouped together, and which were popularly considered as the Beef Trust. The "Big Six," in the approximate order of their magnitude as indicated by the number of animals slaughtered, are: Swift & Co., with seven large plants; Armour & Co., and the Armour Packing Company, which have the same stockholders, and which together operate five packing-houses; the National Packing Company, with eight comparatively large plants and two or three minor ones; Morris & Co., operating three plants; the Cudahy Packing Company, with three plants in the middle West and a minor one at Los Angeles; and the Schwarzschild & Sulzberger Company, operating three plants. Nearly all of the important packing-houses of these six companies are situated in the eight great live-stock markets,—Chicago, Kansas City, South Omaha, East St. Louis, South St. Joseph, Fort Worth, South St. Paul, and Sioux City.

THE NATIONAL PACKING COMPANY.

The results of the investigations of the bureau regarding the alleged combination among the great packing companies have not, yet been made public, on account of proceedings conducted by the Department of Justice. The report of the bureau does, however, call attention to the rumor, current in 1902, that plans were on foot for an actual consolidation of these concerns, through merger or a securities-holding company. It also describes the peculiar constitution of the National Packing Company, which, apparently, grew out of the abortive consolidation scheme. Shortly prior to the formation of this company the Armour interests had acquired control of the G. H. Hammond Company and the Omaha Packing Company, the Swifts had secured the Anglo-American Provision Company and the Fowler Packing Association, and the Morris family had become dominant in the United Dressed Beef Company of New York. The National Packing Company, organized in 1903, took over the control of the various corporations thus previously acquired by the three packing interests named, and has since absorbed two or three other smaller concerns. The directorate of the National Company consists almost wholly of representatives of the Armour, Swift, and Morris companies. Aside from this community of interest, the bureau finds that there is no important interownership of se-

curities among the six leading packing companies.

PROPORTION OF INDUSTRY CONTROLLED.

The "Big Six" are by no means the only slaughterers of cattle in the United States. They, with a few minor affiliated concerns, killed 5,521,697 cattle in 1903, while, from the best available data, the Bureau of Corporations computes the total slaughter of the country at about 12,500,000. But the proportion of 45 per cent. thus indicated by no means measures the full economic significance of the six great packers. Their importance lies in the fact that they are the only concerns which do an extensive business in shipping dressed beef. Their abattoirs are by far the most important avenues through which the great surplus of cattle from the fertile corn belt and from the vast plains further to the west can find an outlet. The "Big Six" kill about 98 per cent. of the cattle slaughtered at the eight leading Western markets above named. On account of the presence, especially at Chicago, of numerous buyers of cattle for shipment alive, their proportion of the total purchases of beef cattle (as distinguished from young cattle for feeding) is smaller, though still probably over 90 per cent. Again, those cities and sections of the country, more particularly along the Eastern seaboard, which are chiefly dependent upon the West for their beef, find in these six packers the main channels of their supply. In New York, Boston, Providence, and a number of other Eastern cities these concerns sell upward of 75 per cent. of the beef consumed. In Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Baltimore, and many smaller cities of the Atlantic States they furnish from one-half to three-fourths of the beef. The possibility of a certain degree of monopolistic control of the beef supply, in case these large packers act in harmony, is, therefore, present in a considerable and populous section of the country. In a large proportion, however, of the small towns even of the Atlantic States (aside from New England), and in most of the cities and towns of all sizes west of Pittsburg or south of the Ohio River, local slaughterers furnish more than half of the beef consumed; indeed, the proportion sold by the packers in these places is often very small. In those cities of the middle West where their packing-houses are situated, the "Big Six" supply a large proportion of the local consumption of beef, but elsewhere in the cattle-producing territory their beef is usually but a small fraction of the amount sold. The large amount of local slaughtering revealed by the inquiries of the bureau consists chiefly of cattle raised in the

vicinity of the place of consumption. So far as local butchers can obtain a supply of cattle in their own neighborhood they are at a marked advantage in competition with the Western packers, who must bear a heavy transportation expense.

While the great packers have thus no approach toward monopoly in the purchase of cattle or the sale of beef over the larger part of the area of the country, they do buy their cattle mostly in great markets where there is little present competition, except such as may exist among the six concerns themselves; and they do sell a large fraction, probably more than half, of their beef in great markets where there is now comparatively little competition from the outside. Do the packers, by reason of this position, make exorbitant profits in the beef business?

PROFITS NINETY-NINE CENTS PER HEAD IN BEEF BUSINESS PROPER.

The answer to this question is given with precision in the report of Commissioner Garfield. First may be considered the profits per unit of product; later, the profits in relation to investment.

The actual bookkeeping profits of the strictly beef business of three leading packers, for the twelve months from July, 1903, to June, 1904, averaged ninety-nine cents per head, or about one-sixth of a cent per pound of dressed beef. This figure represents the beef business of Armour & Co. at their three largest plants, of Swift & Co. at their five leading plants, and of the Schwarzschild & Sulzberger Company at their Chicago plant. These plants were selected as the only ones for which detailed statistics could be conveniently compiled as a check upon the summary bookkeeping accounts. The profits of the three companies did not differ greatly from one another. The profit statements of the three plants of Morris & Co. also showed approximately the same results. The beef business of the Cudahy Packing Company was not examined with equal fullness, but it was found that, in 1904, the total profits of the company were equal to about one-seventh of a cent per pound on all classes of products shipped, including beef, pork, mutton, and other commodities.

MANNER OF CHECKING PROFIT STATEMENTS.

As already stated, the bureau checked the profits shown on the general financial statements of the packers by a detailed computation of all the factors entering into profits. This computation covered the nine plants of the Armour, Swift, and Schwarzschild & Sulzberger companies above mentioned, and also a fraction of the

business of Armour & Co. at their other two plants. The method of this computation was as follows: The total live weight and cost of all dressed-beef cattle killed, and the weight of beef derived from them, were taken directly from the original killing records. The weight and net proceeds, at the packing-house, of beef sold from these plants during the same period was ascertained from the sales books, and the average net price thus shown was multiplied into the weight of beef produced. The total "green" weight of the hides, diminished by the percentage of shrinkage on all hides sold during the same period, was multiplied by the average price received for all hides during that period. The total weight of fat from the cattle was taken from the killing records; the yield of oleo oils, stearin, and tallow from such fat was computed on the basis of the actual percentages of these products derived from all fat handled by the oleo departments (some of which comes from other sources); the quantities thus ascertained were multiplied by the average prices actually received for the respective products during the period. From the proceeds of beef, hides, and oleo products were deducted the cost of producing and handling them as shown by the books. Items of interest and depreciation were excluded in figuring costs. The quantities of the minor by-products were ascertained, as precisely as the form of the records would permit, and multiplied by the respective prices, which usually represent transfer charges to other departments. The aggregate value of these minor products was corrected by the bookkeeping figures of total transfers and sales of all such articles combined.

On account of certain complications growing out of the nature of the business and the form of the records, it was not expected that the profits computed from these details would be absolutely correct, but the margin of error is conclusively shown to be very small, the largest factors in the problem having been ascertained with almost absolute accuracy. These statistics for the Armour, Swift, and Schwarzschild & Sulzberger companies worked out an average profit of eighty-two cents per head for the twelve months from July, 1903, to June, 1904, or seventeen cents per head less than the bookkeeping figure above mentioned. The precisely similar computation for July, 1902, to June, 1903, indicated a profit of 80 cents per head. The thoroughness of this detailed investigation left no doubt whatever of the essential correctness of the bookkeeping methods of the companies and of the average profit shown by the books.

ADDITIONAL PROFITS IN BY-PRODUCT DEPARTMENTS.

It is important to know precisely what this profit of ninety-nine cents per head does and does not include. It includes the total profit on sales of carcass dressed beef and of fresh cuts of beef. Canner cattle and canned beef were excluded from the computation; it is practically impossible to ascertain accurately the profits in this branch of the business on account of the intermingling of many other products in the canning departments. A small amount of beef is transferred from the beef-cutting department of one of the companies to the "freezer" and the curing department. The additional profit on this beef, above the transfer price fixed by the company, is not included in the figure above, but, from an examination of the accounts of the two departments named, this profit was found to be very small. The entire profits on the hides of the cattle and on the oleo products derived from their fat enter into the statement. For Swift & Co. the profits on the tallow produced from offal are also included.

The only point at which the profit figures fall short of completeness is with respect to the tongues and the offal of cattle. For the most part, the packing companies transfer these products to departments of their own business, in which they are submitted to elaborate processes of manufacture. The transfer prices credited for tongues and offal, which enter into the above determination of the profit of the beef department, aggregate about \$1.50 per head. These transfer charges represent their value as raw material. The ultimate profits derived from this material, above the transfer prices, are not included in the figure of ninety-nine cents per head. The bureau, however, investigated thoroughly the value of tongues and offal. It carefully examined the bookkeeping profits of all the by-product departments handling them, and the prices of finished products and the cost of preparing them for market. On account of the intermingling of material from cattle with other material, the amount of additional profit ultimately derived from tongues and offal could not be ascertained with precision. It was found with certainty, however, that it could not exceed twenty-five cents per head. The bureau was also convinced that the transfer prices on raw material sent from the cattle-killing beds conformed, as nearly as possible, to the market prices at which the packers could buy similar material from outside.

The packers themselves hold that the additional profit derived from further elaboration of these minor by-products is not to be considered as be-

longing to the beef business as such. They contend, for example, that if, in competition with many other manufacturers of fertilizer, they make a profit on certain forms of offal over and above a fair market value of raw material, that is a manufacturing profit of the fertilizer business and not of the beef industry. Whatever may be thought of this contention with respect to the more immediately related manufacturing departments, it seems reasonable with respect to enterprises so widely removed from cattle-slaughtering as the manufacture of soap, sand-paper, bone novelties, and butterine.

ADDITIONAL PROFITS IN PRIVATE CARS.

Again, the figure of ninety-nine cents per head does not include any profit derived from private cars owned by the packers and engaged in transporting dressed beef. The investigations of the bureau regarding private cars indicate the probability that the mileage paid by the railroads affords a large return upon the capital invested in the cars. There is a widespread misconception that such mileage payments constitute a rebate on freight rates, or a secret discrimination. The mileage is simply a rental paid by the railroads for the use of a class of cars which, at least according to the statements of many railroad officers, they cannot afford to own themselves on account of the irregularity of the traffic in refrigerated products over particular lines. Any owner of private cars, be they many or few, can get the open mileage rates.

The Bureau of Corporations computes that the average distance traveled by cars in carrying packing-house products is from 90 to 100 miles per day; that at the prevailing rates paid by the railroads,—usually three-quarters of a cent per mile, but on some roads one cent, and averaging about eight-tenths of a cent,—the cars earn from \$250 to \$300 per year gross from mileage; and that the expense of administration and repairs, with depreciation at 6 per cent., would amount to about \$115 per year. The profit on mileage is computed by the bureau to be from 14 per cent. to 20 per cent., or even more, on the cost of cars, which averages about \$1,000 each. So far as the handling of their own packing-house products is concerned, there is no additional profit to the packers from icing charges. The Bureau of Corporations did not specially investigate the receipts of the packers for refrigeration of cars, a matter which has to do with the transportation of fruit, vegetables, and dairy products, where the private-car owner charges the shipper for icing.

While the profits on private cars are thus, apparently, large, their importance in relation to

the packing business as a whole has frequently been much exaggerated. One writer has asserted that the mileage "rebates" on the cars of the leading packers amount to \$25,000,000 per year. According to the sworn returns of the companies, the cars controlled by the Armour, Swift, National, Morris, Schwarzschild & Sulzberger, and Cudahy companies traveled about 650,000,000 miles during the year 1903-04. At the average mileage rate, about eight-tenths of a cent, the gross income of the car lines from the railroads would be only about \$5,000,000, and not over two-thirds of this is a net return to capital. Probably not much more than a third of this \$5,000,000 is derived from cars hauling dressed beef. The significance of private-car profits in relation to the beef business may be better appreciated in another way. The average distance which beef is transported by the packers does not exceed 800 miles. The mileage payments on the beef cars would thus average not over \$12.80 per round trip. Since the contents of a car average not less than 20,000 pounds, the mileage payment would amount to not over 6.4 cents per 100 pounds of beef. If, in accordance with the estimates above mentioned, somewhat less than two-thirds of this amount be considered profit on investment, the use of private cars in his beef business would net the packer only about 4 cents per 100 pounds of beef sold, or, roughly, 25 cents per head.

The addition of these two elements of profit, more or less directly connected with the beef business,—that from elaboration of by-products and that from private cars,—to the profits directly ascribed to beef, gives a total of not to exceed \$1.50 per head of cattle, or about one-fourth of a cent per pound of dressed beef.

PROFITS IN RELATION TO VOLUME OF SALES.

A further evidence that the gains of the great packers are less per unit of product than has been generally supposed is found in the fact that for 1904 the total profits of Swift & Co., according to their report to the stockholders, were equal to 1.9 per cent. of the volume of sales, and those of the Cudahy Packing Company to 1.8 per cent. of the sales. All the profits from private cars were included in the case of the latter company, and the profits from such cars during at least part of the year were included for Swift & Co. The total profits of the Schwarzschild & Sulzberger Company, whose business is not greatly different in volume from that of the Cudahy Company, were slightly less than those of the latter concern, indicating a similar margin of profit on sales. In the case of the Swift and Cudahy companies, and indeed of all

of the "Big Six," except the Schwarzschild & Sulzberger Company, the beef business is much less than half of the total volume.

PROFITS IN RELATION TO INVESTMENT.

It is certain, therefore, that the profits of the packers constitute but a comparatively small element in the price of beef. That fact has in itself little to do with the question whether the profits are excessive. For the packing business, like various others, enjoys what is, in a sense, the advantage that the cost of raw material is the chief element in the cost of the finished product. Where this is the case a very large total return may be gained from a small profit per unit of product sold. A profit of \$1.50 per head on five million cattle is no mean sum. Return on investment is the only criterion of the reasonableness of profits. The companies comprising the "Big Six" ordinarily secure a rather high return on the capital which they have invested. The net earnings of Swift & Co. on their total business, including dividends and additions to surplus, averaged, during the five years from 1899 to 1903, nearly 12 per cent. on their capital stock of \$25,000,000. During these years the Swift private cars were owned by a distinct corporation; but during part, if not all, of 1904 the stock of this corporation was all held by the main company, and its profits are apparently included in the general profits of Swift & Co., which were in that year 11 per cent. of their increased capital stock of \$35,000,000. The profits of the Cudahy Packing Company in 1902 were 20 per cent. of the \$7,000,000 stock, and in 1904, 13 per cent., the figure for 1903 not being significant because of a heavy loss by flood. The profits of the Schwarzschild & Sulzberger Company in 1904 were about 15 per cent. on their stock, \$4,373,000, or a little less than 10 per cent. on stock and surplus combined. The investigations of the Bureau of Corporations show that these companies are probably not overcapitalized, so that the profits on actual investment would not be greater than the percentages mentioned. It may be added that the bureau ascertained that the leading packing companies had not concealed their profits by excessive salaries to officers, or by diversions to affiliated or subsidiary corporations; and there was no evidence of such concealment by excessive allowances for repairs or depreciation, or by other similar devices. The ownership of practically all the agencies of transportation and marketing employed by the three packers above named rests, directly or through the holding of securities, in the controlling companies, so that the profits come back into a common treasury.

In judging of the profits of the packers due consideration should be given to the undoubted fact that the "Big Six" have effected great economies in cost of operation and in utilization of by-products; and that the margin between cattle prices and beef prices may readily be less to-day than would be possible if the business were conducted on a small scale and according to the old-fashioned methods still pursued by most local butchers.

CURRENT ERRORS REGARDING CATTLE AND BEEF PRICES.

The subject of the prices of cattle and of beef is so complicated that it is impossible in this article even to summarize the important facts reported by the Bureau of Corporations. Those facts are, in many respects, decidedly at variance with common belief. Some of the sources of misconception which have obscured the true movement of prices require mention.

Most serious of all, probably, is the error from comparing retail prices of particular cuts of beef with prices of cattle on the hoof. To many consumers the statement that the net price received by three packers for the beef from over 2,000,000 cattle, from July, 1903, to June, 1904, was only 6.25 cents per pound doubtless seems incredible. Yet it is absolutely true. Thousands of consumers, and those the most intelligent, are familiar only with such high-grade cuts as rib roasts and porterhouse steaks, for which they may pay 20, or even 30, cents per pound at retail. The fine cuts constitute only a small part of the beef carcass. In many parts of the country a retailer who pays 7 cents per pound for a beef carcass will have to sell the best cuts at fully three times that amount in order to offset the absolute waste in the carcass, and more particularly to offset the low price received for poorer cuts. A very considerable part of such a carcass he can sell for only 3 or 4 cents per pound. Indeed, the preference for meat of the highest quality is growing year by year, and it might readily be that demand should actually force up prices of such cuts in the face of a fall in carcass prices. The more consumers insist on having fancy cuts the less can the butchers realize for the inferior meat.

In the second place, comparisons are often made between cattle prices and beef prices without due consideration of the fact that on the average only about 56 per cent. of the live animal constitutes dressed beef. If the "margin" between the two prices increases in absolute amount, it is immediately assumed that profits have risen. The combined value of all products from cattle other than beef is barely equal to

one-half of the live cost of the 44 per cent. of the animal from which the by-products are derived. If cattle prices rise, therefore, beef must be advanced by much more than an equal amount in order to cover the partial waste of the live weight. When, in 1902, prices of beef jumped to an unprecedented level, bitter complaints were made of the increase in the "margin." But the report of Commissioner Garfield shows that, instead of gaining extraordinary profits at this time, the business was less profitable than usual.

A less important error arises from the failure to take into account changes in the percentage of beef derived from cattle. The cattle marketed in 1902 were unusually poor in quality, and they dressed out about 1 per cent. less than usual. A decrease in the percentage of beef necessarily tends to increase the difference between cattle prices and beef prices.

A similar but greater error in interpreting prices lies in the frequent neglect to consider changes in the value of by-products. Other things being equal, a decrease in the quantity, quality, or prices of by-products must increase the margin between cattle and beef. There has been a marked fall since 1902 in the prices of the two leading by-products of cattle. The average price of hides sold by three leading packers fell from 11.8 cents per pound in the second half of 1902 to 9.7 cents in the second half of 1903. Prices of oleo-oil and stearin fell by 38 and 47 per cent., respectively. These changes meant a loss of nearly \$2.50 per head, and, had cattle prices remained unchanged, might have been expected to cause an increase of about forty cents per hundred pounds in the price of dressed beef.

Finally, endless confusion has arisen from attempts to compare incomparable things,—from placing one grade of cattle alongside a different grade of beef. The report of the Bureau of Corporations shows clearly the wide variety of classes and grades of cattle and of classes and grades of beef, and the great range in prices prevailing even at a given time and place. Cattle and beef are not uniform commodities whose prices can be quoted with accuracy. Trade-journal quotations, however carefully compiled, can give only a rough idea of the entire body of transactions. Still less can sellers of cattle or buyers of beef, from their personal experience, ordinarily judge correctly of prices in general, either at a given date or from time to time. While the price statistics of the bureau cover the different grades of cattle and different beef markets in much detail, the form of the records of the packers does not permit exact comparison, for particular grades or particular

markets, between the actual cost of cattle and the actual price of beef derived from the same cattle. It is quite possible that in some markets the Western packers obtain decidedly higher "margins" and larger profits than in others. But the facts cannot be determined satisfactorily by any practicable method of computation. Precise information as to true "margins" can be obtained only by comparing the average price of all cattle with the average price of all beef from them.

COMPARISON OF CATTLE AND BEEF PRICES.

Much the greater part of the statements heretofore made in the public press regarding cattle and beef prices have rested merely upon crude observations and popular belief, or upon fragmentary or wholly imaginary statistics.

A complete comparison between prices of all cattle and of all beef from the same cattle is made by the bureau for three packers and for the four semi-annual periods from July, 1902, to June, 1904. For the first period, the average price of cattle, which represents the six leading Western markets, was \$4.51 per hundredweight; that of beef, net at the packing-house, \$6.58; the margin, \$2.07. For January to June, 1903, the cattle cost \$4.40; beef sold for \$6.37; margin, \$1.97. For July to December, 1903, the cattle price was \$4.02; beef, \$6.06; margin, \$2.04. The first half of 1904 showed cattle, \$4.28; beef, \$6.43; margin, \$2.15. These statistics present much less change either in beef prices, cattle prices, or margins than is often supposed to have taken place during this period. The slight increase in the margin was fully offset by the decline in the value of by-products above mentioned.

An approximately correct view of price movements over a longer period may be gained from statistics in the report covering the entire killings of one packer at four of the great Western markets and the entire sales of beef by one packer at nine large Eastern cities. These data, which go back to 1898, controvert the idea that the relations of cattle and beef prices were peculiarly abnormal in 1903 and 1904. The abnormality was in the spring and summer of 1902, when a shortage in the corn crop forced both cattle and beef prices to a level previously unknown. The average price of all dressed-beef cattle at the four plants was \$5.41 per hundredweight during the first six months of 1902; the average beef price at nine cities, reduced to a packing-point basis by deducting freight, shrinkage and icing (expense of selling in local markets not, however, excluded), was \$8.32. The prevalent idea that prices of beef in general have not fallen since

1902 is wide of the mark. The average prices of carcass beef sold by the same packer at the same cities during 1903 and the first half of 1904 were fully 20 per cent. lower than in the first half of 1902.

Present prices of cattle and beef, however, should be compared, not with those of 1902, but with those of earlier years. The average price of all cattle at four plants, from 1898 to 1900, inclusive, was \$4.36. From January, 1903, to July, 1904, the average price paid by the same packer at the same plants was \$4.19, a decline of about 4 per cent. The average price of beef at nine markets from 1898 to 1900 was \$6.98; for 1903 and the first half of 1904 it was \$6.59, a fall of 6 per cent. The margin was \$2.62 in the first three years; \$2.40 in the second period.

As already shown above, a comparison of cattle and beef prices is of relatively little significance in judging of the reasonableness of prices and profits; it is beyond question that a large proportion of cattlemen found their business very unprofitable in 1903, and to somewhat less extent in 1904. They had bought young stock at fancy prices, and they were compelled to pay decidedly more for corn than before 1902. But their losses must be considered partly as one of the vicissitudes of a business that is always somewhat speculative. In part, perhaps, the complaints of cattle-raisers are due to a permanent increase in the cost of production, which is attributable primarily to increased demand for land for agricultural purposes, and to which the consumers of beef have not yet adapted themselves.

KANSAS' BATTLE FOR ITS OIL INTERESTS.

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER.

THE Kansas Legislature, just adjourned, marked by a definite, earnest, and comprehensive attack on the Standard Oil Company a distinctive epoch in the State's history. Many times Kansas, in its periods of ebullition, always interesting and frequently picturesque, has attracted the nation's attention, but never since its initial struggle for freedom has its presence in the lime-light of public notice been received with more vociferous applause. Not only was its cause considered just, but its method seemed to the average citizen to embody elements of both protection and financial reward. It fulfilled the popular idea of curbing a mighty trust; because the corporation assailed is most prominent and powerful of all, the contest became notable.

THE NEW LEGISLATION.

Five laws, each adopted by a large majority in the legislature, comprise the new equipment given the State for efforts in behalf of one of its greatest natural resources. They are:

A law authorizing the establishment of a "branch penitentiary, and an oil refinery in connection therewith," at Peru, in the heart of the oil field; providing for the issuance of \$200,000 in ten-year four-per-cent. State bonds to construct the same; appropriating \$200,000 as a revolving fund with which to buy oil and do business, and \$10,000 for equipment of the convicts' quarters, and providing for its management by the prison warden.

A law making pipe lines common carriers within the State.

A law fixing maximum rates for the transportation of oil by freight or pipe line, giving the charges which for the distances named must not be exceeded by any common carrier.

A law placing pipe lines under the jurisdiction of the board of railroad commissioners.

A law prohibiting discrimination between localities in the selling of any commodities.

Following the adoption of these new measures, actions to prosecute the Standard Oil Company and railroads charged with giving it special privileges have been begun under the State's anti-trust laws.

Work on the refinery is to begin at once, and it is expected that it will be in operation by midsummer. Its capacity will be 2,000 barrels of crude oil daily. All the work, except supervision, will be done by convicts. The undertaking will be the first State-owned oil refinery in the world. Through it the producers expect relief from a condition that had become intolerable.

THE STATE'S OIL-SUPPLY.

The Kansas oil field lies in the extreme southeast corner of the State, including a dozen counties. Scores of experimental wells have been sunk in other parts of the State, but without paying production. While some pioneer work was done from 1889 to 1893, only 20,000 bar-

rels of oil was taken out, and the drillers reaped but meager profits. For the following eleven years the production was as follows :

Year.	Barrels.	Price per barrel.	Value.
1884.....	40,000	48 cts.	\$19,200.00
1885.....	44,430	64 "	28,435.20
1886.....	113,571	63 "	71,549.73
1887.....	90,000	60 "	54,000.00
1888.....	*88,000	\$2.00	176,000.00
1889.....	85,215	75 cts.	52,167.00
1900.....	91,294	80 "	79,035.20
1901.....	169,197	80 "	135,357.60
1902.....	322,623	90 "	289,820.70
1903.....	1,018,159	\$1.10	1,120,018.90
1904.....	5,600,000	70 cts.	

* Refined oil.

The beginning of marked activity in the oil field was, it will be observed, coincident with the definite results of the prosperity that came to Kansas eight years ago. When the debts were somewhat decreased, and the bank deposits grew to encouraging proportions, investment of the surplus was considered. The discovery of a few large wells, with the enormous profits accruing, attracted attention throughout the West. About this time the supply in some of the Eastern fields lessened, and the drillers brought their rigs to Kansas. The Beaumont boomers, having exhausted the speculative features of Texas' wonderful field, came north. Southeastern Kansas was overrun with investors and promoters. Towns that had made little progress in a decade grew to cities of from 8,000 to 10,000 inhabitants in a few months. Leases, options, and "prospects" changed hands at constantly increasing prices.

THE CRAZE FOR INVESTMENT.

"If you want to make an income for life out of a few hundred dollars, invest in oil," was a favorite argument. Companies were formed in every little city of the State to seek oil. A pool of \$10,000 would be raised, and a representative sent to the field to buy a lease. These leases cost money. In the older portions of the field it was not unusual to pay \$5,000 for a chance to put wells on an 80-acre tract. The lease gave an eighth or a tenth to the owner of the land, and bound the lessees to bore one well a month until the field was covered. Because of this latter provision few companies have yet gone beyond the development period. Promoters, with their flaming advertisements, occupied pages in the Western papers, and scattered stock in every community. Wealthier investors bought lands outright, and produced oil without any royalty payments. It is estimated that over six hundred companies of one sort and another were

organized and were working in the dozen oil counties.

With the price of oil at \$1.10 a barrel, the income promised well. All through the winter of 1903-04 the drilling went on, and the spring found the craze at its height. During the year 5,600,000 barrels was produced; had all the wells opened been connected with the pipe lines, the product would have been much greater. The fact that the oil sand lies so close to the surface,—good wells being pumped at only from 600 to 800 feet, and shallow oil showing at half that distance,—made it easy to prospect the field. Movable drilling outfits that put down a well every week traveled over the field, puncturing the soil down to the limestone, and proving the limits of the great oil pools. Derricks pointed skyward in every direction, and the farmers and stockmen rested from their labors, confident that their royalties would toil for them. No ground was exempt. A school-yard furnished a prospect, and the return lessened the school taxes; a church paid the minister out of the sale of oil pumped from a well on the church grounds.

THE "STANDARD'S" ACTIVITIES.

For this flood of oil there was just one purchaser,—the Standard Oil Company. Early in the period of discovery it sent its agents over the fields; wells were drilled and plugged up; tests were made and no publication given. As the work of private investors and local companies increased, the Standard extended its preparations for handling the oil. The price was raised, and in effect the company gave encouragement to the producers to continue their efforts. At Neodesha was built a refinery with a capacity of 3,000 barrels daily. Pipe lines were laid reaching to the important pools within fifty miles, and even down into the Indian Territory, where is opening a new source of oil-supply. The 1,500 wells in operation at the end of 1903 increased in the following twelve months to 4,200, nine-tenths of them being profitable producers. How many of them the Standard owns it is impossible to tell. It operates under the name of the Prairie Oil and Gas Company. It claims to be merely a refiner and not a producer, but it is certain that it controls a large number of the best leases.

Along with the oil came gas. Its volume far exceeds the possibility of the manufactories to use it. Towns are lighted prodigally; oil wells are pumped by its power; several large manufacturing concerns utilize it for fuel. Plans for piping it to Kansas City and other municipalities for heat and light are now being carried out.

Another refinery, located at Kansas City, was completed by the Standard in September, 1904,

and connected with the oil field by an eight-inch main, through which flowed northward a never-ceasing stream of petroleum. At Caney and Neodesha the company erected great storage tanks, each containing 25,000 barrels. Over three hundred acres were covered with them. The two refineries could take about 10,000 barrels daily; the field was producing 25,600 barrels; the surplus poured into the tanks. By February 1, 1905, this surplus reached 5,300,000 barrels, and the company was building a pipe line eastward to Whiting, Ind., the great central refinery of the Standard. The pipe-line extensions cover about three hundred and fifty miles, and the company claims that it has spent approximately \$10,000,000 in the Kansas-Indian Territory field.

THE FALL IN THE PRICE OF CRUDE OIL.

In Kansas the price of oil increased, thus encouraging production, until it reached \$1.38. Then it began to drop. It went down to 70 cents in six months. The company put into effect a new grading system that, according to the claims of the producers, made the price-cut yet greater than the quotations indicate. Other rules, taking out profits that should have gone to the producers, were put into effect, and the outlook grew gloomier. The Standard refused to connect its pipe lines with parts of the field. "We cannot care for your oil," said the agents. "Stop producing so much. We can care for only about 25,000 barrels a day until our line to Whiting is complete; your field is giving 35,000 barrels, with possibilities of half as much more." This was true. There is a 35,000-barrel capacity in the wells already connected.

When a company sold oil to the Standard the buyer did all the business. It measured and tested the oil, fixed the price, paid the royalty to the land-owner, and distributed the surplus to the stockholders according to their holdings.

In the entire field was but one rival, the Webster independent refinery, at Humboldt; capacity, 200 barrels daily. It has had a hard struggle. When it sold oil at Humboldt and Emporia below the Standard's price, the trust cut its figure in those towns to 9 cents a gallon, while it charged 17 to 22 cents everywhere else in the State.

When the price of oil went down, the profits of the hundreds of companies throughout the State dwindled. The investors became angry. They demanded relief. They pointed out that there were discriminations of freight rates that made the pipe lines controlling factors of the situation. They claimed that they had been betrayed by the trust, and had been paid high

prices only that they might be encouraged to develop the field and show its possibilities.

THE AGITATION FOR STATE ACTION.

An oil producers' association was organized. It proposed to erect independent refineries, but gave up the project, convinced that under the conditions it would be unprofitable. The new State administration promised restrictive legislation. Governor Hoch, in his message to the legislature on January 9, said:

I am inclined to waive my objections to the socialistic phase of the subject and recommend the establishment of a refinery of our own. Our producers are now compelled to sell their crude oil entirely too cheap, while consumers of the final product are compelled to pay too much for it. Thus are we being ground between the upper and nether millstones of monopoly, and the people are rightfully demanding relief.

Members of the legislature from the oil counties brought bills of various sorts proposing regulation of the business. Among them were several for a State refinery. This did not meet with great approval at first, as it savored of socialistic tendencies. Governor Hoch's idea, indorsed by many leaders of the party, was that a comparatively small appropriation—say, \$50,000,—to test the cost of oil-refining would be sufficient. Then the Standard sent its challenge to the Kansas producers.

On February 10, a general order went out from Lima, Ohio: "On account of the agitation in Kansas, stop all work in the field that can be done without liability on contracts, and have it done immediately." The buying of Kansas oil ceased temporarily.

THE STATE'S ANSWER TO A THREATENED BOYCOTT.

As the daily papers carried this news, of what the producers understood to be a boycott, to the remote portions of the State, a sentiment of indignation swept the people. Kansas was aroused as it has not been since the days of the Farmers' Alliance. Petitions, letters, and telegrams poured in upon the legislators demanding prompt action. It came. In three days the refinery bill and the other general measures passed both houses, and the battle was on.

The attitude of the State was summed up in a phrase often used in the arguments for action: "A square deal—that's all." Governor Hoch gave this expression of the situation:

Kansas is making a fight for fair play, to restore competition and relieve a great and growing industry from the grasp of an industrial despotism. We hope to prove that the Standard Oil Company has robbed the producer on one hand and the consumer on the other. The State hopes to encourage the location of in-

dependent refineries, and to enlist other States in a battle against monopolistic tyranny. The State refinery is simply a means to an end—not the end itself.

The people look at it similarly. They do not discuss the cost or the method; they want results. The value of Kansas' oil is not one-tenth that of its wheat nor one-eighth that of its corn, but the success of the field affects directly to some extent about thirty thousand people,—investors, land-owners, and laborers.

"Everything I possess is tied up in my oil wells," said one of the producers, "but I would willingly let my wells stay plugged up for ten years rather than have the Standard win out."

Had refined oil dropped in proportion to the crude product,—had prices decreased in the Eastern field also, and not in Kansas alone, there would have been no State refinery.

THE COMPANY'S CASE.

The Standard Oil Company, in a statement issued on March 6, replying to the assertions made by the Kansas producers, says that the new laws are such that "compliance with them is an utter impossibility," and it adds that "the agitation has not been on the part of legitimate producers, but principally by overcapitalized stock companies." The company says that it had on January 1, 1905, an investment in equipment for the Kansas field of \$4,782,286; that it owned oil on hand 4,839,574 barrels, costing \$4,719,705, but worth at market prices only \$3,638,267. It says it has contracts for its Whiting pipe line and other improvements making a total investment of \$13,964,278. It estimates that the total investment required is fully \$15,000,000. Explaining the decrease in price, it says the increase in stocks of crude oil for the Kansas field in 1904 was 4,488,462 barrels. The tankage for this cost 22 cents a barrel. The January production of the field was 25,602 barrels; the refineries and shipment took 10,175 barrels; stored in tanks, 15,426 barrels. The present accumulation of oil in storage is declared to be sufficient to last two years "with present facilities." The company further states that "notwithstanding the enormous overproduction in the Kansas-Indian Territory field, the decline in price has been relatively no greater, considering the quality of the oil produced, than the decline has been in other producing sections of the country."

THE QUESTION OF FREIGHT RATES.

Following this statement, on March 8, came an order to buy only oil testing 30 and above. This in effect makes unsalable to the Standard the larger part of the Kansas oil. The producers

have been thereby made more determined, and mass meetings and conventions to express their feelings have been held.

The first fruits of the new order of things for the independent refiner came on March 6, when the Webster refinery shipped its first car of oil under the new maximum freight-rate law. Said the manager: "For twenty-seven years I have been fighting the trust; now I am getting as good rates as it has. The old rate on oil to Kansas City was 17 cents; now it is 8½ cents. On our first car, the freight was \$27.60; the old rate was \$78.34, a saving of \$50.74. Barrel lots cost us 16 to 18 cents; the former rate was 60 cents to \$1.00. I am going to increase the capacity of my plant to 12,000 barrels a month."

WHAT A STATE REFINERY MAY DO.

The Kansas State oil refinery will handle 2,000 barrels of oil daily; the field can produce 35,000 barrels. Several independent refineries are in prospect, but not nearly enough to handle the entire output. What, then, is to be the benefit?

The Standard has partially resumed buying in the Kansas field, and is likely to reach its former purchases soon. The comparatively small purchases of the State refinery cannot materially raise the price of crude oil. Its output cannot reduce the price to consumers generally, though it will do so in communities reached. But this it will do: it will demonstrate to the world the exact cost of refining oil; it will publish the profits broadcast,—something independent refineries, with the Standard limiting even the amount of crude oil they might have, could not do: it will encourage independent establishments, and these may, under the new statutes, be assured of fair transportation rates. If the Standard pays too high a price for oil, or undersells with the refined product, the State may shut down its plant, confident that it is giving the people ample return. In two years the legislature will meet again, and imperfections in the statutes and plans will then be corrected.

Kansas is in earnest; it means to win this battle. It is a business proposition primarily; but in the present state of public sentiment it also involves a principle. It has already awakened nation-wide sentiment; it may be the definite starting-point of a victory for fair play that will mark a new era in government. Kansas will try hard to achieve such an outcome from its undertaking. Its people are willing to spend \$410,000 to find out what can be done. Not all approve the State's entrance on business enterprise, but the sentiment for fighting out the battle to the end, now that it has begun, is practically unanimous.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

MR. BALFOUR IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TO many people, the most interesting figure in the British House of Commons at the present moment is the prime minister. Dr. Macnamara, the Liberal member of Parliament, gives, in the March number of the *Pall Mall Magazine*, a picture of Mr. Balfour as seen from the opposition benches. To him, the prime minister is a fascinating personality "because of his rare intellectual qualities, his charm of manner, his interesting appearance, his fine voice, and his very acute dialectical abilities."

In the matter of pure intellect, Dr. Macnamara goes so far as to consider him the greatest man in the House of Commons. But he is a loungeur, physically and intellectually, and he is only indomitable when he pleases.

As a debater, Mr. Balfour is not the most convincing, but he is the most interesting.

Mr. Chamberlain is easily the most thoroughly keen, alert, quick, and relentless opponent in debate. Mr. Asquith comes next, though his movements are slower and his style a little ponderous. As a mere debater, Mr. Balfour comes next. But he does not by any means carry conviction to the mind. He will turn aside the threatened disaster with an ingenuity that is the envy of all his hearers and the admiration of most of them. He will, in the most childlike and bland way, raise you false issues by the score, and demolish them in fine frenzy amid the enthusiastic applause of his followers. Out of their swollen lobby they will tumble laughing hilari-

ously at the way "Arthur Balfour" once more poured ridicule upon the other fellows. It is very, very clever.

But I regret to say,—and say it I must, if I am to be frank,—that the same "Arthur Balfour" has a great knack of making a most brilliantly worded, vigorously delivered, and entirely conclusive speech which will knock into the most paralyzed of all cocked hats something which the man opposite has never advanced at all; though I admit it is something which comes curiously near, and is yet curiously far from, what he actually *did* say!

At "question time," again, Dr. Macnamara finds Mr. Balfour an interesting study.

Mr. Balfour strolls lackadaisically in at about twenty minutes to 3 (questions begin at 2:15 A.M., but *his* are always thoughtfully arranged to be taken last). He brings with him a great sheaf of replies, typewritten in the various departments.

"Question No. 34 to the prime minister, Mr. Speaker!" says the interrogator. Not infrequently his colleagues on both sides of him have to nudge the prime minister to call his attention to the fact that his questions have been reached.

"Oh, *me!*" he says, getting up, refixing his *pince-nez* and rapidly fumbling with the sheets in his hands. The sheets

will be rearranged once or twice; then three or four of the treasury-bench men and half the opposition will sing out "34!" "Oh, yes, 34! Of course! Exactly!" And the prime minister will read out the answer, or rather will rapidly paraphrase for himself the departmental reply.

Dr. Macnamara thinks that a kind of intellectual vanity makes Mr. Balfour dislike to read another man's answer precisely as it has been couched.



DAMOCLES THE INDIFFERENT.

ARTHUR B. DAMOCLES: "Ah! Same old sword."
From *Punch* (London).

THE PREMIER'S MANNER IN DEBATE.

In debate, Mr. Balfour's favorite posture is to stand with each hand gripping a lapel of his frock coat. He is free with gesture which is not always elegant, and thumps the dispatch-box, or the palm of the other hand, with the side of his open hand far more often than with the closed fist. He makes a point of catching all interruptions, most of which he turns to enormous advantage, and promptly "gives way" should any opponent, no matter how obscure, wish to rise to make a personal correction.

To say that the prime minister is famous for his considerate and courteous demeanor is wholly unneces-

sary. Everybody knows that his charm of manner is one of his most delightful qualities. He is also most approachable. That he is a generous opponent the House of Commons well knows. During the long debates of 1902, no one hung on to him longer or with more persistence than did Mr. Lloyd-George. Yet at the close Mr. Balfour paid the little Welshman a handsome compliment, which, strangely enough, has given Mr. George a much improved standing in Wales, where the author of that compliment is not—politically, at any rate—held in particularly high esteem! It is a queer world, and those who are engaged in politics occupy not the least amusing of its corners.

IS CALCUTTA TO BE THE FUTURE CENTER OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE?

A VAST and subtle world-policy (the actual existence of which is as yet little more than speculation) according to which the center of the British Empire is to be shifted from England to India, from London to Calcutta, is the idea entertainingly set forth by the well-known political and economic writer, M. Alexander Ular, in *La Revue*, under the title "Mysterious India and the Anglo-Russian Rivalry." Taking for his text a remark of Lord Curzon, viceroy of India, in a recent speech, to the effect that "Passing events, little by little, are drawing India, heretofore so far away and isolated, into the vortex of world-politics," M. Ular outlines the main features of what he calls the Titanic struggle between Great Britain and Russia for the hegemony of Asia. He can see in almost all of the political developments of the past twenty-five years, in Asia and eastern Europe, indications that this mighty struggle is on. Even the Morocco problem, the outrages in Macedonia and Armenia, and the South African war, are connected vitally, if indirectly, with the vast problem of the domination of Asia. At the present hour, he declares, the struggle between England and Russia is really the pivot of history. Its larger lines can be seen through the smoke and blood of the ferocity in Manchuria. The eventual militarization of China and the pan-Mongol imperialism of Japan are only phases of the great contest.

During the past three or four years, says this writer, the struggle has seemed to be going against England. The traditional British faith in England's commercial and financial superiority has been somewhat shaken by the events in South Africa, and this great South African enterprise has, for the moment, brought about what seems to be an astonishing inaction in the

face of the systematic advance of Russia. The policies of the two rivals are radically different. The agents of English supremacy are always the votaries of commerce,—her warriors are always merchants. The British colonies, particularly her marvelous Asiatic empire, owe their existence to economic conditions and to the economic enterprise of citizens, acting upon purely individual initiative, and so long as other nations have not appeared to act in the same manner England felt no solicitude about her leadership in the Orient.

The Russian expansion across Asia has been accomplished by a method absolutely different. The Russian method has been a curious popular infiltration, a method which has, during the past two centuries, given the empire (one might say almost automatically) complete possession of Siberia. Instead of sending commercial agents who would exchange values for the enrichment of her home metropolis, Russia has been transporting peasants and soldiers, and has imposed on the countries she has absorbed her own imperial administration. It is peasant Russia which has led and really made up this expansion to the eastward, which has not contributed to the wealth of the Russian people. The peasant has no longer been a Russian, but has become, to a degree, a Siberian and an Asiatic, while the Englishman is always an Englishman. The Russian method of colonization by infiltration is an absolutely natural one, but the advantages accruing to the empire too often reduce themselves to a vague prestige, purely political. One feature of the Russian advance has been the close commercial policy, which, of course, has meant the exclusion of the commerce and industry of Great Britain. On the other hand, the world-policy of England "lives and dies with the



THE SENTINEL.

India's position as outlined by Lord Curzon in his review of five years of Indian administration.

From *Hindi Punch* (Calcutta).

principle of the open door," and, "since Russian conquest always and everywhere means the closed door, the rapid political expansion, and not less the economic, of the Russian possessions always seems to Englishmen to be a peril extremely grave for the economic future of Great Britain."

When, in 1900, Russia began to absorb Manchuria and gain preponderance at the courts of Peking and Seoul, she also acquired in some mysterious but effective way a sort of suzerainty over the entire Buddhist world. This, despite appearances to the contrary, M. Ular believes, awakened Great Britain to the danger of inaction. At this point, Curzon (for whom this French writer has great admiration) began to act on his world-policy of making India the center of a vast activity which should finally result in providing a new center to check the Russian advance southward in Asia. India, says this writer, is an autocracy; it has no parliament, but is governed by the one man,—the viceroy. Therefore, his capital is an excellent *point d'appui* from which to spread imperialistic policy. Not only is India the vortex, but it is the vertex, of the world's politics. "The extreme sagacity of

the English statesmen, who have really accepted the displacement of the center of gravity for their imperial politics from London to Calcutta, is a model for the rest of the world." To make India the center of imperial action is, it might be said, almost to nullify all Russia's efforts. The direction of Russian affairs is always, and probably must be, localized at St. Petersburg. "The more Russia advances, and the more her enterprises are undertaken at vast distances from the capital, the weaker does the head of the empire become, and the more grave the problem of keeping the extremities of the empire in vital, effective connection with the capital." Asiatic Russia has no center,—it is an agglomeration of ethnic and political elements which must be kept down by fear. On the other hand, Great Britain relies on the positive assent of her colonies.

WHAT ENGLAND MUST DO.

The first step in the new policy for Great Britain will be to abandon, so far as Asia is concerned, the idea of a Greater Britain, and India must be created and developed an "India tentacular,"—an octopus whose political arms shall stretch over the entire Asiatic continent.

It would be interesting, if space permitted, to follow the details patiently recounted by M. Ular from recent history to prove the existence of a definite British plan to control all the routes to India and to spread Indian influence. The entire field of Eastern politics is traversed. France is given a free hand in Morocco that she may take her eyes off Egypt, from which England is securing her base of intrigue against Arabia. Persia, Afghanistan, and Beluchistan are all being "ear-marked" by British influence, and the Tibetan expedition was, in the opinion of this French writer, only one of the well-planned moves to the north. The control of Cairo gives England the head source of Mohammedan inspiration. She now practically has the Red Sea. Turkey is her dependency, and the British attitude in regard to Macedonia, of late years, has convinced the Sublime Porte that Great Britain is her friend. Therefore, German intrigue in the Holy Land will avail nothing. It was due to the blunders of M. Hanotaux, ex-French minister of foreign affairs (this writer claims), that Great Britain acquired her preponderance in Arabia. On the whole, the writer believes that England, at present, has the upper hand. What the future will bring forth he does not prophesy, but he insists on the reality and tremendous import of the struggle between Saxon and Slav for the domination of the world's greatest continent.

WHY SHOULD NOT GERMANY AND ENGLAND BE FRIENDS?

THE activity of the British National Service League, under the presidency of the Duke of Wellington, is made the text of an article chiefly devoted to a consideration of the history and prospects of the relations between Germany and England, by Dr. Theodore Schiemann, in the *Deutsche Monatschrift* (Berlin). The leading objects of the league are summarized as follows :

(a) To inspire the nation, through individual training, with a fuller consciousness of civic duty and responsibility ; (b) to counteract the physical and moral degeneracy produced by living in overpopulated cities ; (c) to take measures to furnish, at not too great expense, by training the inhabitants, an extensive and elastic reserve to aid the army and navy, and, by accustoming the boys to military exercises at an early age, to facilitate the recruiting of the regular army ; (d) to diminish the possibility of hostile invasion, and thereby ward off the feeling of national insecurity, with its attendant fears and danger of panic.

With the purposes of the league Dr. Schiemann expresses the most unqualified sympathy, accepting its own view that its work is the best defense against jingoism and safeguard of peace. He says :

It is undoubtedly a project of high ethical significance and genuine patriotism that confronts us here, and all those among us who contemplate the great problems of world policy in their connection will wish that the Duke of Wellington and those who share his views may carry their work to a successful conclusion. "Hooliganism" and jingoism, which have of late thrust their way to the front with such presumption and caused so much uneasiness, find no place where military discipline has conduced to self-control and the consciousness of one's responsibility, and the knowledge that one has to answer with one's life and that of his nearest and dearest, for the political policies adopted by the state of which he is a member.

Passing on to a consideration of the relations between England and Germany, the writer cites numerous illustrations of the unfriendliness with which England witnessed the rapid and impressive rise of Prussia into international greatness, from the time of the Schleswig-Holstein war of 1864 ; and in connection with this—with an implied, though not expressed, reference to corresponding jealousy on the part of Germany—he sketches the imperial growth of England during "the Disraeli era." All these things, however, he says, did not seriously disturb the relations between the two countries. He proceeds :

It was only in 1884, when Germany, with its colonial aspirations, entered the sphere of world-politics, that England began to oppose her, and it required the exercise of great firmness and patience to convert the Eng-

lish opposition which pursued us at every step, based on the unheard-of fact that Germany, too, desired to become a colonial power, to convert this opposition into approving recognition. We had to resign ourselves, during this process, of course, to many a painful renunciation ; notably in view of the possibilities of the future, since England proceeded, without any loss of time, to block our further advance by occupying contiguous territory. That this fact exercised a depressing effect upon us is notorious, but with what countenance would England have accepted our occupying—a thing very possible—the tracts north of Natal, thus forming a barrier to English advance? But that belongs to Caprivi's time, which cost us the reversion of Zanzibar, and which, as is still generally remembered, formed the culminating point of the friendly relations between the two powers. Even after that the official relations continued perfectly good, but commercial rivalry began to assert itself. Wilson's famous book "Made in Germany" gave drastic expression to the new tendency, which soon attained, as a culminating result, the adoption by the English Government of its proposal that all goods manufactured in Germany should bear the stamp, "Made in Germany." The hope was entertained that the English would, under any circumstances, give their own goods the preference. Events took, of course, quite a different turn. The projected boycotting changed into an unexpected "puff" for the solidity and efficiency of German industry. Not "cheap and bad," as a saying which cropped up at the time of the Philadelphia exposition, and which gained credence, wished to make one believe, but, overcoming all competition, German industry, since it appeared under its own name, has won its way not only in the emporiums of the world, but on that very English soil from which it was sought to be excluded.

With anti-German feeling thus awakened, came the episode of Emperor William's telegram to Krüger, on the occasion of the Jameson raid, which inflamed public sentiment in the highest degree against Germany and the Kaiser. On the other hand, when the South African war broke out, Germany, in common with almost the entire continent, sympathized intensely with the Boer republics,—a further source of international bitterness and ill-feeling. To this condition of mind Dr. Schiemann traces the agitation in England, which looks upon Germany as a most dangerous enemy, and which has had its echo in a corresponding agitation in Germany. He devotes special attention to the endeavors in certain English journals to promote an Anglo-Russian, and even an Anglo-France-Russian alliance. Thus far, he continues, all this is only "press politics ;" but that it is not to be taken lightly, he maintains, is demonstrated by the warnings that Mr. Balfour, on the one hand, and Count von Bülow, on the other, have found it necessary to utter as to the danger that lies in the inflaming of international animosities. The concluding passage of the article brings Anglo-



ANGLO-GERMAN RELATIONS.

"This sort of thing is becoming tiresome: it is time one gave place to the other."—From *Le Grelot* (Paris).

American relations into connection with the subject :

Ashley ("The Tariff Problem") distinctly declares that he understands the conflicting interests which divide the two countries (England and the United States) through personal experience. The coquetting with American friendship is but a sham to frighten others. In another place he points directly to the possibility that Canada may fall into the hands of the United States. Schmaller very justly adds, "That country [the

United States] constitutes the real danger for England. From it alone has Great Britain again and again suffered defeats. . . . The English fear the Yankees, and therefore they prefer to vent their displeasure on others." And in the semi-official work of Wheles "The Third Salisbury Administration," we find a veritable sample collection of anti-American sayings. So, as to that friendship, there is nothing in it. But as to the end to be aimed at in German-English relations, one must agree entirely with Ashley as well as with Delbrück. Both desire good relations between the two countries, Ashley even raising the question of a possible alliance.

We do not perceive any real interests of Germany or Great Britain which would conflict with that, but we believe that a considerable time must elapse before the echo of the wicked and malicious agitation of the *Times* and its affiliated brethren of the press will cease to be felt. *Semper aliquid haeret audacter calumniando*, and we are still far removed from the time when the fine sentiment which President Roosevelt expressed at the unveiling of the Frederick the Great monument: "The prosperity of one nation is not a threat to another, but a hope," shall have become the spiritual possession of the world. . . .

There is no essential antagonism between us and England. In us both the spiritual ideals of Protestantism have found their purest expression and borne the noblest fruit in science, in art, in literature, and in workmanship. Both are brave and manly nations: the world is not so small that they cannot both contend for honors. United, they present the most powerful combination possible to-day. Why should they not join hands?

A JAPANESE LABOR LEADER ON THE AMERICAN LABOR MOVEMENT.

AS the recognized leader of the labor movement in Japan and the representative of Japanese Socialists at the International Socialist Congress held in Amsterdam last summer, Mr. J. S. Katayama, who is now in this country studying social problems, ought to be listened to with particular interest in whatever he has to say with regard to American labor leaders and movements. His article on "The American Labor Problem and Socialism," appearing in the latest issue of the *Shakwai-Shugi*, or the *Socialist* (Tokio), is a plain and frank criticism of the existing status of the trade-unions and their leaders in the United States as he sees them. It cannot be gainsaid, this Japanese Socialist declares, that the power of American labor unions is steadily growing. In his opinion, the increase of wages in the United States has not kept pace with the advance of the cost of living, while "recurrent strikes have resulted in nothing but the growing miseries of the working class, despite the apparent growth of the influence of labor unions." Mr. Katayama

does not favor the exclusive policy adopted by almost all labor unions, which jealously shut their doors against the incoming laborers, whether domestic or foreign. As to the personality of the most prominent labor leaders in the United States, he says :

The American coal miners' union, under the leadership of Mr. John Mitchell, does not stand on a common ground with the Western coal miners' union, which, guided by the platform of socialism, is more progressive and militant than its assumed ally in the East. Nor is the American Federation of Labor in harmony with the socialistic coal miners in the West. All labor leaders have risen from a class in behalf of which they propose to fight. But when a workingman attains to a position where he holds a commanding scepter at the head of hundreds of thousands of his fellow-workingmen, he is no longer a laborer. His influence becomes so great that even capitalists not infrequently find it impossible not to solicit his favor. His temptation often is such as to make him sacrifice even the purpose and interest for which he had vowed to stand.

Presidents Mitchell and Gompers, the Japanese labor leader asserts, have sometimes "come to



J. S. KATAYAMA, THE JAPANESE LABOR LEADER, WHO RECENTLY VISITED THE UNITED STATES.

a secret understanding with capitalists, ignoring an interest which they are intrusted to represent, under the pretension of expediency resorted to in order to 'harmonize' capital and labor. It is lamentable, indeed, that these gentlemen are contemptuously regarded by the most intelligent class of laborers as tools of the capitalist class."

TRADE-UNIONISM NOT THE REDEMPTION OF THE WORKING CLASS.

That trade-unionism will never be the redeemer of the workingman, Mr. Katayama

believes to be a patent fact. He admits that the organization of laborers is of vital importance so long as the existing social system is in vogue. In the meantime, he does not lose sight of the fact that such an organization is simply a means to an end. Neither is he ignorant of many anomalous effects emanating from trade-unions. He says :

The carpenters' union of Chicago is the most powerful of trade-unions in American cities. Abusing this powerful instrumentality, this organization has absolutely denied non-union carpenters an opportunity to work, besides jealously preventing the increase in the number of fellow-workmen by ill-treating, even ousting, new-comers from outside. Their fellowship is limited within the narrow circle of their union ; outside of it, they are extremely selfish and intolerant. Such an exclusive measure is necessary to a greater or lesser degree in order to realize the purpose of trade-union, but when it is carried to such an extreme as in the case of the Chicago carpenters' union it cannot but lose the public sympathy, which is essential to the successful movement against the capitalist class.

The writer gives the above instance as simply one of numerous similar cases in the record of American trade-unions. The only means to deliver the American workingmen from this anomalous situation Mr. Katayama finds in their adoption of a socialistic platform. The serious drawback to the American socialistic movement, he believes, is the lack of competent and adequate leadership. Such a man as Eugene Debs, "undaunted and fearless as he is, is still to be recruited from among laborers, who, as a rule, are interested in trade-unionism rather than in socialism. Let him speak ill of the platform of the trade-union and he will be sure to lose the sympathy of by far the greatest portion of the workmen."

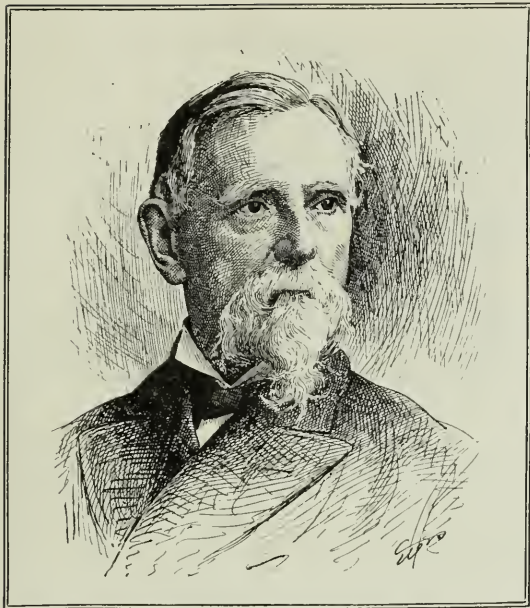
WAS LEW WALLACE "AN ORIENTAL WITH MEDIEVAL TASTES?"

A BIOGRAPHY and character sketch of the late Gen. Lew Wallace appears in the current number of the *Reader Magazine*. The truest thing that may be said about the late soldier-author, in whose character there were many interesting contradictions, is, according to the writer of this article (Meredith Nicholson), that he was an Oriental with medieval tastes,—a kind of American Sir Richard Burton.

Caravans and pilgrimages and the dialects of the desert were wholly within the range of his interests and sympathies. When he went to represent his country at Constantinople it was as though an exile were going home. The Oriental element in his character, borne

out strikingly in his personal appearance, was further emphasized by a grace and dignity of speech as natural as it was charming. He was thoroughly democratic in his tastes and ideals, and always approachable ; but the common currency of anecdote, the floating gossip of the town, was not for him. He liked the serious discourse that belongs to the unhurried hour, the fireside, an unobtrusive light and a good cigar. He could build up with convincing vividness an Oriental scene, or describe a military maneuver until the listener heard the tramp of armed men.

A dignified and meritorious, but not brilliant, military career was Wallace's, says Mr. Nicholson. His record in the Mexican War and in the War of the Rebellion is a fine one, but not dra-



THE LATE GEN. LEW WALLACE.

matic. A tribute to the discipline and efficiency of his regiment of Indiana volunteers is the fact that practically every man who enrolled in it won a commission, many attaining high rank. He had no taste or capacity for politics. He once failed for election to Congress, and, indeed, was never elected to any office of importance; but President Hayes made him governor of New Mexico, and President Garfield sent him as minister to Turkey, writing across his commission "Ben Hur," to indicate that the appointment was not a recognition of merely political or military services. The writer of this article declares

that he has it on the authority of General Wallace's own word that it was a conversation with the famous infidel, Robert G. Ingersoll, which suggested to him the writing of the famous novel, "Ben Hur."

To the literary critic, who is "so prone to warn the common herd that popularity is in itself no proof of merit," and also to the "mere reader of books who believes that it is much easier to be a critic than to be a popular novelist," the writer of this article has this to say about the book which holds the record for the largest sale ever scored by a copyright novel:

The sneer, repeated since General Wallace's death, that his book is classic only to the provincial church-goer,—the village class leader and Sunday-school superintendent,—does not account for the fact that it has been translated into every European tongue, and into Arabic and Japanese, or that Pope Leo read and praised it. Its success was not due so much to the fact that the greatest figure in history was brought into it (and with infinite tact and reverence), but that it is above everything else a story, and one of strong fiber and vigorous dramatic interest. It is the work of a martial hand, and those who dismiss it as an auxiliary reading book for village Sunday-schools are hard pushed for ammunition. "Ben-Hur" has undoubtedly found favor among the great body of American church-going people, but General Wallace was certainly not a sentimental religionist, though he was, it may be said, a sincere Christian believer. . . . Many go down defending the battered shield of romance,—but many more stand ready to ride into the arena. Critics of repute declare that Scott was no artist; and many more have forgotten that Bulwer Lytton ever lived. D'Artagnan and the three are daily forced to put their backs to the wall and fight for the honor of Dumas. Lew Wallace found a fragment of the cloak of Scott and threw it about his own shoulders. He was of a generation to whom "Ivanhoe" was a classic beyond question or cavil, and he grew up among books in an atmosphere where the claims of Scott to be called poet were never debated.

DON QUIXOTE'S ANNIVERSARY.

THE present year marks the tercentenary of the first publication of "Don Quixote." In recognition of this anniversary the London *Bookman* for February is a "Cervantes" number.

Maj. Martin Hume, who contributes the first article, is a Cervantes enthusiast. He gives an account of the life of Cervantes and the circumstances connected with the creation of his immortal book. From his boyhood, Cervantes had written verse, but it was in a pastoral romance, "Galatea," that he made his first serious bid for fame. The story found little vogue in Spain, yet the author described it as his darling work to the last hour of his life. He next turned his

attention to the stage, and wrote a number of dramas, but the actors would not play his pieces. Persecution and poverty dogged his steps all his life, but he never lost faith in his work.

SANCHO PANZA.

It was probably about 1592 that "Don Quixote" was begun, and though at first it was doubtless intended to be a book of moderate length, the creation grew page by page, amid toil and trouble untellable, and was not published till January, 1605. Major Hume tells how Sancho Panza was introduced into the story:



CERVANTES.

At first there was no Squire Sancho, and, indeed, none would have been needed if the original plan of a short satire of the chivalric romance had been adhered to.

When the tale developed into a realistic portrayal of

contemporary Spain, contrasted with the romantic figments suggested by a great national aberration, a figure to personify the prosaic reality was necessary as a foil to the exalted hallucinations of Don Quixote, and Sancho came into existence, without whom his master would have lost half his significance.

Quixote, indeed, may be taken as a personification of the Spanish people under the influence of the false sixteenth-century ideals that ruined them, and Sancho of the permanent, solid element of the nation when the gilded dream had fled.

WHERE "DON QUIXOTE" WAS WRITTEN.

Mr. Henry Bernard, who follows Major Hume, entitles his article "The Hunting Ground of Don Quixote." He describes the scenes of Don Quixote's adventures, and also identifies the birthplace of the book. He says:

Argamasilla's principal boast is the Casa de Medrano, which has been judged worthy of preservation. There seems to be no dispute that here in the prison-like harem Cervantes was held in captivity. But how much he wrought in this dark cell, whose ceiling is but seven feet from the earthen floor, must remain undecided; the most careful of historians will admit that in this place the book was probably conceived, for the prologue to the first part informs us that it was "engendered in prison." . . . The prevailing faith is a mere matter of degree, it being held by the most advanced school that the Casa de Medrano is the birthplace, not only of the first part of the book and of the second, which was written ten years later, but also of every episode in the life of Cervantes, including the battle of Lepanto.

THE ITALIAN STATESMAN, CRISPI, AS SEEN BY HIS COMPATRIOTS.

THE unveiling of a monument by Rutelli to Francesco Crispi in a square at Palermo renamed after the dead statesman has called forth a number of articles in the Italian reviews. The *Rivista di Roma* (Rome) devotes a special number to Crispi. The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) discusses "Crispi, Minister of Foreign Affairs," in an extended illustrated article. Mario Mandalari, in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome), gives a number of unpublished documents referring to Crispi, and a brief estimate of the man, part of which we quote:

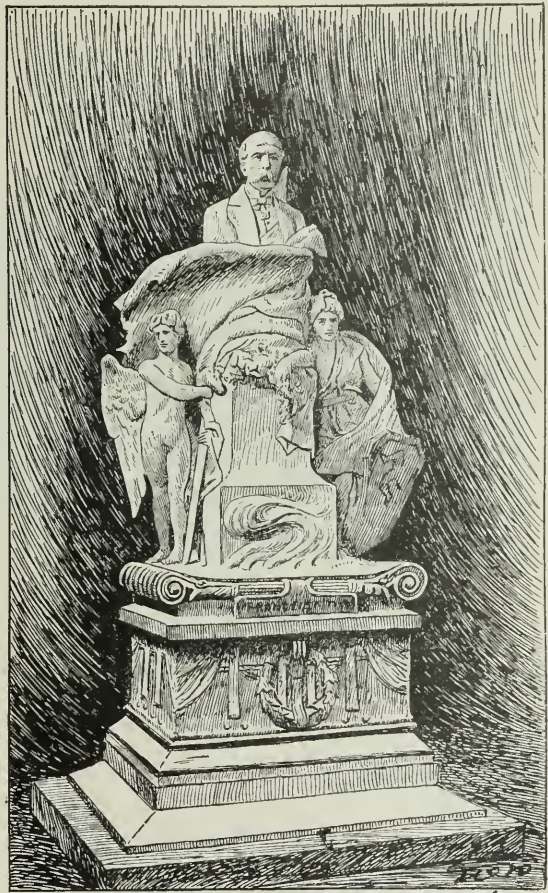
Francesco Crispi always inspired fear; that is all. And he inspired fear because he always remained a sectary and a conspirator; that he was before 1848; that he was after 1853. No one was ever able to read wholly and clearly the thoughts of Crispi, hence the fear that he always inspired in friends and adversaries. In his brain one thought dominated,—that of the greatness of his country. All the other thoughts came and went, appeared and disappeared, like vapor in a boiling kettle. Since he had helped to increase the greatness of the country, he had a great conception of himself. And

since the expedition of Marsala would not have been made without his work, as exile, he placed himself, in his own mind, between Garibaldi and Mazzini. Cavour was in the second rank, and also Victor Emmanuel. This conception of himself he wished to impose on others in speaking, discussing, walking, governing; in friendly conversations, in meetings, and in ministerial audiences. Consequently, it is proper to say that Crispi never enjoyed the complete faith and sympathy of the sovereign whose minister he was. His coöperation in the government was always imposed by extraordinary events of internal or foreign politics, and was never due to parliamentary revolutions or to personal sympathy. However, the extraordinary events of 1878 made of Crispi one of the strongest, most audacious and original statesmen of Europe during the nineteenth century.

In another number of the *Italia Moderna* is given much of the address by Prof. Giorgio Arcoleo, Senator, pronounced at the unveiling of the monument. Senator Arcoleo calls Crispi "one of the most singular men of new Italy" and says "serene judgment of his complex figure can hardly yet be given." The speaker was in some things his political opponent, and

so cannot be accused of partiality. We give a few of his most striking sentences :

From his Sicilian birth he drew, accentuated, the ethnic qualities of intuition, rapid action, rebellious instinct, audacity, impatience of analysis, indomitable self-faith, a fascination for great names and great things,—erratic energies tending to a single goal ; Sicilian fiber and Italian soul. He alone of the grand battalion traversed all the vicissitudes of Italian public life, from revolution, that changed the political orders, to evolution, that has created social orders. Therefore, he had Protean aspect, like the deeds that preceded the programmes with alternate fates of victory and defeat, in the midst of conflict of principles and interests, of sentiments and designs. He appeared as revolutionist and constitutionalist, democrat and autocrat, tribune and dictator, lover of the people and despiser of the populace. He began as a republican and ended as a monarchist. He followed Mazzini in the name of liberty, King Victor Emmanuel in the name of unity, and passed from the *comizio* to the assembly, from factions to the government, from the barricades to the state of siege, not without contradiction of means, but always consistent in the goal, for in him the idea of the fatherland illumined his mind and moved his soul and his arm. Agitator and fugitive, struggling for the people, he was never popular. Rigid and autocratic man of government, he was hated by the moderates ; precursor of the advanced parties, he was their rude butt. Obeyed and served by vast majorities when in the government, the morrow of his fall he was alone. He rallied voters, but did not form parties. The excesses of his attacks multiplied his enemies ; the excess of his commands lessened his friends. Such was his character, shy of praise ; such his style, devoid of phrases ; such his life, devoid of pleasures. To King Ferdinand, to whom he appeared haughty, he replied, "I seek justice, not thanks." To Garibaldi, hesitating over an expedition, he declared, "I guarantee Sicily on my life." To his old companions who urged him to conspiracy, he replied, "After plebiscites, factions and insurrections are anachronisms." To Mazzini, who counseled him to agitate in Parliament for the ancient faith, he responded, "It is repugnant to my conscience that a conspirator should conceal himself under the coat of a legislator." To those who asked him of what party he was, he replied, "I am Crispi." To Bismarck, who quizzed him



THE MONUMENT TO FRANCESCO CRISPI (BY RUTELLI)
RECENTLY UNVEILED IN PALERMO.

about unknown Africa, "I found it and I keep it." Accused of failing in reforms, he rejoined, "A government does what it can, not what it wishes." These are not phrases, but indexes of the same energy,—sides of the polyhedron. Pride is revealed, but also character.

PROPOSED STATE CONTROL OF ITALIAN RAILWAYS.

THE present Italian ministry announces semi-officially that, owing to inability to agree with the railroad companies on a new arrangement for the private operation of the roads, the state will, on July 1, assume control of all the systems except the south Italy railroads, according to the provisions of the law of 1862. As the present concession has been in effect since 1885, an entirely new order of things is proposed, and views as to what is really best to do are various. Editors, authors, and magazine writers are busy informing the public as to present

facts and best future policies. Deputy Maggiorini Ferraris, editor of the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), in the first number of his review for January, discusses "How People Travel in Italy and Abroad," and, by comparative tables, makes a bad showing for Italy. In the number of trips per inhabitant, Italy is ahead of only Russia and Roumania. Its average is 1.82, while in England it is 27.40. Comparing the number of trips with their average length, which is greater in Italy than in several other countries, it still results that Austria makes three times the use

of railroads that Italy does, France four times, and Switzerland about six times. In length of railroads, Italy, with 15,494 kilometers, ranks after Hungary, exceeding only little Belgium and Switzerland. In proportion of the length of lines to population, Italy is at the bottom of the list, with 47 kilometers per 100,000 inhabitants, while Switzerland has 113.1 kilometers. Comparing passenger rates, Italy proves to have the highest of any country in Europe for all classes, and particularly for third-class.

In his second January number, Signor Ferraris treats at great length "Railroad Anarchy in Italy," and shows that the condition of the roads, of their rolling stock and fixed plant, is anything but advantageous for the government if it should take them over, owing to the vacillating and penurious policies in the past.

The performances of passenger cars and locomotives are considerably over the normal set in the agreements with the operating companies. This argues a constant deficiency of rolling stock. The age limit set for locomotives was forty years, and for cars sixty years, seemingly ample, but the Mediterranean line is actually using seventy-one locomotives that have passed their twoscore-year mark, at a great waste of fuel, naturally. There is continual car shortage, and reception of freight is often stopped at various stations on account of this. Delays in freight shipments are so numerous that complaints arrive by the thousand, and so many claims are made for refund because shipping agreements have not been carried out that thousands of shipments are actually carried free, and more would be if every shipper knew his rights. Many lines are still single-track, and the lack of centrally operated switches and block signals causes much congestion. The rails are too light to allow the use of heavy, high-speed locomotives. This has been especially so on the stretch from Pisa to Rome, where otherwise high speed with few stops could be maintained.

In short, the writer finds that the income of the railways is the least in Europe, the trains are the slowest, and the rolling stock is in the worst condition. The arrangements with the operating companies have failed financially, economically, and technically, and have left the nation with a deficit of several hundred million francs. Travel, commerce, and industry all languish through the shortsighted management. The companies fear to make improvements at the expense of their shareholders and for the benefit of the state. The state fears to spend the taxpayers' money for the benefit of the companies. Signor Ferraris considers any postponement of state control a step backward. The south Italy lines should be gathered in with the others as soon as a basis of agreement can be reached, and the maritime postal lines connecting the islands should later be included.

A writer signing only "E. B." in the *Ras-*

segna Nazionale urges the incompatibility of the taking over of the railroads with the announced governmental policy of the conversion of the public debt. Although the minister of the treasury declares its ability to redeem the railroads and put them in good order without a new issue of securities, this writer thinks it risky to engage the whole elasticity of the financial system in this one affair. Many financial questions between the government and the operating companies remain unsettled, and if these be taken into court, or even to arbiters, the government will probably have to pay more than if some agreement can be reached without a rupture of negotiations.

In the *Nuova Antologia*, again, "Vigile" (Vigilant) examines the question of the redemption of the south Italy lines, and concludes that it would be unjustifiable and a waste of public money to redeem under the contractual terms, to which alone the railroad is obliged to submit. If more equitable terms could be arranged, it might be advisable.

RESULTS OF SWISS STATE CONTROL.

In connection with the Italian project and our own situation as to railroad control, the results of nationalization of the Swiss railways are interesting. A summary is given by Gaston Ièze in the *Riforma Sociale*, based on an article by P. Charton in a French review. The taking over of all the roads except the Gothard occurred in 1903.

The balance sheets for 1903 of what were the Central, the Northeastern, the Swiss Union, and the Jura-Simplon lines, 2,433 kilometers, are available. These show an excess of receipts over expenses of 38,319,000 francs. The profit and loss account showed an excess of income of 1,030,000 francs, from which had to be taken 280,000 francs for the sinking fund for station-building and 250,000 francs for the personnel of three roads, leaving only half a million to be applied to 1904. The active remainder from 1902 of 1,114,000 francs was all that prevented a deficit of 84,000 francs for 1903. The expenses increased 9 per cent. over those of 1902, and by reason of the new law as to salaries and the usual increased expenses of state management, must go on increasing. The president of the council of administration, Von Arx, thinks the result for 1903 satisfactory. The trouble will begin when the payments on the sinking fund commence and the reduced freight and passenger tariffs have their full effect. For 1904, a deficit of 521,000 francs was estimated. Large expenditures for new work such as the Simplon tunnel and the Ricken cut, soon to be made, amount to 242,000,000 francs. These will require careful management in order not to overload the budget.

The benefits obtained by nationalization are stated to be: reduction of rates; amelioration of situation of employees, as to salary and permanency of work; betterment of service; enlargement or improvement of stations; the "amortization" of rolling stock in sixty years.



BRIDGE IN CHIVELA PASS, ON THE TEHUANTEPEC RAILWAY.

MEXICO'S ISTHMUS ROUTE.

PERHAPS few Americans are aware of the progress that has recently been made on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec in the direction of improving an important highway of commerce. President Diaz has just made a trip of inspection to the isthmus, and as a representative of the Mexican Government, which in partnership with a firm of English contractors has practically rebuilt the trans-isthmian railroad and transformed the terminal ports of Coatzacoalcos and Salina Cruz, has expressed his satisfaction with the construction work as now practically completed. A writer in *Modern Mexico* describes the president's tour of inspection, and sets forth some of the advantages of the Tehuantepec Railway route. The isthmus is situated in the southern portion of Mexico, in the states of Vera Cruz and Oaxaca. The distance from ocean to ocean, in a bee-line, is one hundred and twenty-five miles. One important topographical feature of the isthmian territory is its comparatively level character. The rise from the Atlantic or Gulf side is very gradual, and culminates in the Chivela Pass, at a height of only seven hundred and thirty feet, whence the descent to the Pacific is comparatively abrupt. The isthmus affords certain advantages for interoceanic communication. The writer in *Modern Mexico* holds that Tehuantepec is much nearer to the axial line of the world's trade than either Nicaragua or Panama, and to support this contention he gives the following table of distances in English miles between some of the chief commercial

ports of the world by the three American isthmuses :

	Via Tehuantepec.	Via Nicaragua.	Via Panama.
New York to San Francisco.....	4,925	5,651	6,107
New York to Puget Sound.....	5,647	6,524	6,855
New York to Sitka.....	6,347	7,115	7,555
New York to Bering Straits.....	7,788	8,524	9,101
New York to Acapulco.....	2,722	3,507	3,988
New York to Mazatlan.....	3,476	4,232	4,675
New York to Hongkong.....	11,587	12,513	12,645
New York to Yokohama.....	9,984	10,626	11,211
New York to Melbourne.....	11,068	11,557	11,471
New York to Auckland.....	9,345	9,745	9,813
New York to Honolulu.....	6,586	7,300	7,705
New Orleans to San Francisco.....	3,561	4,776	5,415
New Orleans to Acapulco.....	1,454	2,631	3,206
New Orleans to Mazatlan.....	2,027	3,337	3,983
Liverpool to San Francisco.....	8,274	8,783	9,071
Liverpool to Acapulco.....	6,076	6,639	6,952
Liverpool to Mazatlan.....	6,714	7,364	7,640
Liverpool to Auckland.....	12,584	12,877	12,777
Liverpool to Honolulu.....	9,805	10,522	10,670
Liverpool to Yokohama.....	13,223	13,758	14,175
Liverpool to Melbourne.....	14,113	14,499	14,435

It is claimed that the opening up of a trade route across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec will be of especial benefit to the middle West of the United States, and particularly the Mississippi Valley. The distance from the mouth of the Mississippi to the northern terminal of the Tehuantepec Railway is 810 miles, and the total distance by rail and water from Chicago to the Pacific Ocean by way of the Mexican isthmus is only 1,875 miles. The average saving in distance by the Tehuantepec route over Panama to all points on the Atlantic coast of the United States and Europe is about 1,250 miles. The



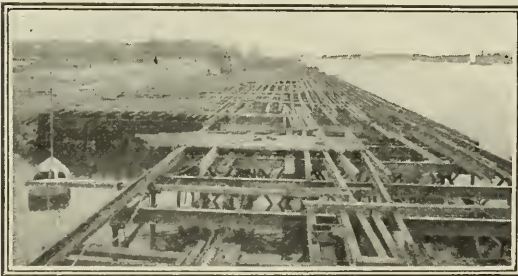
MAP OF THE TEHUANTEPEC RAILWAY.

writer of this article assumes that it will take a steamer about one day to pass through the Panama Canal, and the freight about two days to pass over Tehuantepec from ship to ship, but it is not clear whether the time consumed in loading and unloading in breaking cargo is included in this estimate of two days or not. If it is included, there would be an advantage to Tehuantepec of about four days.

The isthmus also has advantage over Panama in the matter of healthfulness of climate. For sailing vessels, also, the Panama Canal is under serious disadvantage owing to the calms which prevail on both shores opposite Panama.

HOW THE RAILROAD WAS BUILT.

This writer gives an extended account of the various projects for utilizing the Tehuantepec route, beginning with the early government surveys and coming down to the construction of the present railroad, and finally its recon-



STEEL WHARVES AT COATZACOALCOS.

struction under the auspices of the Mexican Government. The Mexican Congress, in the year 1896, authorized the government to enter into a contract with a private firm for the exploitation of the Tehuantepec Railway and terminal ports. According to an agreement made in 1902, the Mexican Republic and the firm of S. Pearson & Son (Ltd.) entered into a contract for fifty-one years, the corporate working capital of seven million dollars to be furnished in equal shares by the two parties. The following disposition is to be made of the annual corporate earnings: (1) payment of operating expenses, maintenance of track, etc., and the formation of a reserve fund for repairs; (2) payment of interest on loans; (3) payment to the two partners of an interest of 5 per cent. on the capital



PRESENT WOODEN PIER AT SALINA CRUZ.

furnished by them; (4) refundment of losses in the previous years which were charged to capital; (5) payment of interest at 5 per cent. per annum on the capital devoted to the Coatzacoalcos port works; (6) the surplus to be divisible between the government and the contractors, as follows: during the first thirty-six years, 65 per cent. to the government and 35 per cent. to the contractors; during the next five years, 68½ per cent. to the government and the balance to the contractors; during the next five years, 72½ per cent. to the government and the balance to the contractors; in the last five years, 76½ per cent. to the government and the balance to the contractors.

The railroad is said to be now in excellent physical condition. The main line between the two ports is about 193 miles long, and there is a branch line of 17 miles. On the main line, 118 miles are laid with steel rails eighty pounds to the yard, and the remainder with fifty-six-pound rails, although the latter are being replaced rapidly. The greater part of the line is ballasted with gravel and crushed rock. Nearly all of

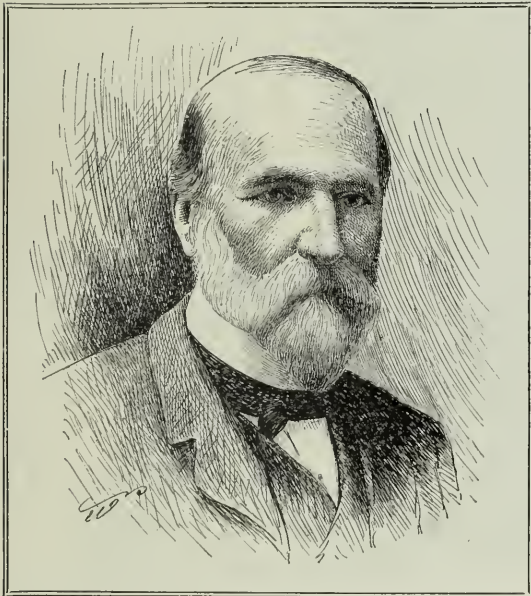
the bridges are of steel with solid masonry abutments. Oil is burned as fuel on this railway, being found to be about 30 per cent. cheaper than coal or wood. The minimum depth of water in the two harbors, after the completion of operations now in progress, will be not less than ten meters.

It is predicted in Mexico that the opening of the Tehuantepec route with its ports in full operation will bring about a large increase in the exchange of products between Mexican and Central Ameri-

can Pacific and Atlantic ports, as well as between the interior sections of Mexico and its Pacific States. The cost of transportation will be greatly reduced *via* the Tehuantepec route as compared with the long hauls *via* the railway lines, as at present. At the present time, traffic between Mexico City and Mexican Pacific ports moves *via* Mexican and United States railway lines through the crossings of the Rio Grande. The natural route for this traffic is by way of Salina Cruz and the Tehuantepec Railway.

THE CRÉDIT LYONNAIS AND ITS FOUNDER.

ATTENTION has been directed anew to the famous French banking institution, the *Crédit Lyonnais*, which has branches in all parts of the world, by the recent death of its founder, M. Henri Germain, the well-known French financier and politician.



THE LATE HENRI GERMAIN.

(Founder of the *Crédit Lyonnais*, who died on February 2, 1905, at the age of eighty-one.)

M. Germain was born in Lyons, in February, 1824. He had a useful public life, having been elected to the legislative corps for the Department of Ain in 1869. In 1871, he was a member of the National Assembly, which afterward became the Chamber of Deputies. In 1885, he was elected a member of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, publishing, successively,

works on parliamentary law, finance, and politics. M. Germain had an unusual oratorical gift and a fine legal mind. It was as financier, however, and the founder of the famous *Crédit Lyonnais* that his title to fame is most secure.

The first branches of his great banking institution were founded in the city of Lyons and vicinity in 1863. In the *Correspondant* (Paris), the story of the successful enterprises of this well-known Lyons banker is told by Franz Heymann. It was easy enough, declares this writer, to establish the banks in the Lyons zone, but the conquest of the rest of France was more difficult, and to occupy Paris it was found necessary to establish several banks to overcome the great obstacle of distance. The aims Henri Germain sought to attain in founding the great bank were simply to place at the disposal of business men and others all the services of a bank by offering them every possible facility for credit, and by extending the field from Lyons and Paris to every large city in France and the important capitals abroad, and to constitute a numerous *clientèle* recruited from all classes of the population, from artisans and small capitalists to great merchants and large employers of labor the world over.

The secret of M. Germain's extraordinary success lay in knowing how to invest without risk the capital and money deposited, and in investing such enormous sums where they were easily realizable at any time. Security in the operations of the bank was at all times his supreme aim. Another element of success lay in his conviction of the importance of great reserve funds. He believed in regular dividends, and the large reserve fund which he accumulated and regarded as indispensable enabled him to assure a regular dividend and inspired confidence in the future. His wisdom in adopting this principle was justified when the Franco-German War broke out in 1870.

MENZEL, THE GREATEST GERMAN NATIONAL ARTIST.

AN elaborate study and characterization of the late German artist, Adolf von Menzel, and his career, fills the greater part of one of the latest issues of the illustrated German weekly, the *Illustrirte Zeitung* (Leipsic and Berlin). Many reproductions of the artist's work are also given. Speaking of the universal esteem in which Menzel was held, the writer of the article says :

His death is lamented by an entire great nation, in which he figured as a national and popular personality, honored in life and in death with truly regal honors, such as have never before been bestowed on any artist

presses his amazement that his work should have continued to exhibit all the vigor of youth, the sure touch, the keen vision, the flow of fancy,—all that characterized his genius at its highest point of development. He proceeds :

German art seventy years ago, when but few noteworthy artists reflected credit upon it, and when the most original and perhaps best work—and most in sympathy with the time—was done in caricature, and German art at the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century! Can any greater contrast be imagined? And Adolf von Menzel, had he outlived himself in the long span which extended far beyond the limit of two generations, had he expended his spiritual capital, does his art in old age exhibit a morose character, a senile style, indicative of decadence? We admire the works of his youth, which stand out far above the other productions of his time; we marvel at the wealth of fancy which he expended with a facility altogether unknown at that time; we gaze enchanted at every lithographic effort, upon the numerous large and small examples of his crayon work, but we must at the same time say to ourselves that this master remained true to himself to a great old age, in his tendencies, his whole art-creed; nay, that, with a prophetic spirit, he marched decades in advance of his time, embodying a new era long before it was recognized as such by the thousands of other artists.

Menzel, the article goes on to say, possessed a fertile imagination, but was never swayed by bold, incomprehensible ideals. We find the leading motives and subjects of his art indicated :

Menzel was born at a time which followed directly upon the period of the greatest humiliation for our country, but he grew up with Prussianism (*Preussentum*), whose moral elevation and historic mission he followed

from step to step as a sympathetic patriot. And it is in Prussianism, in the past under the great Frederick, to which one was glad to be transported when current politics seemed barren and disconsolate, and in the Prussianism of the great present, upon whose political vigor our national existence depends, that the highest powers of his art are rooted. He lives in it with his predilections, with all his individual needs and cravings, with all the fiber of his being. . . .



MENZEL IN HIS HOME AT BERLIN.

(The artist is the little old man in the chair; his friend is Professor Werner, director of the Berlin Academy.)

upon German soil. . . . He could look back upon a life in which effort and labor combined with wonderful gifts to form a comprehensive genius. Our grief for his loss must be outweighed by a feeling of gratitude that German art was enriched by such a man, and that his powers endured to the close of his long life.

Referring to the advanced age,—eighty-nine years,—at which the artist died, the writer ex-

In his artistic training, too, the departed master was rooted exclusively in German soil. In his youthful days, while still a student, the German artist visited Italy to consecrate himself and his art. Menzel was likewise in Paris in later years, always studying his surroundings with the open gaze of a keen observer. But foreign "influences," such as we perceive in other artists, especially under the effect of the French atmosphere, are not to be found in him. His art remained, on the contrary, the expression of his own individuality; that is why it remained German, and not only as regards its essential, material content.

But in regard to his own time also, he has, as an artist, come to be considered an historian of unquestioned authority and veracity. He, the appointed herald of Prussianism, its fame and its greatness, served Emperor William I. with equal inspiration, albeit his work here was essentially easier, because he had lived through the period and been a witness of the incidents which his pencil portrayed. Still fresh in all minds are the two paintings, representing striking occurrences in recent Prussian history, "The Coronation of the King at Königsberg" and "The Departure for the Field in 1870." What telling force and penetrating insight has the master displayed in the first one, "making every figure, even to the farthest one, in spite of all outward pomp, a fascinating study; and what sparkling life in the second picture, where in every form a portion of the history of our age



ONE OF MENZEL'S BEST-KNOWN NATIONAL GERMAN TYPES.

is made to live again!" The article concludes with the mention of Menzel's chief productions.

In the year 1836 appeared the "Memorabilia of Brandenburg History," an episodic representation of the landmarks of German history up to the battle of Leipzig. But his favorite theme was the time of Frederick the Great. With the vision and the truth of the historian he depicted particulars in the life of the great king, his personality, his official acts, his contemporaries, and his surroundings. To this category belong the illustrations to Kugler's "History of Frederick the Great" (1840 to 1842), which carried the artist's name, at the time, to all quarters of the globe. An undertaking of artistic importance was furnished him in illustrating the works of Frederick the Great. King Frederick William IV., shortly after his accession to the throne, conceived the project of republishing the complete works of his great ancestor, and of making this publication, which was to be presented to foreign monarchs or to meritorious individuals as a mark of distinction, a most splendid specimen of bookmaking. For this work Menzel drew, between the years 1843 and 1849, two hundred illustrations, which were reproduced as woodcuts by famous artists. There followed likewise illustrating the time of Frederick the Great, the lithographic work, "The Army of Frederick the Great" (600 colored lithographs; 1857), and the collection of woodcuts, "From King Frederick's Time." Of his numerous larger paintings we shall name only those that are best known: "The Round Table of Frederick the Great," "The Flute Concert at Sans Souci" (Berlin National Gallery), "The Coronation at Königsberg" (in the Berlin Palace), and "The Departure for the Field, 1870" (National Gallery).



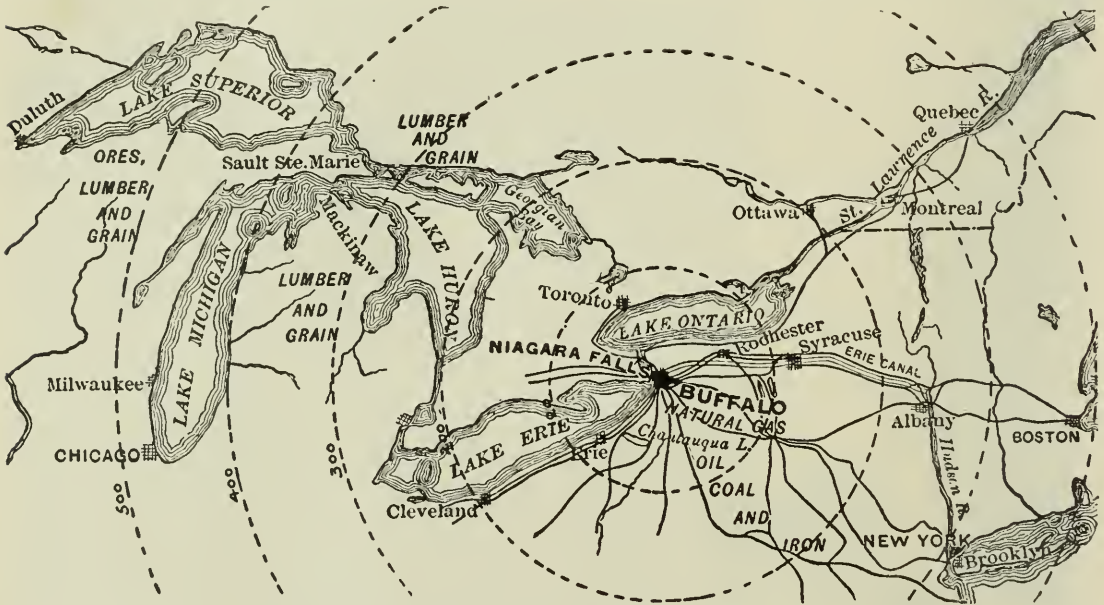
Reduced from the drawing by Menzel.

FREDERICK THE GREAT.

THE DESTRUCTION OF NIAGARA FALLS.

“NIAGARA FALLS are doomed. Children already born may yet walk dry-shod from the mainland of New York State Reservation to Goat Island, across the present bed of Niagara River.” With this startling prediction Mr. Alton D. Adams opens an article in the March number of *Cassier's Magazine*. This writer declares that certain economic, industrial, and political forces are working strongly toward this result, and that their course can be stayed only by the strong arm of the Government. It is not so much to their

165,340 cubic feet per second; and this latter amount, great as it is, is said to be not beyond the capacity of water-power developments like those now in progress about Niagara to seriously diminish or even dry up the Falls. From estimates lately obtained of the various hydraulic plants now operating or in course of construction on both sides of the Falls, it appears that these plants have a total capacity of about 48,800 cubic feet per second, or over 29 per cent. of the minimum discharge of the river. The consumption of water by the prospective new barge canal,



THE AREA OF POSSIBLE POWER-TRANSMISSION FROM NIAGARA.

extraordinary height as to their great volume of water that the Falls owe their beauty and grandeur, and as Mr. Adams shows that any diversion of the water of the Great Lakes reduces by just so much the amount that goes over the Niagara cataract, it matters little as to this result whether water is taken from Lake Michigan, at Chicago, or whether it is diverted from Niagara River near the upper rapids and then discharged into the gorge below by means of canals, pipe lines, or tunnels. Either process, it is declared, will dry up the Falls if it be allowed to progress sufficiently far.

According to the measurements of United States engineers in the years 1899 and 1900, the normal discharge of the Niagara River for mean level in Lake Erie is 222,000 cubic feet per second, but this sinks, at times, to as little as

following the line of the present Erie Canal from Buffalo to Savannah, will greatly add to the drain, while the Chicago drainage canal is already said to require as much as 6,000 cubic feet per second. Mr. Adams estimates that the total diversion of water from the Great Lakes about Niagara Falls, for all purposes, will reach as much as 67,400 cubic feet per second when all of the works now operating or under construction are carried out to their full authorized capacity. This would be 41 per cent. of the minimum discharge of the Niagara River.

That Mr. Adams has in no way exaggerated the prospective diversion of Niagara's water for power-transmission is indicated by the accompanying map, which was prepared by students of the problem several years ago.

THE LARGEST WATERFALL IN THE WORLD.

NIAGARA has a rival, if we may credit the news which comes to us through the *Illustrirte Zeitung* (Berlin),—a formidable rival,—in the falls of the Ygnassu, which river forms part of the boundary between Brazil and the Argentine Republic. That such a stupendous cataract has only lately been discovered is due to the fact that it is situated in an almost impenetrable forest, some fifteen hundred kilometers (a kilometer is a little over .6 of a mile) distant from the nearest city, Buenos Ayres. The discoverer is Señor Horacio Anasagasti, of the Argentine Republic, who says :

I have seen and studied the falls of the Niagara and the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi. I have also measured the Ygnassu Falls, and these I declare to be the largest of the three. I suppose many will doubt this, but I feel confident that within a year this cataract will be acknowledged to be the greatest natural wonder in the world. For the last one hundred and ten kilometers of its course, the Ygnassu winds through a rugged, mountainous country ; some eighteen kilometers before it joins the Paraná it flows with terrible swiftness and bends to the right, and here are the falls. The precipice down which the river plunges is 210 feet high, while that of the Niagara is only 167, and the width is 15,123 feet,—almost three times that of the Horseshoe

and the American Falls combined. Moreover, whereas it is estimated that one hundred million tons of water fall every hour at Niagara, one hundred and forty million is carried every hour by the Ygnassu Falls. At every season this cataract puts all the others in the shade, but in the rainy season, when the river rises from six to ten feet, it is simply stupefying.

Niagara, however, need have no fear that her throng of worshippers will be appreciably lessened for the present, for it is a wearisome journey to reach the Ygnassu Falls. From Buenos Ayres, only about half the distance of fifteen hundred kilometers can be covered by rail. Then several hundred kilometers by boat brings the traveler into an utterly uninhabited region and lands him still some miles from the falls. All this will be changed when the railroad from Paranagua, in Brazil, to Villa Rica and Asuncion, in Paraguay, is completed, for the road will go along the right bank of the Ygnassu to the point where it empties into the Paraná, and this is where the falls are. But there are still many difficulties to be overcome in the building of this road, and for a long time to come Buenos Ayres will probably remain the starting-point for the long and tiresome journey to the falls.

PHOSPHORESCENT FISHES.

THROUGH the expeditions sent out to investigate life in the abysses of the ocean, many remarkable facts have been brought to light concerning the conditions that prevail there and the characteristics which the deep-sea animals seem to have developed in response to these conditions.

The water shuts out the light at such great depths, and plants cannot exist there, consequently animals must adapt themselves, not only to the lack of plant food, but also to the enormous pressure of the water and the perpetual darkness.

In a paper read before the German Zoölogical Society, and published in the *Verhandlungen der Deutschen Zoologischen Gesellschaft* (Leipsic), Prof. A. Brauer, of Marburg, says: "The changes which the eyes of the deep sea fishes show, especially the transition to the so-called telescope eyes in the fishes of many different families, are considered as adaptations to the peculiar light relations of the deep sea, for the most important difference in the conditions of life which distinguish this region from all others appears to be the lack of sunlight and its apparent com-

ensation by the phosphorescent light of the organisms living there. There are differences in the structure of the vertebrate eye which up to the present time have been found only in this region."

Unfortunately, our knowledge of these forms is so limited that there is hardly any answer for questions concerning the significance of the great variety shown in the structure and arrangement of these organs,—how the light originates, whether it is colored or not, whether it is continuous or intermittent, and whether the fishes always remain in the deep sea, where the effects of the sunlight would be completely excluded, or whether they rise nearer the surface at times.

The writer finds four important kinds of light organs. One kind of tentacle light organ consists of modified strands of the dorsal fin, and there may be one or two of these light organs placed, usually, on the forehead, but in some fishes on the tip of the nose, from which position they may be thrown forward while the fish is swimming, although they are sometimes thrown backward toward the tail.

Another kind lies on the ventral side of the

body, toward the tail, and is provided with a circular or ellipsoid reflector that sparkles with violet, red, or green light during life. These organs lie in the deeper layers of the skin, which is transparent above them.

Another type consists of masses of closed glands capriciously located on barbels, at the base of the tail fin or of the ventral fin, or disposed in great oblong masses on the gill covers.

A fourth type of phosphorescent organ unites the characteristics of nearly all the other kinds found on the head and back. These may be limited to the ventral side in some fishes, or they may extend over the back in others; they may be arranged in regular rows, or groups in some instances, and in others they may be scattered irregularly. There may be as many as a hundred or a thousand of these,—large, small, and medium sized,—packed thickly together.

In some fishes there are enormous numbers in the skin over the stomach, the back, and in many other places. They consist of small pyramidal

or flat plates, made up of cells filled full of highly refracting granules, and inclosed in a sheath, but with no pigment and no reflector.

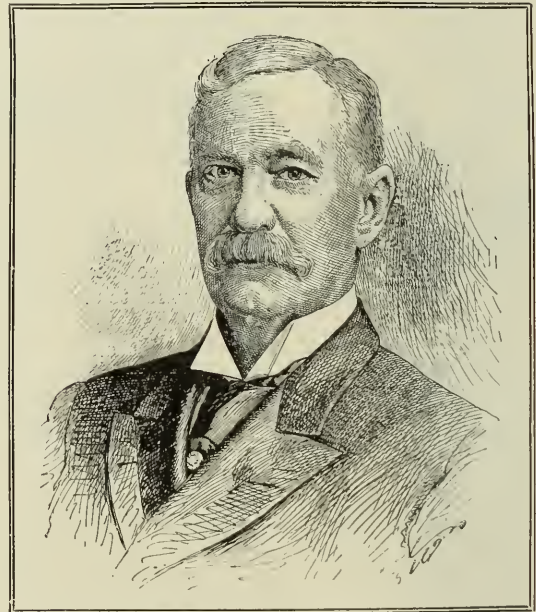
In all the different types the light seems to be produced by gland cells, while the pigment, reflectors, etc., are merely accessory structures.

Another very peculiar light organ is called the orbital organ. The writer is unable to explain the use of it, for it is completely covered with pigment on the outside, and the light produced by it would necessarily be thrown directly into the eye, a condition that would apparently interfere with distinct vision.

As a theory to account for the possible importance of light organs in general to the deep-sea fishes, it is suggested that by their position and arrangement they serve as recognition marks, just as brilliantly colored plumage in birds, stripes, spots, and other markings in wild animals, serve as signals or as recognition marks for members of the animal kingdom living on the land.

THE NEW YORK CHILDREN'S COURT.

RECENTLY there have been established in several American cities courts having jurisdiction over juvenile delinquents exclusively. This is an innovation in American legal practice, and has occasioned much comment, favorable and unfavorable. We are indebted to *Tom Watson's Magazine* (New York, April), for a full exposition of the purposes and procedure of the New York Children's Court, contributed to that periodical by the Hon. Joseph M. Deuel, who was the author of the legislation creating the court and is now one of its justices. As Judge Deuel explains, it was formerly the practice in New York, as in other large cities, to take all children charged with crime or want of proper guardianship, or found in a state of destitution, to the various police courts. In the matter of guardianship, destitution, and some of the minor offenses, the magistrate had power to hear and determine. In cases of felony and misdemeanor, trial was required in the higher courts, where there were many delays, few indictments, and scarcely any convictions. The ill effects of such a system can hardly be over-estimated. As Judge Deuel points out, the youthful offenders who returned home unpunished became heroes in the estimation of their companions, and even considered themselves immune to punishment because of some superior skill in eluding the officers of the law. "Each became a missionary in crime to corrupt others,



HON. JOSEPH M. DEUEL.
(Justice of the New York Children's Court.)

became a chief of admiring associates, and spent his time and energy in devising methods of pillage and robbery. In consequence, organized bands of youthful desperadoes sprang up in

various parts of the city. Each of these became known as 'de gang.' "

Judge Deuel states that ten years ago pickpockets in the teens were a rarity. After a while, however, the frequency of arrests for this offense became noticeable, and in 1900 it was nothing unusual to have several of these youthful pickpockets arraigned in one day in the Essex Market Court. From picking pockets, these youthful criminals soon branched out in other forms of larceny, becoming, in time, burglars, highway robbers, forgers, till-tappers, and wagon thieves. Under the old system of administering justice, the time and thought of the judges were chiefly taken up with adult cases, and little attention could be given to the restraint and supervision of the children. The result was that sympathetic leniency was the rule in the New York courts, as Judge Deuel shows. Even if the judges had had the time and the inclination, they were powerless in this matter, because grand jurors failed to indict and petit jurors could not be persuaded to convict.

THE COURT'S EFFORTS TO GET INFORMATION.

The New York Children's Court has been in existence about two years and a half, and during this time several important reforms in the administration of justice in the cases of minors have been instituted. One of these reforms consists in the abolition of the almost endless delays which formerly halted the wheels of justice. Children are brought up for trial not later than the day following arrest, and they do not have to return unless convicted. Even then, many are permitted to go home after a statement by the bench of the offense with which they are charged, the reasons making it objectionable, and the consequences sure to follow a repetition. But there is an aim on the part of the court to do away with the expression of sympathy or sentiment during the trial. Each culprit has the benefit of counsel,—if not employed by the parent, invariably assigned by the court. A dispassionate and methodical inquiry is conducted under strict legal methods, and the prisoner has the advantage of every technicality known to criminal practice. The justice presiding is both judge and jury. He has absolute control over future proceedings.

When the justice comes to pronounce the defendant guilty and sentence him to punishment, the controlling principle followed by the Children's Court is that what is best for the boy is best for society. In order to decide whether it is wiser to commit the boy to some reformatory or to permit him to return home, an endeavor is made to learn everything possi-

ble about the boy himself, his habits, disposition, environment, and previous record. The boy's record at school, if he has one, is obtained. The opinion of his employer, if he is at work, is also sought. The law permits the court to get information through any channel, and frequently several days are required to gather material upon which the court finally acts. In this matter, the court relies largely on the records of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, which show, immediately at the close of a trial, whether there has been a previous conviction. If it is found that there has been such conviction, a suspended sentence or a parole generally follows. By suspended sentence is meant that the criminal punishment is not then inflicted, but may be in the following week, or month, or some time thereafter, but will not be so long as the youngster is of good behavior.

THE PAROLE SYSTEM AND ITS RESULTS.

In the case of a first offense, no matter how serious it may be, sentence is usually deferred and the child put on parole pending the gathering of further information, and during this time the child is under the supervision of the parole officer, to whom there must be a report each week, and at the end of the period,—from four to six weeks,—appearance and report in court. If the boy's conduct is reported as excellent, sentence is suspended. If there is improvement on former conduct, parole is continued. If the boy continues in his old ways, sentence is imposed, or there may be a short parole with a certain commitment at the end if a radical change is not shown. One instance cited by Judge Deuel as indicating the value of this method of procedure is outlined by him in the following paragraphs :

In October last, a widow had her only child, a boy of fourteen, taken into custody by the police for absolute incorrigibility; he stayed out nights, associated with bad companions, would not work, and was rude and insolent. On the following morning, the mother appeared in court to press the charge under oath and insisted that the boy be committed forthwith. The usual practice was followed,—the boy was remanded to the society and an investigation ordered; the report confirmed everything the mother had alleged, and the few days of separation had in no way changed her determination to have the boy committed, for, as she declared, she was completely discouraged, and he was past redemption. Something about the boy led me in the opposite direction, and I said to her, "I think we had better give this young man just one more chance," and, turning to him, I said, "Don't you think so, my boy?"

"Yes, judge," was the quick response.

After some conversation with the mother, who finally relented, a five weeks' parole was ordered. On the re-

turn day, both were in court. The boy, tidy in appearance, stood erect and looked me manfully in the eye as he took his place before the bench. The parole officer's report, in writing, told me that immediately following parole the boy had secured a position in a hardware store, and by industry, attention, and intelligence had obtained a voluntary promise of increased wages; that he had spent his evenings, during parole, at home, which the mother confirmed, and with moistened eyes she added:

"I could not ask for a better boy, and we are both happy." The boy had found what he could do by trying, and was satisfied. It would be difficult to determine which was the prouder and happier, the mother or son, as they left court together.

This is only one of a number of cases mentioned by Judge Deuel, but it serves to illustrate some of the beneficial results obtained in New York by the establishment of this court.

THE ZEMSKI SOBOR, THE RUSSIAN LAND PARLIAMENT.

IN a series of "Little Letters" in the *Novoje Vremya*, the well-known St. Petersburg daily, the elder Suvorin, father of the editor, strongly advocates the project of summoning the Zemski Sobor, the ancient Russian land parliament. This body has been convoked only in times of great national stress. The Romanoff dynasty itself was called to the throne by a Zemski Sobor, in 1610, which made Michael Romanoff Czar. M. Suvorin asserts that Alexander III.

strong government which must take care not to be deceived or misled, there should be this Zemski Sobor as a separate power,—aid, ally, critic, and collaborator for the welfare of the fatherland.

In conclusion, M. Suvorin recalls the fact that the Zemski Sobor does not mean a gathering of representatives of peasants alone. It is properly composed, he points out, of 70 per cent. nobles. We have, he concludes, four estates,—the clergy, the nobility, the merchants, and the peasants. He believes that there should be summoned about one hundred representatives of each estate, proportionately chosen.

An historical analysis of the Zemski Sobor as an institution appears in a recent issue of the *London Speaker*. Outlining the history of the institution, the *Speaker* says:

The writs of summons to this assembly have, fortunately, been preserved, and they show that the assembly was composed of representatives of each of the estates sitting in common with the boyars of the council, the high commission of the clergy, and the representatives of the regular and irregular military forces that had been formed in the emergency by the creation of the various folknotes. The higher clergy, who have generally been, as they are to-day, the staunchest champions of absolutism, were drawn into this popular movement because the obnoxious Polish prince was, of course, a Catholic.

The Zemski Sobor met at different times, and they were summoned on different principles: but two facts in their history have an interesting bearing on the present situation in Russia. The first Zemski Sobor was summoned by Ivan the Terrible in 1550, and in its first session the Czar made a speech attributing to the boyars the misgovernment and the miseries of the nation. Before this, the only assemblies were the Douma, or council of the nobility, and the high commission of the clergy. The result was pacification and an era of reform.

The second fact is that Zemski Sobors were always summoned to help the Czar in some emergency, and particularly in the emergency of a foreign war. Peter the Great did not want any such assemblies, and he found



M. YERMALOV.

(A Liberal, and minister of agriculture.)

intended to summon the Zemski Sobor despite the opposition of his court. In 1902, says Suvorin, "I had a conversation about the Zemski Sobor with the late minister of the interior, Plehve."

I have always been, and am now, very much in favor of again convening this ancient national institution. We ought to return to our ancient forms. Next to the

it easier to carry out his mighty reforms without their assistance. But Nicholas II. is not Peter the Great. His people are complaining of the bureaucracy as Ivan the Terrible's people were complaining of the boyars, and he is entangled in a war as grave and as unfortunate as any of the wars with Poland or the Crimean Tartars that obliged other rulers to convene this assembly.

The Zemski Sobors varied in their composition, but on two occasions, in 1644 and 1682, they included, not only the superior clergy, the higher nobility, the lower clergy, and the lower nobility, the three grades of Muscovite merchants, and the citizens of urban districts, but even peasants established on the lands of the state. The session was opened by the Czar or by one of his secretaries, who explained the reasons

why the assembly had been summoned to the delegates, the members of the Douma, and the clerical synod. The assembly then divided itself by its estates, the estates deliberated on the questions proposed, and the result was presented separately by each estate in writing.

But the Sobors, though they could not initiate legislation, used, in replying to the government demand, to make known their sentiments on Russian politics. Their position, of course, was much less important than that of English parliaments, but they had a good deal to do with various reforms, and they were certainly a check on the despotism of provincial governors and the exactions of the bureaucracy. If Nicholas II. summons a Zemski Sobor to-day he is not likely to find it less in earnest in defending the people of Russia from the bureaucracy and the grand dukes.

MORE RUSSIAN HISTORY IN THE DOCUMENTS.

IMEDIATELY after the St. Petersburg massacre of January 22, the Russian censor gave notice to all the press of the empire that the publication of any news about the events of that fatal Sunday, other than that given in the *Official Messenger*, was prohibited. Of course, this was not strictly obeyed. The text of the now famous petition to the Czar which the workmen were not permitted to present was the work to get out. Following is a close rendering of the petition, which was entitled

“THE PETITION OF THE ST. PETERSBURG WORKINGMEN TO THE CZAR, OUR SOVEREIGN.”

We, the workmen of St. Petersburg, our wives, children, and helpless old parents, come to you, our sovereign, to seek justice and protection. We are reduced to extreme poverty, we are being oppressed and burdened with unbearable toil. Insults are showered upon us, we are not recognized as human beings, but are treated like slaves, who must bear their bitter fate in silence. We have suffered and endured, but now we are driven further and further into the gulf of poverty, lawlessness, and ignorance. Despotism and official arbitrariness oppress us, and we are being stifled. Our strength, oh, Sovereign, has given out, and our patience is exhausted. We have reached that fearful climax when death is preferable to a prolongation of our unendurable sufferings. We have, therefore, laid aside our work and informed our employers that we shall not resume it again until our demands have been satisfied. We ask for very little. We desire only that without which life is not life, but drudgery and an everlasting torture. We first requested that our employers consider our needs with us, but this was denied us. We were even denied the right to speak about our needs, finding that the law does not grant us such a privilege. Our petitions have been proven to be illegal. We have asked that the working day consist of only eight hours, that a uniform rate of pay for labor be agreed upon, that our misunderstandings with the lower management

of each and every working establishment be looked into, that the daily pay of the common laborer and of women be raised to one ruble, that overtime labor be abolished, that we receive competent medical attention and without any insults, that the shops be built in such



VLADIMIR KOROLENKO.

(The Liberal, and editor of *Russkaya Boyatsvo*.)

a way that people should be able to work in them without meeting there with premature death from terrible draughts, rain, and snow. Each and everything, according to the opinion of our employers, was against the law, each petition a misdemeanor, and our wish to improve our condition was considered to be an audacity, highly insulting to our employers.

Sovereign! More than three hundred thousand of

us are here. All these are recognized as human beings only from their outer appearances. In reality, not a single human right is granted to them, not even the right of speech, of thought, of gathering, of discussing our wants and of adopting measures for the improvement of our conditions. Each and every one of us, who only dares to raise his voice in the defense of the working class, is thrown into prison and sent into banishment. A good heart, a responding soul, is punishable as a crime, and to pity a man who is oppressed, deprived of his rights and exhausted through torture, means to commit the most terrible misdemeanor. Sovereign! Is this in accordance with the divine laws, through the favor of which you are ruling? Is it possible to live under such laws? Is not death better,—death for all of us, the laboring men of Russia? Let the capitalists and the officials live and enjoy life. This is what confronts us, Sovereign! This is why we are gathered here before the walls of your palace. Here is where we seek our last safety. Do not deny thy people help. Lead them out from the pit of lawlessness, beggary, and ignorance! Grant them the means which will enable them to work out their own salvation, and lift from them the unendurable yoke of officialdom. Destroy the wall which separates you from your people and let them govern the country together with you. For you are appointed for the happiness of the people, and this happiness the officials wrench from out of our very hands. It does not reach us. We have only sorrow and humiliation. Look upon our requests without anger and with attention. They are meant, not for the bad, but for the good, of both ourselves and you, our Sovereign. Not audacity impels us to speak, but the realization of the unavoidable necessity for all to escape from such an unendurable condition.

Russia is by far too great, her needs are by far too numerous and varied, that the officials alone should be able to govern her. It is necessary that the people themselves should come to their own help, for the people alone know their true needs. Do not refuse their assistance,—receive it. Order immediately that the representatives of all classes, of all bodies, in Russia should forthwith come together. Let there be the capitalist, the workingman, the official, the clergyman, the doctor, and the teacher; let all, whoever they may be, elect their own representatives. Let each be equally free in his right of election, and for this purpose order that the elections for the constituent assembly should take place under conditions favorable to all, and by a secret and equal ballot. This is our chief request,—everything depends upon it. It is the chief and only balm for our bleeding wounds, and without it our sores will forever run and will at last and quickly drive us to death. However, one measure could not heal all our wounds; other measures are also necessary, and we speak to you in a straightforward and open manner, like to a father, our Sovereign. The following measures of relief are indispensable:

I.—Measures to provide against the ignorance and against the deprivation of the rights of Russians. The freedom and inviolability of the person, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of meeting, freedom of religious conscience. General and compulsory popular education, the expense to be defrayed by the government. That the ministers should be accountable to the people, and that lawfulness in government should be guaranteed. That every one, without any exception, should be equal before the law. An immediate recall

of all who may have suffered on account of their convictions.

II.—Measures against the poverty of the people. To do away with indirect taxation and to substitute, instead, a direct, progressive income tax. To abolish redeeming payments, to establish a cheap rate of interest, and to hand over, gradually, the land to the people.

III.—Measures against the oppression of labor by capital. The safeguarding of labor by the law. The freedom of labor unions, both of unskilled and skilled labor. The working day to consist of eight hours, and that overtime work be regulated. The freedom of labor to fight capital. That representatives of the laboring classes should participate in working out a project for insuring the workmen by the government. Fair pay for labor.

These, Sovereign, are our chief wants, for which we come to you. Command, under oath, their fulfillment and you will render Russia happy and illustrious, and your name will be engraved on our hearts and on those of our descendants for ever and ever. But if you do not command, if you do not respond to our prayer, we shall die here on this square, before your palace. There is no place whither we can go, and nothing to look forward to. Two ways remain open for us,—one leading to freedom and happiness, the other to the grave. Point out, oh, Sovereign, the one you prefer for us, and without a murmur will we take it, may it even be the road to death. Let our lives be a sacrifice for suffering Russia. We do not begrudge her such a sacrifice. Gladly will we offer it.

COMMENT OF EMINENT RUSSIAN EDITORS.

A number of the most prominent Russian journalists had the courage to even venture comments, in the usual skillful manner forced upon them by the censor. The editorial comments of the well-known author, Vladimir Korolenko, in his monthly, the *Russkaya Bogatstvo* (Russian Wealth), and the remarks of the prominent jurist, Vladimir Gessen, in his weekly, *Pravo* (Right), are especially worthy of note as indicating how deep is the grief and the despair of the intelligent portion of Russian society at the horrors of that fateful day. These horrible events, says M. Gessen, "still haunt us."

In the ears of the voluntary and involuntary witnesses of these occurrences there still ring the volleys, the cries, and the piteous groans of the victims, and there still appears before their eyes the procession of sleighs loaded down with dead and dying men, women, and children, the smoke of gunpowder, the blood. These accursed pictures will long rise before us, to trouble us as a living reality, and may they bring a blush of shame to him who, immediately after the events of the 9th (22d), attempted to relegate these occurrences "to the region of memories extremely unfortunate, but also extremely instructive." Surely, if there are men who have learned nothing even now, let the intelligent witnesses of these happenings forget nothing.

The lot of the Russian journalist is a hard one at best, continues M. Gessen, but at the present moment his hardships are unendurable. He cannot give the facts, and to comment without the

facts is a hard task. Up to the time of his writing, Russia knew of the happenings of January 9 (22) only what it was permitted to know from the government statement which appeared the following day in the *Pravitelstvenny Vyestnik* (Official Messenger).

The tragedy that shocked, on Monday, the entire civilized world is described there in a few cold-blooded sentences. The workmen, we are told, repaired in great crowds, on January 9 (22), toward the center of the city. In several places there occurred bloody collisions between them and the troops, because of the stubborn refusal of the crowds to disperse, as ordered, and because of the actual attack on the military in some cases. Nine places are then mentioned where volleys were fired against the crowds. Finally, the number of killed is given as 76, and of the wounded as 233. The last official figures went somewhat further,—96 killed and 333 wounded. And nothing more but a period.

“THE BREAKING UP OF THE STAGNANT RUSSIAN LIFE.”

The traditions and habits of Russian life, says Korolenko, have been so formed that “whenever anything of significance appears in it, anything of unusual, or perhaps of stern significance, the first password given out is silence, instead of free discussion and of critical illumination.”

Now we are no longer blind, and we note even in the “instructions” of the committee of ministers the authoritative confession that the “establishment of the full authority of the law” *equal for all* is the most pressing need of the country, and that its absence is one of the causes of our present misfortunes. But when, under the guise of district governors, there was introduced into our unfortunate existence the opposite principle, the beginning, presumably, of the paternal authority of one class over another, that deprived the many millions of peasants of all legal guaranties, the first measure that was recognized as essential was the

curtailment of the right of the press to comment on and to criticise the new institution.

This is also true, he continues, of the events of the fateful “Vladimir’s Day.”

We shall not attempt to reproduce the details of this terrible picture. Perhaps it will soon be depicted in unbiased history. . . . Nor shall we attempt to measure its true extent. . . . For reasons that are quite evident, we shall also refrain from the critical discussion of these events. . . . It is a great, oppressive, irreparable misfortune. Like a gloomy specter, like a terrible warning, it has appeared on the line of demarcation that is to indicate the breaking up of the stagnant Russian life, the beginning of its new era. . . . We have lived through so little since the beginning of the much-promising discussions on unification and confidence, and we have lived through so much since those volleys and the cavalry attacks in the streets of the capital. . . . The whole Russian life appears to us as if having halted in indecision and horror, like the legendary giant before whom there suddenly appeared at the cross-roads a terrifying phantom. Whither to go further? Or to go at all? And may there be at all any faith in the future, and may we repent at the still recent delightful formulas? Is it possible that all this may again be questioned? The tragedy of our life for the last decade is marked by the impotency of all attempts to break the magic circle of bureaucratic reaction. When outward calm is established in the wearied nation, its hopeless silence is accepted as a sign of prosperity and contentment. And we hear, then, that no reforms are necessary, for everything is satisfactory. And everything is satisfactory, from the very fact that no reforms are apparent on the political horizon. But when the outward prosperity is replaced by indications of discontent and alarm, the beginning of attempts at reform are at once discontinued, being considered premature. They are unnecessary when everything is quiet. They are inadmissible when there is political fermentation. Such is the philosophy of our most recent history,—such is the alpha and omega of the bureaucratic creative power.

RUSSIAN EDITORS ON THE MINISTRY OF PRINCE MIRSKI.

IT is now generally recognized in Russia (the rest of the world realized it some time ago) that the brief ministry of Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski was the beginning of a new epoch in the history of Russia’s internal development. In the few months during which he held office, the prince was enabled to accomplish a great deal for Russia’s progress, and it is now admitted that had he been supported in all his views much of the present internal disorder in Russia would have been prevented. Despite the rigors of the censorship, Russian periodicals have been commenting, with much feeling, on the prince’s retirement, and (it may almost be said without exception) in a eulogistic tone. The St. Petersburg *Vyedomosti* says :

Noble in all his views and aims, the prince’s ministry was heralded with the greatest joy by all Russia, of whatever nationality, and this same Russia regrets his retirement from his elevated post, for he has accomplished a task perhaps the most difficult in the whole empire. After the harsh and unfair *régime* of Plehve, which was destructive of the very foundations of the empire, and positively intolerable, the accession to power of such an enlightened and affable minister as Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski could not but have a cheering influence on our whole gloomy social organization. He came like a ray of sunshine breaking through the clouds, showing us the blue sky, and holding out hopes for the future.

The *Sviet* declares that the work of the prince will not pass away. He taught us, says this journal, that the government must have confi-

dence in the people, otherwise it denies its own legitimate existence. The *Russ* echoes these sentiments. It declares :

The future cool-blooded historian who will be able to calmly consider the troublesome times for Russia at the beginning of the present century will perhaps say, "The knight of an hour." He was so, but it is knight-hood nevertheless. Our bureaucratic institutions, existing for centuries, are not windmills, and a struggle with them is highly honorable even for the defeated. But a breach in their armor has really been made. The consciousness that it is no longer possible to live under existing conditions has permeated the whole of Russian society, even the bureaucracy itself.

In the direction of the freedom of the press, says the St. Petersburg *Gazeta*, Prince Mirski scored a real victory. This view is also gratefully set forth by the *Novosti*. The *Slovo* finds a resemblance between the retiring minister and Czar Alexander's great secretary, Count Loris Melikov. The *Slovo* says :

After the retirement of Loris Melikov, there again came into action the famous screw of repression. We Russians generally have a very short memory. We learn very little, read very little, and, besides, are not very rancorous. With us, old wounds heal quickly, and we are generally ready to adopt means which are, in the end, useless. The old screw has again been put into motion, and we have reached the old, well-known hollow,—the same place, with the name changed. It is Port Arthur instead of Sevastopol. . . . We believe that the feeling of reverence for Prince Mirski will grow, and that the feeling of gratefulness for his short service as minister of the interior will continue to increase.

The two progressive papers, the *Nasha Zhisn* (Our Life) and *Nashi Dni* (Our Days), which have been suspended by Prince Mirski's succes-

or, Bulygin, are rather skeptical. The *Nasha Zhisn* says :

Prince Mirski made his *début* by turning to society with the word "confidence." Now, this is precisely the word with which we should characterize the programme of the prince's ministerial activity. Please notice, however, that we refer to the programme,—not to its execution. The word "confidence" has, during Prince Mirski's administration, shown all its strength and all its weakness.

The *Nashi Dni* declares :

Beyond a doubt, the brief ministry of Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski was an exemplification of good impulses. At the same time, it must be admitted that Prince Mirski leaves his post with a feeling of deep disappointment and a consciousness of his own helplessness and the futility of his impulses.

Of the Moscow journals, only the *Russkaya Vedomosti* and the *Russkaya Pravda* comment in any way upon the event. The first-named journal declares that Prince Mirski has rendered a signal service to both the Russian Government and the Russian people. "He has furnished the government with the means of becoming directly acquainted with the real desires and the real aims of our peaceful, well-behaved social elements." The *Russkaya Pravda*, however, believes that long before the retirement of Prince Mirski, Russian society had lost all trust in the "confidence" policy. Prince Mirski, this journal insists, himself underrated the power of public opinion. "Those many Russians who have looked upon Prince Mirski as a powerful mediator between the government and the Russian people will find that with his retirement this connecting link has vanished."

MILITARY SIGNIFICANCE OF THE SIEGE OF PORT ARTHUR.

HOWEVER surprising to European military strategists the Japanese successes on the Yalu and at Liao-Yang may have been, these are not to be compared, in military significance, to the siege and fall of Port Arthur. This is the verdict of the German military critic, Freiherr von der Goltz, who contributes to the *Deutsche Revue* an elaborate study of the contributions to the science of warfare already made by the Japanese. He says :

The most searching trial of the genuine efficiency of the Japanese army occurred in the attack on Port Arthur. Port Arthur was, even according to European standards, a strong place. Its fall signalizes the superior efficiency of the victor. That is the most noteworthy fact which the war has thus far brought out. For the first time has a colored race confronted a white

one with success. It is nothing less than a turning-point in the history of the world.

Freiherr von der Goltz does not indorse the criticisms so frequently made as to the sound judgment of the Japanese in expending such enormous efforts upon the subjection of Port Arthur. He holds that concentration upon that object was essential to the proper conduct of the war.

The Japanese have been widely blamed by European critics for massing strong forces before a fortress instead of utilizing them in the open field, but unjustly so. It would, doubtless, have been advantageous to the Japanese had they succeeded in driving the Russians completely out of the fertile and populous section of Manchuria. That they would have accomplished had they driven them beyond Harbin in a northwestern

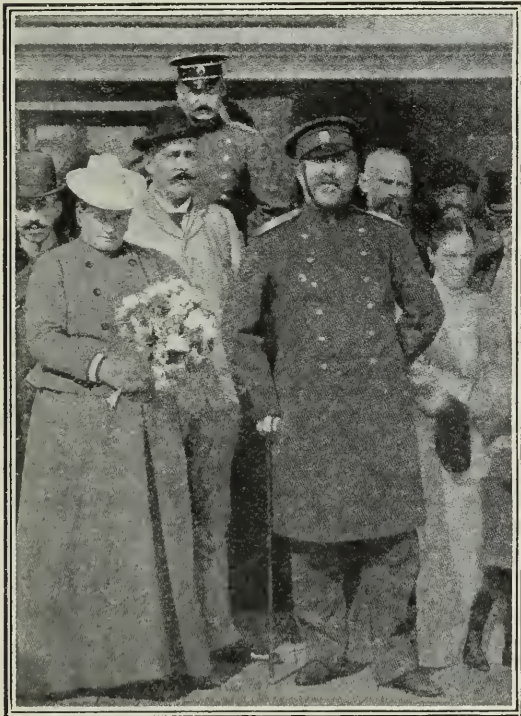
direction. A great achievement it would, no doubt, have been, but it would not have decided the fortunes of the war. If the naval forces set in motion in Europe had, during the same time, joined the East Asiatic squadron, and both had found in Port Arthur a strong, unimpaired point of support, it would have meant the end of Japan's maritime supremacy. Japan's connection with her armies on the mainland would, at a certain time, have ceased and their destruction become only a question of time. Port Arthur had to fall, therefore, on account of the fleet sheltered there, and for the sake of the naval port, which would otherwise have served the enemy as a base. . . . Even to-day, the majority of military authorities have no doubt of the ultimate victory of Russia, which cannot be mortally hurt by Japan, and whose wealth of resources seems to guarantee the prosecution of the war until the total exhaustion of her brave adversary. But it can no longer be questioned that Japan has, by the fall of Port Arthur, opened up the possibility of being the final, and not only a passing, victor. From a reserve of forty-five million inhabitants she can, like Russia, recruit her armies for a long time, and maintain them on a level to command respect. Newly arrived recruits are, of course, not fully trained, serviceable soldiers, but much seems to have been done in Japan to have large reserve forces in readiness during the war. At any rate, we gather from discriminating reports from Tokio that the leading men there are prepared for a long war, and that they regard all that has thus far happened as only a prelude.

The enormous loss of life incurred by the



A LITTLE RUSSIAN HERO OF PORT ARTHUR.

(This twelve-year-old boy went through the Japanese lines several times, carrying important information.)



GENERAL STOESEL AND HIS WIFE UPON THEIR ARRIVAL AT ODESSA.

Japanese in the siege is justified by Freiherr von der Goltz both upon the general principle that the most vigorously prosecuted war is in the end the most humane and upon the special grounds applicable to the particular situation in hand. As to errors of judgment in the prosecution of the siege, there is no doubt that such were committed; "but where, in any war," asks the writer, "has this been otherwise?" The military lessons of the siege are numerous, and not least remarkable among them is the rehabilitation of methods that had been discarded as antiquated.

Our knowledge of the details of the memorable siege are still far too inexact to permit a reliable judgment as to what was proper or improper in its conduct. We can only apprehend from the course of the siege in general where errors may possibly have been committed. As to that, it appears to me that they emanated directly from teachers of European and not of Japanese origin, and that the Japanese may perhaps ascribe them rather to what they learned than to what they failed to learn. In the armies of Europe, the development of heavy artillery has, in the last few decades, played an important rôle. Since it has been made possible to use powerful explosives without endangering the ordnance or those who serve it, its astounding effects have

aroused widespread comment. A considerable time elapsed before it was decided to furnish it to commanders in the field. Then followed the old story. It has been the fate of all innovations to fight their way ardently to recognition, and finally to be overestimated. It is this point which we have possibly reached at this very time. The effect presented to the sight by the cannonading of modern heavy artillery is an altogether imposing one. Like gigantic trees, clouds of smoke and dust loom up above the spot where a missile has struck, and a shower of clods and *débris* is seen whirling in the air. One involuntarily feels that nothing could withstand this force. Therein lies the temptation to demand entirely too much of this modern implement of war. It is expected that it, *by itself*, will suffice to bear down every artful means of resistance. A theory has with time been evolved that all that is required is to place the heavy artillery in a favorable position before a fortress, under fire of the watchful defenders, in order to decide the fate of the place. A close assault has widely been declared to be superfluous. It is only in exceptional cases that a resort to the storming of the bombarded works is still regarded as admissible. It is possible that the Japanese, who have care-

fully studied all the achievements and opinions of Europeans, started out with the same ideas, and that they experienced the disappointment which practice, precisely in war, metes out to the best, apparently most correct, theories. It seems that they frequently attacked too soon, and that they erred as to the superiority of their artillery as a whole, or perhaps only in its relation to the condition of the bombarded works. What is certain is, that they often sustained losses which appear disproportionately heavy. . . . The practice, too, of digging trenches with slow, arduous toil, using pickaxe and shovel, and even subterranean warfare, we have mostly regarded as a past stage of development, which, for our age, should belong rather to the history of warfare than to its practice. Both, however, were revived before Port Arthur, and on a gigantic scale. This must provoke our earnest attention. Many other methods of warfare emerge again from the past. In the close combat about the forts, the small hand-grenade played a part, as has often been reported, such as it did two hundred years ago. The one used to-day is, naturally, of a modernized form, and, of course, far more effective and terrible than its predecessor.

HAS THE RUSSIAN CRISIS BEEN EXAGGERATED?

THE American and English reviews teem with articles on the situation in Russia. Among the most noteworthy English contributions is the article entitled "Revolution by Telegraph" which Mr. R. Long writes in the *Fortnightly Review* from St. Petersburg. Mr. Long is one of the few British journalists who can speak Russian with facility. There is in Russia, he declares, discontent, but no revolution. As representing an influential group of American newspapers, he has had access to everybody, from the Grand Duke Vladimir down to the wildest revolutionist, and he sums up his estimate of the whole matter as follows:

The essential facts are perfectly plain to those who seriously studied events on the spot, unaffected by the tissue of incoherent sensationalism sent over the long-suffering wires from St. Petersburg to London. There was no revolution, no revolutionary movement, hardly any revolutionary feeling, in the Russian capital. Of the conditions precedent of revolution, not one, save widespread anger and discontent, exists. There is not an armed people, or the possibility of getting arms. There is not a mutinous soldiery. There is not an exhausted treasury. And lastly, and most important of all, there is little symptom of any great religious or philosophical awakening, such as inspired and directed the successful popular revolts of western Europe.

But although there was neither revolution nor the revolutionary spirit, Mr. Long warns us that this does not imply that the government's oppressive policy is based upon the confidence of strength.

The one fact which neither party disputes is that autocracy is suffering from the incurable weakness of senility. The reactionaries, in fact, are more wrath with the present system for its feebleness than the progressives are for its tyranny. Russia unanimously believes that the present supreme opponent to sweeping reform is not the Czar, who has no power, or his ministers, who have no opinions, but a certain aged and highly placed lady who adds to power and opinions an inflexible persistency and indomitable heart. I regard the complete surrender of autocracy to the people's demands as more probable than the enforcement of those demands by successful revolt.

NICHOLAS II. NOT A COWARD OR A WEAKLING.

Mr. Long pours contempt upon the stories that were spread about the Czar and Bloody Sunday. He was really appalled by the tragedy, and was prostrated with horror. But "Nicholas II. is no more responsible for the shooting of his subjects on January 22 than he is for an eclipse of the moon." The preposterous legend of his alleged cowardice is without foundation. "Nicholas II. did not run away from his subjects, or scuttle from palace to palace to escape the perils of a revolution which no one expected." Nevertheless, Mr. Long says, frankly: "The Czar has failed as a ruler. He has made no fight. His subjects neither love him nor dread him."

The convinced reformers hope nothing from him. The convinced reactionaries despise him, primarily, for what they are pleased to call truckling to the unimperial sentiment of peace. The unnumbered dumb men who have not yet learned to discriminate between reaction

and reform are not impressed by his personality. The merely stupid, unmoral world of society regards him with indifference. Even his domesticated life is a cause of offense.

EX-MINISTER WITTE THE INDISPENSABLE.

But if Mr. Long is hard on the Czar, he has evidently succumbed to the glamour of M. Witte.

The longer-headed men of both parties agree that there is only one man in the empire fit to face the peril. The ex-finance minister, M. Witte, never towered above his phrasemonger colleagues as he does to-day. Russia trusts in and hopes in the ex-minister of finance. The rude, brusque manners, never laid aside save when there is an object to gain, the massive, awkward figure, the unconcealed irritability of speech and blunt denunciation of folly,—all appeal to a people accustomed to the rule of the elegant weakling phrasemongers who have hitherto held the upper hand only because the vast bureaucratic machine, which they pretend to control, possesses sufficient cohesion and power to rule, though badly, by itself. During the last five years, M. Witte has grown grayer, more morose in manner, and less inclined to the civilities of ordinary intercourse. But friends and enemies alike affirm that he is the same man, with the same miraculous power of work, the same resolute bearing toward opposition, the same invariable habit of doing what has to be done without hesitation or delay. Nobody knows how far he sympathizes with reform. He has in a brief term of years condemned autocratic oppression, created an economic system which is the only mainstay of the autocratic system left, and coquetted with the most advanced Constitutionalists. How he will act, no one knows.

But every one feels that he will at least act decisively. He will not be a petty oppressor or a half-hearted emancipator. He speaks bitterly, wears his irritation and contempt on his sleeve, and plainly lets every one see that he is quite conscious of his power to drag Russia out of the abyss into which she has sunk and furious at the ingratitude with which he has been treated. And this plain speech alienates many who have no objection to his policy. Yet, despite his condemned financial policy, his unbearable manner, his doubtful Liberalism, there is not one intelligent Russian who does not mention his name with respect and awe.

THE MACHINE KEEPS GOING.

The machine of government keeps going, despite all the discontent. The educated classes dislike it, but they fear that but for its support the labor movement would get out of hand. "Many moderate Liberals affirm that a successful working-class revolt would culminate in a general and infuriated attack upon every one who wore the 'European' garb of infamy and did not cut his hair over the nape, wear bast-shoes and a sheepskin *shuba*." Hence, cultivated society will support the government against a working-class revolt, and unarmed and distrusted labor can effect nothing by itself. Yet Russia is united as to the need of some kind of representative government. Editor Korolenko (of the *Bogatsvo*) says: "I give autocracy two years' life at most. A constitution is the only possible alternative to a revolution in the near future."

THE FORCES OPPOSED TO RUSSIAN AUTOCRACY.

SOME time last autumn, on the initiative of several members of the Finnish Opposition, the representatives of eight of the leading opposition organizations in the Russian Empire held a conference, in Paris, for the purpose of agreeing on the possible means of coördinating the actions directed to the ends that might be shown to be common to all those organizations struggling against the autocratic system in the Russian Empire. The following organizations had been invited to send representatives to this conference:

The Russian Social Democratic Labor party; the party of Socialist-Revolutionists; the Alliance of Liberation (*Soyuz Osvobozhdeniya*); the Polish Socialist party; the Proletariat Polish Socialist party; the Social Democracy of Poland and Lithuania; the Polish National League; the Lithuanian Social Democratic party; the White Russian Socialist Group; the Ukrainian Socialistic party; the Ukrainian Revolutionary party; the Lettonian Social Democratic Labor party; the Alliance of Lettonian Social Democrats; the Finnish Labor party; the Finnish Party of Active Resistance; the Georgian Party of Socialist-Federalist-Revolutionists; the Armenian Social Democratic Labor

Organization; the Armenian Revolutionary Federation, and the General Jewish Labor Alliance (the *Bund*). Of the groups enumerated,—all of which had originally expressed fundamental agreement to take part in the conference,—the following organizations sent delegates: the Party of Socialist-Revolutionists, the Alliance of Liberation, the Polish National League, the Polish Socialistic party, the Lettonian Social Democratic Labor party, the Finnish Party of Active Resistance, the Georgian Party of Socialist-Federalist-Revolutionists, and the Armenian Revolutionary Federation. Three organizations—the Russian Social Democratic Labor party, the Social Democracy of Poland and Lithuania, and the Ukrainian Revolutionary party—sent their refusal to participate in the conference for specified motives. The remaining groups, for reasons not known to the conference, sent neither delegates nor reasons for holding off.

SOME RESULTS ACCOMPLISHED.

The conference came to conclusions set forth in the minutes, which were signed in the original by all the delegates taking part in the deliberations, with the exception of the representative of the Lettonian Social Democratic Labor party, who declared that he accepts all the re-

sults of the conference *ad referendum*. In order that the conference should not be without influence externally, it was decided to publish the condensed minutes of the assembly, as well as a declaration of the demands common to the organizations represented. The assembly discussed the possible points of an agreement and of an harmonious action principally within the limits of the following three sections: the form of government, the question of the nationalities, and the question of the means of carrying on the struggle. We quote the following particulars from the minutes of the conference:

In the matter of the political reorganization of the Russian Empire, to which all the groups represented alike tend, it was recognized as possible to declare that the simultaneous object of the struggle can be, not only the negative task—the subversion of autocracy—and not only the general formula of political freedom and fundamental rights, but also the tending toward the attainment of the political reorganization in the democratic spirit, which is likewise common to all the parties holding council together. A manifest proof of the general tendency of these parties toward the political transformation of the Russian Empire on democratic lines is the declaration—made by the conference, and identical for all the parties participating—that the fundamental principle of popular representation is to be universal suffrage.

Without entering into a closer analysis of the convertible point of the part that the question of the nationalities is to play at the laying of the foundations of the state law in the transformed Russian state, the assembly recognized it as possible to declare that all the parties taking part in the conference agree, at the solution of the question of the nationalities, to the admission to every nation of the right of deciding about itself (*samoopredeleniye*), and of the freedom of national development guaranteed by laws.

In the question of the means of carrying out the action, there was shown, first of all, their variety, proceeding from the diverse character, composition, and the conditions of the work of the parties.

It was also shown that this very variety can, to a certain degree, be a condition of the general success, and, what follows from this, that, in a given case, the entire freedom of action of all the parties not only does not stand in opposition to, but, on the contrary, in perfect harmony with, their design of coördinated actions. The first, very important, step in the direction of this harmonious action is, in the opinion of the conference, the very fact of the publishing of the minutes of the deliberations of the delegates of the organizations represented at the conference. . . . The discussions and resolutions in the matter of the further harmonious actions are not designed for publication.

In order to give the resolutions of the assembly still greater publicity, the conference framed

also the following declaration of the principles common to the parties represented:

THE DECLARATION OF THE CONFERENCE.

1. *Whereas*, autocratic government is a fatal obstacle to the progress and well-being of the Russian nation, as well as of all the other nationalities oppressed by the Czar's government, and constitutes, in the present state of civilization, an absurd and harmful anachronism;

2. *Whereas*, The struggle against that government could be carried on with far greater energy and success if the actions of the diverse opposition and revolutionary parties—Russian as well as non-Russian—were coördinated;

3. *Whereas*, The present moment especially favors the harmonious action of all those parties against the autocratic government, which is discredited and weakened by the terrible consequences of the war provoked by its adventurous policy;

Therefore, The representatives of the Alliance of Liberation, the Polish National League, the Polish Socialistic Party, the Party of Socialist-Revolutionists, the Georgian Party of Socialist-Federalist-Revolutionists, the Armenian Revolutionary Federation, and the Finnish Party of Active Resistance, assembled at a conference of the Opposition and revolutionary parties, have unanimously resolved to offer, in the name of all the above-mentioned organizations, the following declaration:

While uniting for the purpose of harmonious action, none of the parties represented at the conference thinks even for a moment of renouncing, by that union, any point whatever of its programme or any of its tactical means of conducting the struggle, which are adapted to the needs, the forces, and the situation of the social elements, classes, or nationalities whose interests it represents. At the same time, however, all the above-mentioned parties declare that the following fundamental principles and demands are identically recognized by them: (a) The abolition of autocracy; the repeal of all the enactments that have violated the constitutional rights of Finland; (b) the replacing of the autocratic government by a free democratic system on the basis of universal suffrage; (c) the right of the nationalities to decide about themselves; the guarantee by laws of the freedom of national development for all the nationalities; the abolition of violence on the part of the Russian Government in relation to individual nations.

In the name of these fundamental principles and demands, the parties represented at the conference will join their efforts for the purpose of hastening the inevitable fall of absolutism, under which there are alike impossible of attainment all the further heterogeneous objects that each of these parties has set before itself.

In the last number of the *Nordisk Revy*, the Stockholm review which recently suspended publication, owing, it is generally believed, to pressure from the Russian Government, the editor, Mr. K. Zilliacus, a noted Finnish writer, has an editorial on this Paris conference. The documents, he declares, were witnessed by a number of famous Russian names, including Struve, Gardenin, and Kaniovski.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

The War as Reflected in the American Magazines.—Some of the best accounts of the actual operations of the Russo-Japanese war have appeared in the American illustrated monthlies. The only American writer who was an eye-witness of the Japanese assaults on Port Arthur from the beginning was Richard Barry, whose story of the siege appears in *Everybody's* for April. Mr. George Kennan's account of what he saw at Port Arthur after the capitulation begins in the *Outlook* for March 4.—In the *World's Work* for April appears a Russian lieutenant's story of the naval fighting—"Grappling with Togo and Nogi."—The brightest chapter of war history that has yet been published is Dr. Anita Newcomb McGee's story of the reception of the American nurses in Japan, as told in the *Century*.—"The War's Disclosure of the Orient" is the title of a thoughtful paper by a Japanese student, Dr. T. Iyenaga, in the *World's Work*.

Economics to the Front.—Never before were our popular magazines so largely given over to economic discussion and exposition. The travel sketch, which twenty years ago shared with the short story a proud preëminence in editorial favor, has yielded its place to the "trust" article. The aspiring magazine writer of to-day must be equipped with more than a mere knack at describing mountain scenery and European cities; he must have a speaking acquaintance with the hardest and sternest facts of our modern workaday existence as a people, for it is just this over-commercialized side of life that the great public is eager to read about, if the magazine editors fairly interpret the popular taste. In the April magazines of 1885 one would have looked in vain for illustrated accounts of the capitalistic combinations of that day. The magazine issues of this month of April, 1905, on the other hand, reflect as fully as the daily press the present attitude of public opinion in regard to the concentration of capital. Mr. Charles E. Russell's analysis of the beef trust, in *Everybody's Magazine*, while less sensational than Mr. Lawson's "Frenzied Finance" papers in the same periodical, is probably more valuable in so far as it makes known the methods by which the railroads have been "held up" by the private-car interests. A similar line of exposition is followed in Samuel Merwin's account of "The Private-Car Abuses," in *Success*, and in Alfred Henry Lewis' "A Trust in Agricultural Implements," in the *Cosmopolitan*.—Wealth in the concrete seems to exert a peculiar fascination on editors, if we may judge from its prominence in the magazines. "The Astor Fortune" is the subject of an interesting illustrated article by Burton J. Hendrick in *McClure's*; Cleveland Moffett, continuing his series in *Success* on "The Shameful Misuse of Wealth," indicates "What We Waste on Clothes and Fêtes;" and "The Rich American in London Society" is described in *Munsey's* by James L. Ford.—More hopeful suggestions as to the disposition of wealth are

contained in Prof. John B. Clark's brief paper on "Profit-Sharing, Old and New," in *Harper's*, and in Isaac F. Marcossou's account of the process of "Giving Carnegie Libraries," in the *World's Work*.—Various aspects of public finance and of governmental activities are touched upon in Prof. Charles J. Bullock's essay on "The Cost of War," in the *Atlantic*; in Frank A. Vanderlip's treatment of European "Paternalism and Nationalism," in *Scribner's*; in Prof. Frederic Austin Ogg's study of "Germany and the Programme of Socialism," in the *Chautauquan*; in "Our Foreign Trade Fiasco," by Harold Bolce, in the *Booklovers*; and in "The Real Australia: A Workingman's Government," by Burriss Gahan, also in the *Booklovers*.

Home and Foreign Politics.—Mr. Lincoln Steffens continues, in *McClure's*, his exposures of political corruption in American States. "New Jersey: A Traitor State" is the title of the April installment. This is a tale of the sordid dealings of great corporations with small-fry politicians. It is by no means pleasant reading, but the average easy-going and well-meaning citizen, who is too easily contented with things as they are, ought to be stimulated by it to greater zeal and watchfulness.—"The Confessions of a Commercial Senator," in the *World's Work*, is a further revelation of a form of political rascality of which no State or section can claim a monopoly.—Let the reader, having perused Mr. Steffens' article and the "Commercial Senator's" confessions, turn now to ex-Governor Garvin's paper on "Corrupt Practices in Elections," in *Tom Watson's Magazine*, and he will be likely to conclude that the American electorate, from top to bottom, is hopelessly debased.—The gloominess of this impression will hardly be relieved by Mr. David Graham Phillips' rehearsal, in the *Cosmopolitan*, of the extraordinary incidents that have followed the assassination of Governor Goebel, in Kentucky.—The optimist in politics may find some slight consolation in Mr. Leroy Scott's study of District Attorney Jerome, of New York, in the *World's Work*, and in Mr. Charles C. Nott's account of the work of Mr. Jerome's office, in the *Atlantic*. These two papers indicate that an immense advance has been made during the past three years in the methods of administering justice in the American metropolis.—Mr. George W. Alger's article on "The Citizen and the Jury," in *Leslie's Monthly*, shows how the neglect of jury service reacts injuriously on the delinquent citizen.—Some of the broader issues of national policy are discussed by Mr. Frederick Upham Adams in a paper on "The Constitution," contributed to *Tom Watson's Magazine*, and by Mr. Charles F. Dole in an article entitled "The Right and Wrong of the Monroe Doctrine," in the *Atlantic*.—In the field of foreign politics, no nation receives so much attention at the present time as Russia. In the April magazines there are important articles on the unrest in that empire by Abra-

ham Cahan (the *World's Work*) and by Perceval Gibbon (*McClure's*).—"My Exile to Siberia" is the subject of an interesting sketch by Isador Ladoff in *Harper's*.—Vance Thompson writes in *Success* on "Spain Since Her Fight with Uncle Sam."—In the *Century*, Prince Momola Massaquoi voices "Africa's Appeal to Christendom."—In the "Letters to Literary Statesmen" (*Atlantic*), "Alciphron" addresses his April epistle to Premier Balfour.

Art in the Monthlies.—"What Herculaneum Offers to Archaeology" is enthusiastically set forth by Dr. Charles Waldstein in *Harper's*, and the same topic, in briefer outline, is dealt with in *Scribner's* by Mr. Russell Sturgis.—"The Remaking of Boston" is the

title of an article full of suggestions to all interested in municipal improvement, by Rollin Lynde Hartt, in the *World's Work*.—Mr. Richard Whiteing's first paper on "The Chateaux of the Loire" appears in the *April Century*.—The work of Byam Shaw as a painter of parables is described in the *Booklovers*, reproductions of several of his most famous paintings, in color and black-and-white, accompanying the text.—The scope and plans of the Carnegie foundation at Pittsburg for the encouragement of living artists are briefly outlined by Charles De Kay in *Leslie's*.—Mr. W. B. Yeats contributes a pleasing essay on "America and the Arts" to the *Metropolitan Magazine*.—In *Lippincott's* appears a sketch of Rosa Bonheur—"Greatest of Women Painters"—by Theodore Stanton.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

A Cuban View of American-Dominican Relations.—The Cuban economic weekly, the *Economista* (Havana), copies from the *Nuevo Paris* (also of the capital) an article entitled "The Regeneration of the People" and adds some comments of its own. The republic of Santo Domingo, it declares, has entered upon a new period of its history. Under the protection of the United States, there can be no fear of further bloody struggles for power. By coming to an agreement with Washington, President Morales has done his native land a great service which will call forth the gratitude of the present and of future generations of Dominicans. "The Dominicans are energetic and brave, but their energy and bravery have been hopelessly wasted. From now on, these two qualities will serve to raise the intellectual and moral standard and lay a firm foundation for the prosperity of Santo Domingo. The country will, while keeping its independence, pay its debts, live in peace with the world, and devote all its energy to the development of the prodigious wealth of its unexploited soil. The United States will guarantee the Dominicans protection against themselves and against foreign cupidity. Now they may indeed boast that they are on the road to civilized existence." The Cuban journal believes that the treaty will eventually be ratified, despite the reluctance of the American Senate. When, it says, in conclusion, the United States Government has seen to the payment of outstanding debts, foreign and internal, there will be a lasting peace. "Order and productive labor will prevail, public instruction will progress, population will increase, manufactures and commerce will grow, and the enormous agricultural resources of the republic will be developed."

The German Coal Strike.—A study of the coal miners' strike in Westphalia, by Maurice Lair, appears in the *Revue Bleue*. This writer gives some interesting data about the mineral wealth of the valley of the Ruhr, in which the richest veins are situated, and the industrial prosperity which has been brought about, based on the mining activities. The two large industrial cities of Dortmund and Essen are in this region, which supplies, annually, more than sixty million tons of coal, one-half of the total production of the empire. Since 1893, the entire productive activity of these coal fields has been under the control of a mining trust known as the Rhenish-Westphalian Syndicate, founded, in the year mentioned, at Essen. This body regulates the amount of production of coal, the price of sale, and has been

very autocratic, the men complain. The syndicate owns several transportation lines by land and water, and has been powerful enough to stand up against the efforts of the imperial government in behalf of the men. M. Lair traces the history of the development of labor unions in this region, their strength arising chiefly from the oppressive tactics of the syndicate—or cartel, as the Germans call it. The real strike began on January 7, last, when the company decided to demand an extra half-hour of work and the miners at the Bruchstrasse pit refused to descend. Of the 151 delegates in the mining union formed at Essen, 74 were Socialists, 67 "Passive Christians," 7 Poles, and 3 Liberals. These selected a commission of seven members, which formulated the demands of the workers. The strike has lasted for four months, and has been characterized by determination, but orderly, quiet conduct. By January 12, one hundred and ninety-five thousand had gone out. The most important result of the whole movement, it is generally admitted, has been the closer organization and solidarity of the German miners.

Japan and France in the Far East.—Baron Suyematsu, one of the best known of Japanese diplomats, has thought it worth while to write a careful, elaborate reply to the statements appearing in a number of French periodicals to the general effect that Japan has designs on France's Asiatic possessions, particularly Indo-China. The comment of a French writer (M. Marcel Prevost) in the *Figaro* was quoted in these pages last month. Baron Suyematsu (writing in *La Revue*) declares that there is absolutely no foundation for any fear on the part of France; there would be no logical, nor, in fact, any reason, for the Japanese attempting to absorb Indo-China. Geographical and ethnical reasons make it imperative that she should have Korea, but Cochin China is far from Japan, and the Japanese are not bent on conquest. The only relations Japan has with Indo-China arise from the fact that she consumes rice grown in the southern countries. Baron Suyematsu recalls the cordiality and importance of Franco-Japanese relations. He says that the Japanese have no fault to find with the Franco-Russian alliance, which, he presumes, is based on considerations of European politics; but, he asks, does that give the republic the right to insult another friendly nation? What crime has Japan committed against France? The French, whom the Japanese have always regarded as a chivalrous race, should not permit their alliance with Russia,

nor the now generally discarded idea that Japan is a parvenu nation, to influence them to the extent of enmity toward the Mikado's people, particularly for an offense of which they are not guilty.

The Origin of the Word "Jingo."—In a conspicuously illustrated article on the Japanese woman, in the *Revue Universelle*, the writer, who signs himself "S. Bing," gives an interesting account of the life and

in the year 201 A.D. that the invading Japanese weighed anchor. The expedition lasted three years, and wonderful exploits are recorded of it. During the expedition, the empress gave birth to a child, who became future emperor under the name of Ojin-Tenno, said to be the father of the present dynasty. Our much-used modern word "jingo" originated from the name of this empress. Our illustration is from the painting of a well-known Japanese painter.

Immigration to Cuba.—Commenting on the recent trip of the Cuban commission to Europe for the purpose of encouraging immigration, the *Economista* (Havana) observes that so long as the cost of living remains as high as it is in Cuba, and so long as no reforms are made in the customs regulations and in municipal taxes, it will be useless to think of attracting immigration from Europe. It will take a long time, in spite of many palliative measures, to dispel the distrust which prevails in emigration centers as to the future of Cuba, thinks this Havana journal. Italy, Spain, and Russia are not in the dark as to the political, economic, and social condition of Cuba, continues the *Economista*. "Those countries know of our many strikes and of the poverty of great numbers of our resident foreigners. All this they know but too well; hence, immigration has abandoned us. Our large Spanish and Italian communities keep their people at home well informed about all that may interest them, such as the probabilities of finding paying employment, the ease or difficulty in saving money, the high cost of living, the numerous taxes, and the general state of business. It is this information,—a trifle highly colored, perhaps,—that really influences immigration. To hold that a commissioner, however active he may be, can counteract such information is a fallacy. Time will show whether we are right."

Does Russia Need "Reforms" or "Reform" ?

—In the course of an article by an anonymous writer in the *Correspondant* we are informed that in Russia there are two kinds of reforms,—partisans of reform, and partisans of reforms. The first demand drastic changes in the entire administration and general governmental system; the others, while not advocating any interference with the powers of the sovereign, have a programme not less far-reaching than that of the Constitutionalists. The latter class, which seems to have the sympathy of the anonymous writer referred to, favors an absolute but regular monarchy. At present, he declares, Russian ministers are neither statesmen nor counselors,—they are simply agents to carry out the wishes of the Czar. The writer in the *Correspondant* sums up the general programme of the partisans of reforms in these words: "The number of ministers ought to be increased and the public services distributed among them. There should be a chief, or head, to personify the policy of the ministry, and all questions and nominations of importance should be discussed and decided in council. Every legislative measure, including the budget, should be studied and prepared by a large body of the councilors of the empire; and the sovereign, while reserving to himself the right to disapprove of the decisions of the majority, should abstain from substituting decisions of his own. The idea of reinforcing and strengthening the Imperial Council by the inclusion of representatives from the zemstvos finds great favor."



THE EMPRESS JINGO.

(From the painting by Kiyonago.)

reign of the famous Empress Jingo-Kogo. According to the legend, her husband, the Emperor Tchuai, organized an expedition to punish one of his rebellious provinces. The empress did not like the idea of fighting against her own people, so she succeeded in diverting his attention by the idea of a foreign war of conquest. Her husband, however, pursued his original idea, but died during the campaign. Jingo at once took charge of the army, and herself led the expedition against the neighboring country of Korea. To her generals, she said, "You have only a woman at your head, but she has the spirit of the emperor whose place she takes." Among the regulations issued for the conduct of her army were the following: no plundering permitted; never underestimate the strength of your enemy if he seems to be feeble, and never fear him if he seems to be strong; spare all of those who submit to you, but give no quarter to those who resist." It was

Is France Commercially Decadent?—A defense of France's commercial position appears in the *Nouvelle Revue*. The writer, Antoine Touche, declares that the foreign commerce of France has made great progress in recent years, chiefly owing to trade with the French colonies. But France and England are becoming less and less the countries which supply the universe, and Germany and the United States are coming more and more to the front. Twenty years ago, the Americans were the great purchasers of the globe; today, they are the great vendors. Nevertheless, there are many articles of French produce with which to conquer the American market. With Germany it is different; she has been a rival to France since 1870. A central bureau and the creation of commercial expansion groups to arrest the decline of French foreign commerce and to facilitate the exportation of French produce have long been demanded by French consuls, chambers of commerce, etc. An article, by Cajire, on M. Ruau, minister of agriculture, appears in the same issue. The writer thinks the antiquated agricultural methods of France will now be transformed by the infusion of new blood and the creative energy of younger men.

Japan's Probable Terms of Peace.—An anonymous writer in the *Revue de Paris* discusses the conditions of peace which will be imposed by Japan. Asia for the Asiatics, he declares, will be the war-cry of the island empire. Japan went to war to maintain the integrity of Korea, but the Korean problem is only one feature of a vaster problem. In reality, China is sick, and only Japan can save her. If Japan gets possession of Manchuria, she will make her influence felt at Peking. Vladivostok, as well as Manchuria, will have to be abandoned by Russia, and no Russian naval base in the Pacific will be permitted. A series of reforms will be instituted in Korea by Japan, and there will be a general reconstruction of the far East by pacific methods, but with the threat of an appeal to arms. Such is the Japanese idea of peace.

Pierre Loti on the Japanese People.—Pierre Loti, who was in Japan in 1902, describes, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the Japanese as a quarrelsome people, puffed up with pride, envious of others, and handling with cruelty and skill the machines and explosives whose secrets have been revealed to them. Though small in stature, these people, he says, will foment nothing but hatred among the large yellow family toward the white races, and they will be the instigators of future invasions and bloodshed.

Open-Sea Coaling in Times of War.—An elaborate study of the project of coaling warships is contributed to the German magazine, *Umschau* (Frankfort-on-Main), by Franz Eissenhart. This writer introduces his subject with a reference to the Spanish-American War. He recalls the fact that Admiral Cervera, having lost to the American fleet the colliers that were sent to provide the necessary coal for his ships, was compelled to go into Santiago without coal. In that harbor, thanks to Spanish maladministration, no coal was to be found. When the admiral, using coal-dust, tried to break out of the harbor, disaster soon followed, in spite of the fact that his ships were faster than those of the Americans. After emphasizing the very great importance of free and adequate coal-supply and outlining the policies of the great naval stations in establishing naval coaling

stations all over the world, the writer of this article declares that the taking on of coal in the open sea has been proven a necessity of modern warfare. Fleets lose a good deal of time in stopping to coal at stations, he says, and some other means must be provided. Coaling in the open sea he describes as being accomplished by two methods,—first, the warship may stop and lie alongside the collier; or, second, both ships may continue their course and the transit of fuel from one to the other be accomplished by a trolley connection. The coal-bags pass along the trolley, and, after having been emptied, are returned to the collier by means of another trolley. During the past year, the English Mediterranean fleet used this method to great advantage, fifty tons of coal per hour having been transferred from the colliers to the warships. This saving of time is of very great importance, the writer points out. Now that both belligerents have declared coal to be contraband of war, England has benefited greatly by the coal trade with both nations. British colliers have been discovered in all waters of the world, supplying both Japan and Russia—and frequently captured and confiscated by one of the belligerents. During the first seven months of the war (six of them war months), the British coal export to Japan aggregated 87,000 tons, and that to Russia 1,280 tons.

Sicily Plans War on California Lemons.—From an article by Ettore Arduino in the *Riforma Sociale* (Turin-Rome) on "The Citrus Fruit Crisis of Sicily" it is learned that the fruit business of that island is in a bad way, quite largely through the increased production and better marketing methods of California. In the last twenty years, the production of citrus fruits in southern Italy has tripled. With only the present number of trees, the crop will go on increasing. Meanwhile, the exportation has been and is falling off. Spain, with cheaper culture and shipments, has advantage over Italy in supplying Germany, France, and Switzerland, with which countries Italy has more favorable tariff arrangements than with any other country except Austria Hungary. The latter has abolished all duty on citrus fruits, and Italy's exportation thereto has increased from 200,000 to 1,700,000 boxes annually. The California crop is, however, the greatest element in lessening Italy's market, since it supplied 7,000,000 boxes out of the 9,000,000 boxes of oranges sold in the United States in 1903, and Florida furnished a good share of the remainder. Italy supplies only the "between season" demand, and sent 20,000 quintals (2,200 tons) in 1900 and 1901, and 50,000 quintals (5,500 tons) in 1902. As to lemons, however, it is stated that the Sicilian fruit excels in juiciness and in keeping qualities that of California. Also, the California harvest is at the end of the year and the beginning of the next, when prices are lowest. Labor for picking and packing is paid, in California, triple the rates prevailing in Sicily. So we bought of Italy, in 1900, 2,100,000 boxes of lemons; in 1901, 1,950,000 boxes; and in 1902, 2,325,000 boxes. However, it often happens that the price received barely pays the cost of marketing, freight, and duty, and the exporter may even have not only to lose the value of his goods, but also to pay, in addition, his American commission man. This is due to the lack of shipping organization or coöperation, dumping shipments into glutted markets, and packing all sizes and qualities of lemons together. The system of selling at auction in New York and elsewhere also results in

keeping prices low. The auction houses also act as middlemen between importer and buyers, and get often 3 per cent., a third of this being interest on money advanced in the transaction. The writer urges, as remedies, improvement in quality of fruit, organization of the business, improvement in the means and conditions of transportation, and government aid. Some of these remedies are in process of application. The government, in 1903, abolished the tax on consumption of citrus fruits and products, granted an allowance in 1904 amounting to thirty thousand dollars for encouragement of culture, and authorized the discounting of notes issued against fruit stored in warehouses. A coöperative society, "La Meridionale," with headquarters at Palermo, had 549 members a year ago, and other societies are being formed in imitation. These establish warehouses and manage the shipment and sale of citrus fruits and products for a fee of 3 per cent. Another society, "La Citrica," will attack the industrial problem.

The Trans-Siberian Railroad During the War.—A brief study of the way in which the famous Trans-Siberian Railroad has been operated during the months of the war appears in the *Revue Bleue*. The writer, Albert Métin, who declares that in July and August, 1904, he made a trip along the entire line and return from European Russia, asserts, that, with few minor exceptions, the road was operated most successfully, particularly in its far-Eastern section. Very soon, he declares, the Trans-Siberian will compare quite favorably with the transcontinental lines of the United States.

What Will Become of the Canary Islands?—A study of the past history and present condition of the Canary Islands, with some suggestions as to their future, appears in the Spanish review, *Lectura* (Madrid), by Mr. Delgado Barreto. The negligence of Spain, says this writer, is gradually permitting the English to become dominant in the Canary Islands. The excellent climate in that group, and especially its fine productive sunshine, has drawn English tourists, and those who are seeking health resorts, in large numbers. These very facts, however, ought to make a prosperous Spanish colony. Then it must not be forgotten that the Canary Islands have given to Spain a number of her young writers of talent, among them Guerra, Angel, and Sarmiento. Spain, concludes this writer, must not remain asleep to the value of the Canaries, nor as to their danger from foreign greed.

A Polish View of Emerson.—The Concord philosopher was "one of the most profound figures of the nineteenth century, and incontestably the most original American genius." This is the verdict of a philosophical writer (Mr. Zielowicz) who contributes to the *Biblioteka Warszawska* (Warsaw) a study of Ralph Waldo Emerson. The American philosopher, says this writer, appropriated to himself all the culture of the past, but it created a new man, who announced a new era.

A German View of Our Negro Problem.—A German political and economic writer, Herr Friedrich Hertz, declines to admit that there is a "black danger" in America. The negro, he declares—without stating where he gets his figures—in an article in the *Sozialistische Monatshefte* (Berlin), will become more moral

than the white. He declares that in the Boer war the percentage of chronic drunkenness among the Irish was a thousand times as great as that among the negroes. One white soldier out of 220 died of alcoholism, while the percentage among the blacks was only 1 out of 4,500. In the United States, he believes, from the intellectual point of view, the negroes will show as much aptitude as the whites when they are given a fair chance in every department of life.

Greek Types Preserved in Spain.—An interesting note on the racial characteristics of certain inhabitants of Spain is furnished the *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid) by Dr. Emilio Ribera. He says that in the villages of Denia, Sagunto, and Burriana, in the old kingdom of Valencia, it is not possible to remain an hour without noticing the unmistakable Greek type of the people, especially the women. They are in great contrast to the people of other communities close by, formed from a mixture of the Arab, Castilian, Aragonese, and Moorish elements left by successive conquests. Such preservation of type he accounts for through the remarkable rivalry and prejudice between neighboring communities in Spain. A few years ago, it was a disgrace for a woman of Burriana or Denia to have any relations with a man from a neighboring village, while marriages with utter foreigners,—Maltese, Italians, and English,—were not uncommon. The isolation was aided by the pronounced dissenting religious opinions of the population. Until lately, Burriana had but one church, while Villa Real had many. In Denia there has always been much heresy. Masonry, almost unknown elsewhere in the region, has flourished there, and Protestantism, introduced by the English, has only in these Greek towns gained many adherents. It seems that there is a constant instinct to be a separate people. Dr. Ribera thinks observation would determine other similar centers on the east coast of Spain.

The Strikes of the World.—A review of the progress of socialism for the three years ending December, 1904, appears in the *Revue Universelle*, over the signature of C. Béguin. The writer first considers the strikes in France and the legislation looking to arbitration. The strikes of the coal miners and of the dockers in Marseilles are considered, and then labor troubles in the United States and Italy are analyzed. It is significant, he remarks, in conclusion, that most of the socialistic organizations do not look with favor on general strikes.

The Moral Force of an Army.—The well-known French commander, Gen. D. Négrier, contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* a study of the moral force of an army. He says that in long periods of peace certain essential principles of organization are often lost sight of, and that the necessity of them is only clearly seen during war. These principles concern the cohesion and the moral force of armies. A regiment can only undergo the trials incident to war when the various elements composing it know one another, and when the men know their chiefs and are known by them. To form a regiment of volunteers or reservists only shows an entire misconception of the laws which govern the moral forces without which there can be no army. Confidence between chiefs and men cannot be improvised, for it is the result of a long moral education founded on the traditions of race, and can only be acquired by a life lived in common for a considerable time.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BOOKS ABOUT THE GREAT OUT-OF-DOORS.

MR. HENRY SAVAGE LANDOR has described his second journey to Tibet in a volume issued by Black, of London, and imported by the Macmillan Company. Mr. Landor's book ("Tibet and Nepal") describes the natives, their customs and costumes, their religion, and the country through which he passed. It is a weird and fascinating story, told in the author's best vein, and the volume is illustrated with numerous colored and black-and-white pictures, being reproductions of sketches made by himself on the spot. There are also maps, charts, and diagrams.



DR. WILFRED T. GRENFELL.

The reading world had a taste of new "book region" in Mr. Norman Duncan's "Dr. Luke of the Labrador," that exquisitely written story of fishermen's life noticed in this REVIEW for January. Two other volumes, treating of the same region and of a man whose work has meant so much to its inhabitants, have just been issued by the same publishers, the Fleming H. Revell Company. These are Dr. Wilfred T. Grenfell's "Harvest of the Sea" and Norman Duncan's "Dr. Grenfell's Parish." Whichever of the two you read first, you get the same impression of the large-hearted "missionary to the deep-sea fishermen." Dr. Grenfell is the representative of the Royal National Mission to Deep Sea Fishermen on the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador. He is an Oxford man, a master seaman, missionary, promoter of industry, magistrate, physician, and helpful friend of every fisherman on the Labrador

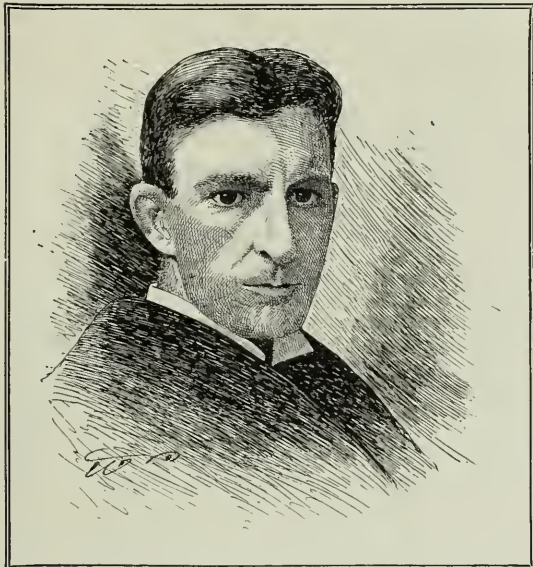
coast. Mr. Duncan makes him out to be a very lovable character. His parish is the deep sea, and his parishioners the fishermen. In his own production, the "Harvest of the Sea," Dr. Grenfell gives us a vivid story of the fisherman's life on the Dogger Banks in the North Sea and off the coast of Newfoundland and Labrador. The story, which he sub-titles "A Tale of Both Sides of the Atlantic," is full of the hardships, danger, adventure, and romance that are included in "the price of fish." Both volumes are appropriately illustrated.

A PAIR OF HISTORICO-POLITICAL NOVELS.

Two stirring political novels dealing with the same period of American history, that of the reconstruction days in the South, come to us from Doubleday, Page & Co. "The Clansman" is Thomas Dixon, Jr.'s, second novel in a series planned to illuminate the race conflict in the United States. This, the author claims, is the true story of the Ku-Klux Klan conspiracy, and is a natural sequel to "The Leopard's Spots." The story is really a burning indictment of the "policy of revenge" pursued by Congress and the Northern people in the South after amnesty had been offered and accepted. Many of the characters taking part in the fierce drama are historical figures in a disguise so thin that they can be recognized beyond a doubt. Chief among these, probably, is the Hon. Austin Stoneman, radical leader of Congress, who is undoubtedly Thaddeus Stevens. There is a love-story,—a double love-story,—winding through "The Clansman," which, however, is of somewhat subordinate interest. The other volume is a novel of Virginia in the days of reconstruction, under the title "The Lion's Skin." In it the author, Capt. John S. Wise, breaks a literary silence of some years. Mr. Wise's success with his former book, "The End of an Era," will be remembered, and this present novel is a sequel, largely autobiographical, to this former work. Captain Wise, a member of one of the oldest Virginia families, son of the Hon. Henry S. Wise, United States minister to Brazil, governor of Virginia, and general in the Confederate army, has himself had a wide and long experience in politics. Beginning as a Democrat, he was elected, at the close of the war, as a Republican. He now resides in New York City, practising law. In "The Lion's Skin" Mr. Wise gives us a new kind of reconstruction story, cleverly weaving together fact and fiction, and discussing the negro problem frankly and impressively.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

Readers of Miss Laut's article in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS on the real meaning of the Portland Exposition will find in a new book, entitled "Breaking the Wilderness," by Frederick S. Dellenbaugh (Putnams), the full story of the conquest of the far West from the time of Cabeza de Vaca down to the completion of the Union Pacific Railway. Mr. Dellenbaugh is an artist who has spent much of his time for many years in different portions of the West, having been a member of Powell's second Colorado River expedition. In this book he gives special attention to the



THOMAS DIXON, JR.

(Author of "The Clansman.")

trapper and trader, whose exploits have received little detailed treatment in our popular histories. The Lewis and Clark expedition itself, of course, comes in for somewhat extended treatment, but much has been written of this expedition in other books, and the chief value of Mr. Dellenbaugh's work is the presentation of the chronological review of Western exploration in unbroken sequence. The illustrations of the volume are



F. S. DELLENBAUGH.

chiefly from photographs, and are all interesting and important. They serve to show with vividness the nature of the country which lay spread out before the early explorers,—a veritable wilderness, as it is characterized in Mr. Dellenbaugh's description. Books like this are needed at this time to revive the interest of the passing generation and to implant in the youth of the land a zest

for more accurate knowledge of the men who opened to settlement and civilization the great West.

The first of a series of "Source Books of American History" (New York: A. Wessels Company) is a reprint of Burnaby's travels through North America, with an introduction and notes by Rufus Rockwell Wilson. Rev. Andrew Burnaby was a traveler in the American colonies in the years 1759 and 1760, near the close of the French and Indian War. The first edition of his travels appeared in 1775, and was published with a view to influencing English opinion against a rupture with the colonies. The third edition appeared in 1798, and in

the preface the author took occasion to say that he still believed that the separation of the colonies from the mother country might have been prevented; that coercive measures, once resolved upon, might have been enforced, comparatively speaking, without bloodshed; that the union of the States was not likely to be permanent; that the country must necessarily be divided into separate states and kingdoms, and that America would not, for many ages, at least, become formidable to Europe. The author's point of view is that of a devoted minister of the Church of England and a loyal supporter of the crown. Having made allowance for his religious and political leanings, we see no reason to doubt the conclusion of Mr. Wilson that he was moved by a sincere purpose to be truthful and just.

A volume full of interesting and valuable information about northern South America is William L. Scruggs' "The Colombian and Venezuelan Republics" (Little, Brown), which has just been issued in a new



JOHN S. WISE.

(Author of "The Lion's Skin.")

edition, revised and containing an additional chapter on the Panama Canal and the text of the Panama Canal treaty. Mr. Scruggs, it will be remembered, was formerly the United States minister to Colombia and to Venezuela, and he writes from an intimate knowledge obtained in an official capacity. He describes the general conditions of life, the politics, the economics, and the scenery of northern South America, with a full history of Colombia and an account of the Panama Canal treaty up to date. The volume contains ten full-page illustrations and three maps.

"Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius" is the subject of a learned work by Samuel Dill, M.A. (Macmillan). This is preëminently a book for scholars, and in the nature of the case will be little used outside of universities and colleges.

A less pretentious contribution to the study of civili-

zation is a volume of selected studies from European histories of the Middle Ages, edited by Dana Carleton Munro and George Clarke Sellery, of the University of Wisconsin (Century). This is a convenient compilation, embracing much material never before made accessible in English, and intended for use as supplementary reading in universities and colleges.

A good "Short History of England," for the use of schools, has been compiled by Prof. Edward P. Cheney, of the University of Pennsylvania (Ginn). The author has endeavored in this work to select for treatment those events that were truly significant in England's history, and, in order that prominence might be given to these, a great deal of material that ordinarily has a place in such books has been omitted. The whole story is told in about seven hundred closely printed pages.

A series of historical tales from the storied past of the two American continents have been gathered into one volume, under the title "Historical Tales: The Romance of Reality" (Lippincott), by Charles Morris, author of "Half-Hours With the Best American Authors." The one on Spanish-American tales ought to be particularly interesting and valuable in schools. The style is entertaining but discriminating.

When the late Mr. E. A. Freeman died he left uncompleted the materials for a volume on the "History of Western Europe in the Fifth Century." These materials have been gathered by Mr. Freeman's executors, and published (Macmillan) under the editorial supervision of Mr. T. Scott Holmes.

SOCIOLOGY.

The papers read before the Sociological Society of London have been collected and published in a single volume, under the title "Sociological Papers" (Macmillan). Included in this volume is an introductory address by the Rt. Hon. James Bryce, the president of the society. Among the papers is one on the subject of "Civics as Applied to Sociology," by Prof. Patrick Geddes, whose writings are well known in the United States. There are also contributions by such eminent sociologists as Francis Galton, Dr. E. Westermarck, and Mr. Harold H. Mann, the latter writing on "Life in an Agricultural Village in England." Much space is devoted in this volume to the discussion of the origin and use of the term "sociology," and of the relation of sociology to the social sciences and philosophy,—questions upon which American sociologists have already expended much thought.

A book which serves to give an insight into the trend of modern English thought on social questions is "Democracy and Reaction," by L. T. Hobhouse (Putnam's). This volume is made up of a series of essays dealing with British Free Trade, Imperialism, Modern Imperialism, and Socialism. The author finds the causes of reaction in the growing concentration of material interests, and in schools of thought which tend to discredit the conception of right, in one form or another, to justify the sway of expediency, or even of brute force. Still, the old humanitarian ideals remain unimpaired in moral force, nor have they been undermined by the theory of evolution.

In the series which Prof. George Santayana (Harvard) is bringing out, under the title "Life of Reason; or, The Phases of Human Progress" (Scribner's), the second volume, entitled "Reason in Society," has just been published. The first volume consisted of the introduction and "Reason in Common Sense." The three

volumes to follow will be "Reason in Religion," "Reason in Art," and "Reason in Science." Professor Santayana is Professor Münsterberg's associate in the department of philosophy.

One fruit of the British tariff controversy in the past year is the book entitled "Modern Tariff History: Germany, United States, France," by Percy Ashley (Dutton). This work is intended, of course, for English consumption, and its conclusions are decidedly hostile to protectionism. The most that is admitted as to Germany is that changes in her tariff policy have been only one, and commonly not the most important, among the many causes of her economic progress; while it is claimed that in the United States the Dingley tariff gives the trusts unusual advantages, and of French tariff legislation it is affirmed that it has done little good, and in various ways has done much harm to industry and commerce.

Some essays of the late Prof. Charles F. Dunbar, of Harvard, several of which had never before been published, have been gathered into a substantial volume, edited by Dr. O. M. W. Sprague, of Harvard, and prefaced by an introduction by Professor Taussig (Macmillan). Professor Dunbar was, perhaps, best known for his work on "Theory and History of Banking;" but in the present volume there appear several papers dealing with other departments of economic science, particularly taxation and commercial crises.

In the series of "Questions of the Day" (Putnam's) appears a brief argument by District Attorney Jerome, of New York, on "The Liquor-Tax Law in New York: A Plea for the Opening of Saloons on Sunday." This little pamphlet discusses many of the evils in the city of New York incident to the Raines law and its non-enforcement, as well as some of the proposed methods of dealing with the law, closing with a succinct statement and discussion of an amendment to the law proposed by Mr. Jerome.

The Slocum Lectures of 1894, delivered at the University of Michigan by the Rev. Robert A. Holland, have only recently been published, under the title "The Commonwealth of Man" (Putnam's). They have been revised by the author in the light of the discussion that followed the publication of Mr. Edwin Markham's poem, "The Man with the Hoe," which, in the opinion of Mr. Holland, consisted chiefly of a series of "socialistic fallacies set to stormful music."

ABOUT MUSIC AND MUSICAL PEOPLE.

Mr. Henry G. Hanchett has made of his lectures on music a little volume entitled "The Art of the Musician" (Macmillan), which is intended to give to music-lovers (who may not be thoroughly versed in the intricacies of the art) an idea of the reasons which prompt musical critics to approve or disapprove of compositions. It is not technically written, nor is anything further presupposed than the ability to understand musical notation.

The Oliver Ditson Company has issued a profusely illustrated pictorial souvenir of the most famous living opera singers, with their biographies, by Gustav Kobbé. This handsome work is interesting as giving intimate glimpses of opera folk, whom the public sees only under the glare of the footlights and in the character of some one else. The artists considered in this attractive book are Nordica, Calvé, Eames, Melba, Sembrich, Ternina, and Schumann-Heink, and Caruso and Jean and Edouard De Reszke. There is also a chapter on "Opera-Singers Off Duty."

LITERARY BIOGRAPHY AND MEMORABILIA.

One of the modern masters of English style, who is comparatively but little known in this country, was Coventry Patmore. Mr. Edmund Gosse, therefore, in preparing his biographical sketch of Patmore in the series of "Literary Lives" which Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll is editing for the Scribners, has done a real service to literature. This volume is illustrated. We have already noted in these pages the literary lives of Matthew Arnold, Cardinal Newman, and John Bunyan, which have so far appeared. Those in preparation are on Hutton, Goethe, and Hazlitt.

The Putnams are issuing a series of French classics for English readers, which is edited by Prof. Adolphe Cohn (Columbia) and Dr. Curtis Hidden Page (Columbia). This series will consist of six volumes, to include Rabelais, Montaigne, Molière (two volumes), Beaumarchais, and George Sand. These volumes are very satisfactory from a typographical standpoint. The one on Rabelais has already been issued. It includes the best chapters of his famous romance of Gargantua and Pantagruel. This volume, which is edited by Dr. Page, has a frontispiece portrait of Rabelais reproduced from the famous painting in the library of Geneva. The importance of Rabelais in the study of French literature cannot be overestimated. He was the first great prose writer who used a language near enough to that spoken to-day to be called modern French.

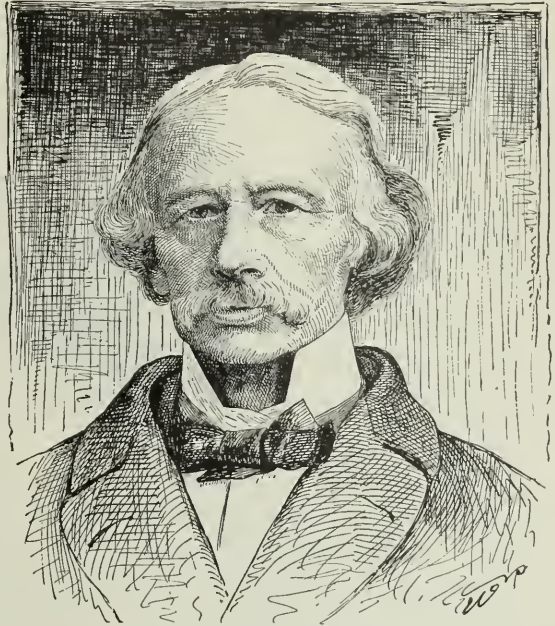
The London house of Dent is issuing a series of monographs on well-known localities, under the general title of "Temple Topographies." So far, four have been issued, "Stratford-on-Avon" (Herbert W. Tompkins), "Knutsford" (G. A. Payne), "Broadway" (Algernon Gissing), and "Evesham" (E. H. New). The same firm is issuing a very useful and attractive little series of French classics under the general direction of Mr. Daniel S. O'Connor. These volumes are excellently printed, with frontispieces of the authors whose works are reproduced. Two of the latest issues are the "Atala Rene and Le Dernier Abencerge" of Chateaubriand and the "Contes Choisis" of Balzac.

Recent issues of the excellent French texts published by William R. Jenkins are Eugene Scribe's comedy in five acts, "Le Verre d'Eau," edited by Prof. F. G. Schmidt, of the University of Oregon, and André Theuriot's "L'Abbé Daniel," edited by Dr. C. Fontaine, of the New York City High School of Commerce.

Among the recent issues of the "Pocket American and English Classics" (Macmillan) are "Hawthorne's Wonder-Book," edited for school use by L. E. Wolfe, superintendent of schools, San Antonio, Texas; "Lewis Carroll's Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" (with illustrations by John Tenniel), edited by Charles A. McMurry, and "Homer's Iliad" (abridged), "done into English prose" by Andrew Lang, Walter Leaf (Cambridge), and Ernest Myers (Oxford).

EDUCATION.

"Personal and Ideal Elements in Education" is the title given to a volume of addresses by President Henry C. King, of Oberlin College (Macmillan.) The problems which have the foremost place in these addresses are those related to religious education; one of the addresses, in fact, had been delivered at the first convention of the Religious Education Association, held at Chicago, in 1903. In view of the present widespread interest in evangelical methods, President King's discus-



COVENTRY PATMORE.

sion of Christian training and the revival as methods of converting men is likely to attract wide attention.

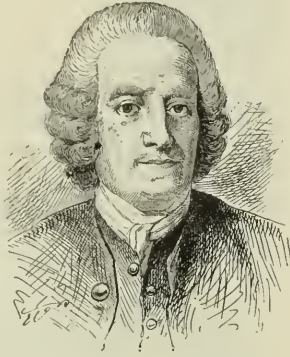
"Pedagogues and Parents" is the title of a bright little book by Ella Calista Wilson (Holt) which discusses schools and education from the parents' point of view. Parents, and teachers as well, will derive no little entertainment from the writer's chapters on "Child Morality," "Practical Morals," "The Children Themselves," and "Pedagogues and Parents."

Apropos of the centenary, on February 19 of this year, of the movement for free public schools in the city of New York, Mr. A. Emerson Palmer, secretary of the New York City Board of Education, has prepared a history of free education in the city (Macmillan). An interesting feature of this work is the full account which it gives of the Public School Society, a movement which the author justly characterizes as unique and of rare interest.

Two little volumes on domestic science have been prepared by Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, who approaches the subject in the proper scientific spirit but handles her themes in a popular, interesting way. These are, "The Art of Right Living" and "First Lessons in Food and Diet." They are published by Whitecomb & Barrows (Boston). Mrs. Richards is instructor in sanitary chemistry in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. She has made these books small, concise, and direct with a definite purpose, she informs us. They are meant to reach those who will not read more ambitious works. They deal with the principal phases of our food, sleep, amusement, exercise, work, and pleasure. The same publishers have just brought out Bertha Jane Richardson's "The Woman Who Spends," to which Mrs. Richards has written an introduction. "The Woman Who Spends" is a study of the economic function of woman, and it treats of woman's entire relation to the economic problems of modern life.

BOOKS ON PHILOSOPHICAL THEMES.

A new translation of "The Four Doctrines" of Emanuel Swedenborg, translated from the original Latin works, and edited by the Rev. John Faulkner Potts, has just been issued by the American Swedenborg Printing and Publishing Society. This volume contains the famous "Nine Questions" and the four doctrines of the new Jerusalem, concerning "The Lord," "The Holy Scripture," "Life from the Ten Commandments," and "Faith." The work is very clearly printed and durably bound. The society also issues and sends out with this volume a little booklet entitled "Who Was Swedenborg, and What Are His Writings?" with a catalogue of his theological works.



EMANUEL SWEDENBORG.

The Open Court Publishing Company has brought out an American edition of Henry Ridgely Evans' "The Napoleon Myth." This consists of a reprint of "The Grand Erratum," by Jean-Baptiste Pères, and an introduction by Dr. Paul Carus. The whole is a summary of the results of the "higher criticism" as applied to the Napoleon of the popular imagination.

Another little volume of thought-provoking, cheerful philosophy has come from the pen of Pastor Charles Wagner, author of "The Simple Life" and other helpful, consistently written homilies. This is entitled "On Life's Threshold" (McClure, Phillips), and consists of a series of talks to young people on character and conduct. These talks are really interesting to the youth of the United States, whom Pastor Wagner has declared he loves with all his heart. The present volume has been translated by Edna St. John, and is uniform with the editions of the author's preceding works published by the same house.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

The London "Who's Who" (Macmillan) is still our chief reliance for contemporary British biography. The number of biographical sketches appearing in this useful volume is increasing from year to year, the present (1905) edition consisting of nearly eighteen hundred pages in fine type. Practically all well-known Englishmen whose names one is likely to encounter in newspaper or magazine reading are included in this valuable compendium.

A book full of attractive material, which, however, will need frequent revision, is "Modern Industrial Progress," by Charles H. Cochrane (Lippincott). In this work the author gives detailed descriptions of the latest developments in various forms of mechanism. The first three chapters are devoted to electrical inventions. These are followed by descriptions of the latest devices in farming machinery, automobiles, lumbering, mining, milling, quarrying, and a thousand other industries which contribute to our present complex existence. Numerous pictures accompany the text.

"The Story of American Coals," by William Jasper Nicolls (Lippincott), has been revised and brought up to date. This book begins with a statement as to the origin of coal, and continues with a full account of its development, together with a description of the different routes by which it reaches the consumer and the various uses to which it is put.

In the Wallet series of "Popular Science Handbooks," Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co. have issued "Electric Lighting for the Inexperienced," by Hubert Walter.

A NEW BOOK ABOUT THE GERMAN EMPEROR.

A very witty and keen arraignment of Kaiser William of Germany, from the French point of view, is Henri de Noussanne's "The Kaiser as He Is," a translation of which (Putnam's) has just been made by Walter Littlefield. The Kaiser, M. de Noussanne believes, stands as the type and symbol of all that is German to-day in culture, thought, and industry. He is, however, in the opinion of the French writer, *un malade* (mentally deranged.) William II., says this writer, is versatile, vain, ambitious, and spectacular. He is perhaps the most striking figure on the world's stage, but he has, nevertheless, betrayed the larger hopes and needs of his people.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Analytic Interest Psychology. By J. S. Engle, A.M. King Bros., Baltimore.
- Art of Rising in the World, The. By Henry Hardwicke. Ogilvie Publishing Company.
- Bookman, The. (Vol. XX.) Dodd, Mead & Co.
- Boy Captive of Old Deerfield, The. By Mary P. Wells Smith. Little, Brown & Co.
- Changeless Christ, The. By Rev. Robert Forbes, D.D. Jennings & Graham.
- Citizenship and the Duties of a Citizen. By Walter L. Sheldon. W. M. Welch Company.
- Concerning Genealogies. By Frank Allaben. The Grafton Press.
- Correct Writing and Speaking. By Mary A. Jordan. Barnes.
- Credit Man and His Work, The. By E. St. Elmo Lewis. Bookkeeper Publishing Company, Detroit.
- Duties in the Home. By Walter L. Sheldon. W. M. Welch Company, Chicago.
- Etiquette of Correspondence, The. By Helen E. Gavit. A. Wessels Company.
- Evolution, Revolution—Which? By H. M. Williams. M. W. Hazen Company.
- Fraternal and Benevolent Societies. By Franklin Noble, D.D. Treat.
- Funeral, The: Its Conduct and Proprieties. By J. N. Greene. Jennings & Graham.
- Garden with a House Attached, A. By Sarah Warner Brooks. Badger.
- Geschichten aus der Tonne. By Frank Vogel. Heath.
- History of Carleton College, The. By Rev. Delavan L. Leonard, D.D. Revell.
- History of Civilization. By Julian Laughlin, 417 Pine Street, St. Louis, Mo.
- History Syllabus for Secondary Schools, A. Heath.
- How to Study Literature. By Benjamin A. Heydrick. Hinds, Noble & Eldredge.
- Jefferson, Thomas. By Richard S. Poppen, 3328 Washington Avenue, St. Louis.
- Legal Tender Problem, The. By Percy Kinnaird. Ainsworth & Co.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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VICE-ADMIRAL ZINOVĪ PETROVICH ROZHSTVENSKI.

(The man who has been carrying Russia's fortunes in the far East, commander of the much-discussed Baltic fleet, is a typical Russian sailor, of pure Muscovite blood and representative Muscovite character. He is a man in his early fifties, of a high-strung, nervous temperament, a strict disciplinarian, and a thorough seaman. Officially, he is commander of the Second Pacific Squadron, the term Baltic fleet being of British and American application. It will be remembered that Russia's first Pacific squadron, under the successive command of Admirals Stark, Makaroff, Wittshoeff, Viren, and Uklitovski, was destroyed at Port Arthur. Rozhstvenski's original squadron is the Second. The Third, under command of Rear-Admiral Voelkersam, was consolidated with Rozhstvenski's squadron in February, and the Fourth, under command of Vice-Admiral Nebogatov, is now on its way through the Indian Ocean to join him. Admiral Rozhstvenski is also chief of the Russian general naval staff. After its long delay in starting, and its unfortunate attack on English fishing vessels in the North Sea, last October, the voyage of the Baltic fleet was uneventful until its long wait in the Indian Ocean off Madagascar. Then began the Japanese charges against Admiral Rozhstvenski and France for violation of neutrality, culminating in the formal protest, on April 20, of the Japanese Government against the Russian admiral's presence at Kamranh Bay, French Cochin China. This Japanese protest, and France's explanation and assurance of her intention to preserve absolute neutrality, are the subjects of some excited discussion at this writing—April 21. The French Government has asserted that Rozhstvenski left Kamranh Bay within twenty-four hours.)

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Chicago in the Public Eye.

In a hundred phases, the relationships of the corporations and monopolies with the Government and the people were under vigorous discussion throughout the United States last month. The most striking event in the series of events or situations that provoked all this fresh outburst of argument and arousing of the public mind was the election of Judge Dunne as mayor of Chicago, on a platform demanding the immediate ownership of the street-railroad lines of the city by the municipal government and the direct conduct of the business as a municipal department. There have been many creditable things in the history of the municipal government of Chicago. In view of the brevity of the city's existence, the heterogeneous character of its working population, and the other difficulties belonging to the circumstances of the case, Chicago's achievements are among the greatest in the history of mankind. In due time, doubtless, Chicago will overcome its chief remaining defects, and obtain full recognition for all its past and present merits. There is now only a comparatively narrow margin of advancement to be won in order to transform Chicago from its present disparaged and criticised condition into a much-lauded and admired metropolis. It is obvious that one of the things Chicago most needs is an up-to-date transit service. Whether, however, this is to be promptly and thoroughly obtained by virtue of the election of Judge

Dunne as mayor, is a question that time alone can answer conclusively. There will be many difficulties confronting Judge Dunne's programme; and the thousands who have assumed that the thing is as good as accomplished, merely because of the triumph of the municipal-ownership party at the polls, will probably find that they did not take due account of the magnitude and complexity of the problem.



HON. EDWARD F. DUNNE.

(The new Democratic mayor of Chicago.)

We publish elsewhere a well-informed article upon this Chicago situation, from the pen of a local observer. Sooner or later there will come about in Chicago the public ownership of extensive transit lines, even if the assets of the present companies are not all acquired. It is not so certain that Chicago will venture upon direct municipal operation as that it will enter in some way upon the policy of ownership by the city of some or all of the transit lines. Leasing to operating companies may be found best. All efforts to carry out the programme upon which Judge Dunne was elected will be noted by the country with keen interest.

Meanwhile, it should be said that the Chicago vote was chiefly significant as an expression of American sentiment against corporations which have abused their privileges and opportunities and have provoked the people to an exasperation that has gone beyond any relenting or compromise. The people of Chicago are determined, if possible, to rid themselves of the corporations from which they have suffered so much through

long years past. In the last analysis, of course, the people, in attacking the corporations, are confessing their own faults. For if they had always put the right men in office, and had in years past insisted upon the right kind of city and State government, the transit corporations would have been chartered on proper terms, and would have been held to the right performance of their duties as public servants. The corporations, on the other hand, if they should now suffer loss, would have only themselves to blame for overcapitalization, bad service, and a long history of improper attempts to influence legislatures and city councils. The state of mind of the Chicago citizens is a distinct mark of progress, and is typical of what the whole country thinks, or, rather, feels. And sentiment is a powerful factor.

The "Public-Ownership" Slogan.

The Chicago victory has given elation to Mr. William J. Bryan and various others who hold to the views of the so-called radical wing of the Democratic party; and they made use of the oratorical opportunities given by Jefferson's birthday (April 13) to declare for a sweeping public-ownership crusade that shall in the near future, as they declare, expand our city governments into great business organizations for the carrying on of street railroads and other enterprises, while turning over to the national government the ownership of interstate railroad systems and telegraph lines. It is fairly probable that there will be a strong attempt made by the public-ownership advocates to obtain control of the Democratic party machinery, with a view to fighting the next Presidential contest upon such issues. The more thoughtful of the railway financiers and corporation leaders are beginning to see that the real alternative now lies between such extreme proposals on the one hand and submission by the companies to fair and proper public regulation on the other hand. From this standpoint, the position taken by President Roosevelt in his demand for further legislation to regulate railroad rates is seen to be the only safe ground for the conservatives. It is not unlikely, therefore, that the victory of Judge Dunne, and the rising tide of public opinion against corporation mismanagement, may con-

vince the reluctant leaders of the United States Senate that it will be necessary to do something when the extra session of Congress is called, in October. All that is expected of them is to join with the House of Representatives in yielding to the moderate public opinion that demands, not that the Government purchase and run the railroads, but that a more efficient kind of government oversight and regulation be adopted.

New York and the Corporations.

In New York, the situation is gradually shaping itself for the municipal contest that will culminate in the mayoralty election of November. Nobody can exactly forecast the issues or the lines of cleavage; but it is plain enough at least that the chief issues are almost certain to grow out of the relations between the great public-service corporations and the people of the metropolis. Since our issue of last month, in which mention was made of the beginnings of a legislative investigation into the price and methods of the gas and lighting monopoly of New York City, a large amount of information has been obtained from witnesses, which the newspapers have spread before the people day by day. This testimony has confirmed the belief that the lighting business has been enormously overcapitalized, and that the people, as private users, have been overcharged, while the city, as a public user, has been extortionately dealt with. The people of New York City have been making great progress in their knowledge of the value of their public franchises; but the power of accumulated corporate wealth retards legislation.



Photograph by *Collier's Weekly*.

MAYOR DUNNE, OF CHICAGO, AND HIS LARGE FAMILY.



Photographed for the New York Tribune.

THE LEGISLATIVE INVESTIGATING COMMITTEE IN SESSION IN THE ALDERMEN'S CHAMBER OF THE NEW YORK CITY HALL.

(Reading from left to right, Charles E. Hughes, counsel; Senator Thomas F. Grady; Senator A. R. Page; Senator F. C. Stevens, chairman; Assemblymen E. A. Merrill, J. K. Apgar, G. B. Agnew.)

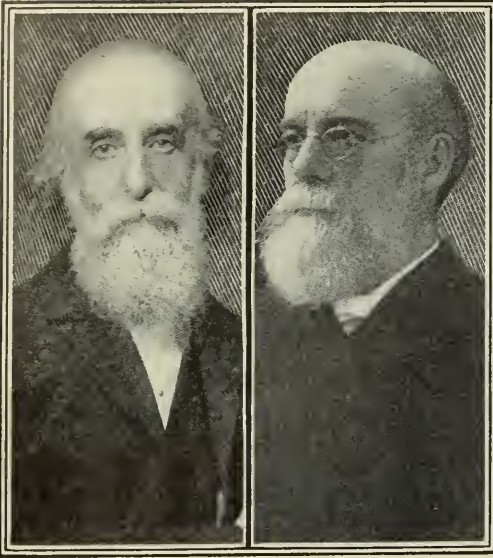
Light Upon Corporation Control. The attacks made upon the management of great corporations, like those in *Everybody's Magazine* and elsewhere, have undoubtedly had a widespread effect upon the public mind. Our present corporate methods have resulted, not merely in the development of vast individual fortunes, but also in a closely concentrated control of the corporate wealth that belongs to many thousands of shareholders and investors. There has come about a situation which calls for careful and thoughtful study. No one is now competent to pronounce a final solution; but it can do no harm to turn on the searchlight of investigation. A notable case in point has been a bitter controversy among those who control the affairs of one of the great life insurance companies. It does not follow from what has come to light that the people who have insured their lives in this or in any other of the great companies have been the victims of misplaced confidence. On the contrary, the principal insurance companies would appear to be, not only solvent, but in a highly flourishing state, with their assets well invested by the ablest financiers and their affairs supervised by men of great capacity and of at least as high character as their fellows in the business world. Yet it is true that to be in control of these companies is to possess a power of tremendous magnitude, with an almost entire immunity from interference on the part of those who are the real owners of the assets. And in the exercise of this arbitrary and unrestrained power over hundreds of millions of dollars there arise opportunities for the acquisition of large fortunes by those who are in authority. In other words, the control of concentrated masses of capital can be so exercised as to secure great and constant financial benefit to the "insiders." Clearly, the managers of the large corporations have too much financial power, and their opportunities to become very rich are greater than is for the best good of the community.

A Question of Ethics.

Hardly less talked about, last month, than the municipal-ownership question, and the question of corporation control growing out of the concentration of vast assets in the hands of a group of men in the financial district of New York, was the question of the duty of agencies for religious, philanthropic, or educational work to sit in judgment upon the business methods of those contributing to the support of good causes. The discussion has had an immense volume, and on both sides much of it has been profound and able as well as candid and sincere. The chief provoking incident was the gift by Mr. Rockefeller of \$100,000 to the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, a body chiefly supported by the Congregational churches, and famous for its educational and missionary activities in the Turkish Empire, China, and other countries. The management of this missionary board had urgently solicited the money from Mr. Rockefeller;—much of it, indeed, had already been received and expended several months ago. In a more formal way, however, the acceptance of the gift seems to have been deferred, and there arose, last month, a vigorous protest on the part of a number of Congregational ministers in New England and the East, with the support of some of the most prominent Congregationalists of the West, notably Dr. Washington Gladden, of Ohio.

Whose Money Is "Tainted?"

The critics held that Mr. Rockefeller's wealth is largely derived from the Standard Oil Company, and that the methods of this company in the past, if not in the present, have been contrary to Christian ethics. Considered as an exercise in logic, this great discussion, last month, of what was called "tainted money" was far from being complete or conclusive on either side. Men whose general point of view is usually very much alike argued on opposite sides. Thus, Dr. Lyman Abbott differed entirely from Dr.



DR. LYMAN ABBOTT. DR. WASHINGTON GLADDEN.

(Dr. Gladden criticises and Dr. Abbott defends the acceptance of Standard Oil money for philanthropic purposes.)

Josiah Strong and Dr. Washington Gladden. Dr. Abbott seeing no just ground for making a scapegoat of the Standard Oil Company, or of Mr. Rockefeller as the president of that business organization. Dr. Abbott does, however, believe that the discussion is valuable as calling attention to the whole question of business morals. The people of the country must remember that the public and private aspects of these questions are almost inextricably blended. Railroad rebates are responsible for many of the largest fortunes in this country, and they have worked grievous wrongs against thousands of men who might otherwise have prospered. But the public itself is to blame for failing to control its own chartered public carriers, so as to protect the rights of the many and to prevent special favors to the few. When railroad rebates were the order of the day in the business world, it is hardly too much to say that all business men, great and small, were ready to take whatever the transportation companies conceded.

Some Necessary Distinctions. In these things we must insist, now and henceforth, upon higher standards of justice, better enforced. We must also expect a clearer and higher sense of duty toward his neighbors and fellow-business men, and toward the community at large, upon the part of the individual captain of industry or man of affairs when facing some opportunity to enrich himself by securing advantages that

would, presumably, mean an unfair loss to others. But where there is so much that may justly be criticised from the ethical and social standpoint in the economic system of our time, it is not merely invidious, but it is impossible and absurd, to draw an arbitrary objective line and to say, for instance, that Mr. Carnegie's money may be taken and used for good objects, but that Mr. Rockefeller's money must not be so taken and used. Thus, Mr. Carnegie has lately given half a million dollars to the University of Virginia on condition of the early raising of a like amount from other givers; and Mr. Rockefeller last month gave one hundred thousand dollars toward meeting Mr. Carnegie's condition. President Alderman, who was inaugurated on Jefferson's birthday as the first president of the University of Virginia, was very glad to be able to announce both of these gifts, along with other smaller ones; and there did not seem to lie in anybody's mind at the University of Virginia the slightest doubt as to the propriety of taking money from either or both of these gentlemen.

Dr. Alderman's Way of Putting It. Dr. Alderman saw very clearly that the real question is whether or not the receiver of gifts can make a truly beneficial use of them. Speaking of the great expansion needful to give the South the university it ought to have, he said:



MR. HENRY H. ROGERS.

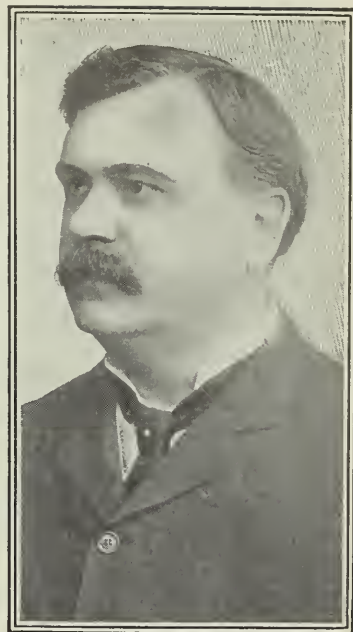
(Who expressed himself last month in defense of the Standard Oil Company as against its critics.)



Mr. Benjamin M. Harrod.



Mr. John F. Wallace.



Judge Charles E. Magoon.

THREE MEMBERS OF THE PANAMA CANAL COMMISSION.

Money alone cannot make such a university, but vast power is necessary, and though it bear the image and superscription of Cæsar, *there is an alchemy of consecration in our laboratories which can transmute money into moral force.*

The whole point lies in the ability of the recipient to use that alchemy "which can transmute money into moral force." Our men of wealth in this country are in undisputed possession of means which they can give away without legal or moral obstacle. If some part of their wealth came to them through defects in our present economic system, or through business methods that ought not to be employed, there may be the more reason why wealth thus acquired should be given by its possessors for purposes of the common welfare. If the management of any college, church or benevolent society feels that in accepting a particular gift it impairs its own freedom of action or speech, or lessens its own capacity for usefulness, it must act from its own standpoint as a recipient. It is, however, not impossible to work hard for the better regulation and control of trusts and monopolies, and at the same time to receive the philanthropic gifts of the rich men who control trusts and monopolies and to use such gifts for the well-being of society. It is not to be thought, for example, that the receiving of large gifts from one multimillionaire

or from another would prevent the University of Virginia, in its department of economics, from giving impartial and scientific study to the question how best to secure a better distribution of the wealth that is produced by the associated effort of all the people.

*The New
Panama
Commission.*

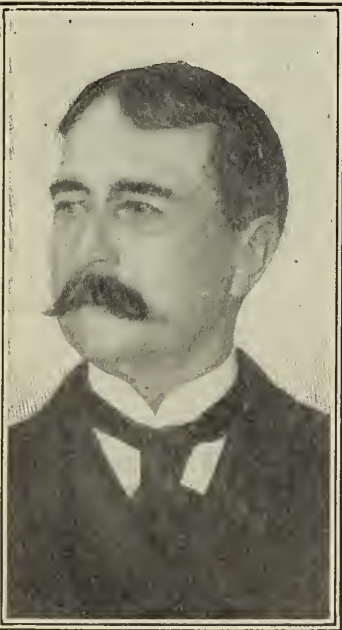
It will be remembered that Congress adjourned on the 4th of March without completing the legislation desired for the better organization of the Panama Canal work. The measures desired by the administration were passed by the House, but failed in the Senate. It was understood that the remodeling of the Panama Commission would await the action of Congress next winter. President Roosevelt, however, found a way to avoid such delay, and before he went off on his Western trip, early in April, the business had practically been carried out. The first step lay in asking the commissioners who had been appointed early last year to send in their resignations, in order that the President might reorganize the commission in a more effective way. Admiral Walker and his colleagues promptly complied. Since the new appointments had to be made under the old law, the same number of commissioners has been retained, although the number had come to be regarded as needlessly large. But the Presi-

dent has practically reduced the size of the commission by creating an executive committee, and by designating the functions and varying the salaries of the appointees. His first idea was to appoint as chairman a man of the most conspicuous abilities, and to give him a very large salary. It is known that the chairmanship was successively offered to Mr. Elihu Root, of New York, and to Mr. Henry C. Frick, of Pittsburg, neither of whom could accept. Failing to obtain a man of such exceptional ability and repute as executive head of the undertaking, the President adopted the plan of confiding the chief direction of the enterprise to an executive committee of three, consisting of the chairman of the commission, the chief engineer, and the governor of the canal zone.

Our readers are already familiar with the work of Mr. John F. Wallace, who was appointed last year as chief engineer. He is now a member of the commission, and retains his position as head of the practical work of constructing the canal. For chairman of the commission, President Roosevelt selected a very capable young Western railroad president, Mr. Theodore P. Shonts, head of the Toledo, St. Louis & Western line. Mr. Shonts is a friend and former business associate of Mr. Morton, Secretary of the Navy, through whom he was brought to the President's notice. Mr.

Walter Wellman, elsewhere in this issue of the REVIEW, gives some account of the career and character of the man selected as financial and administrative head of the most important piece of public work ever undertaken by any government. Mr. Shonts, who had been wholly unknown to the general public, finds himself suddenly placed in a position where the whole country, and, indeed, the whole civilized world, will know his name and will watch with interest his management of the Panama enterprise. The third member of the executive committee is Judge Charles E. Magoon, who becomes governor of the canal zone, and is also, it is said, to be American minister to Panama, thus representing our government in political, legal, and diplomatic affairs. Judge Magoon, as a high official in that bureau of the War Department which is charged with the carrying on of our insular affairs, and which for a time was practically in charge of the government of Cuba, was one of Secretary Root's most valued assistants, and is regarded as possessing unusual qualifications for his new position.

Under the requirement of the old law, as representatives of the army and the navy, Rear-Admiral Endicott, Brig.-Gen. Peter C. Hains, and Col. Oswald H. Ernst, of the Corps of Engineers, are members of the new commission. Mr. Benjamin M.



Brig.-Gen. Peter C. Hains.



Rear-Admiral M. T. Endicott.



Col. Oswald H. Ernst.

Harrod, of New Orleans, the well-known Mississippi River expert, is retained from the former commission. A salary of \$7,500 is allowed to each commissioner, with extra compensation of \$22,500 to the president, making the compensation of Mr. Shonts \$30,000, and with enough added to keep the salary of Mr. Wallace, the chief engineer, at \$25,000, and to bring that of Judge Magoon, governor of the canal zone, up to \$17,500. Mr. Shonts, as chairman, will doubtless join Mr. Wallace and Judge Magoon in making his personal headquarters at the Isthmus, and the other members of the commission will go there for quarterly sessions. There is to be a consulting board of nine engineers, to which Mr. Parsons and Mr. Burr of the old commission have been appointed. Our government has informed the governments of Great Britain, France, and Germany that it would be glad to have the services of a distinguished engineer from each of those countries for membership in this consulting board. Doubtless, the deliberations of this board of experts will help the government at Washington to decide the great question whether or not to build a sea-level canal or one with locks. Without disparagement to the gentlemen of the retiring commission, it is to be said that the reorganization will probably make for a much higher degree of efficiency. The former commission was better devised for counsel than for action. The United States Government now holds nearly all the



DR. JACOB H. HOLLANDER.
(Special commissioner to Santo Domingo.)

stock of the Panama Railroad. At the annual meeting of that corporation, last month, the newly appointed members of the Canal Commission were made directors.

*The Santo
Domingo
Situation.*

Although the Senate failed to ratify the Santo Domingo treaty, it has been regarded as wholly probable that ratification will be secured at the next session of Congress. This treaty provided a way by which Santo Domingo would be protected against forcible debt-collecting expeditions from Europe. It proposed to place the United States Government in charge of the revenues, in order to employ an agreed upon proportion of the public income for the paying off of foreign creditors. The situation has been so pressing that President Morales, of Santo Domingo, has proposed to our minister, Mr. Dawson, that an arrangement of practically the same sort be put into effect at once in order to preserve the *status quo* and prevent coercion by European warships in the period that must intervene before the United States Senate can act. Accordingly, it has been arranged that Americans shall collect the custom-house revenues, turn 45 per cent. over to the government of Santo Domingo for current expenses, and deposit the remaining 55 per cent. in a New York bank to be held until action by the Senate on the pending treaty. If the Senate act favorably, the money accumulated in New York will be used to make installment payments upon the foreign claims. If the Senate act un-



MR. THOMAS C. DAWSON.
(American minister to Santo Domingo.)



From a stereograph, copyrighted, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPEAKING TO THOUSANDS OF PEOPLE AT WACO, TEXAS, LAST MONTH.

favorably, the money will be returned to the Dominican Government. The President has, meanwhile, sent Professor Hollander, of the Johns Hopkins University, to look into the question of the extent and validity of the foreign indebtedness. It is to be hoped that the Senate may in due time ratify the treaty. In the absence of the President from Washington, and with the Secretary of State in Europe, Mr. Taft, Secretary of War, has been virtually at the head of the administration, since, by the President's direction, he has been consulted on all important questions belonging to the State Department. Later in the season, after the President's return, Mr. Taft, accompanied by a number of members of Congress, is to make a journey to the Philippines for closer examination of the existing conditions.

The President's Vacation.

In accordance with his long-formed plans, President Roosevelt left Washington on April 3 for Texas, his main object being to attend a reunion of members of the Rough Rider Regiment. He made a number of brief speeches in Texas and on the way there, and was everywhere greeted with enthusiasm and tokens of universal good-will. After several days spent in hunting across the border of Texas in southern Oklahoma, the President's party started for their chief rendezvous in the Rocky Mountains of Colorado. The

Oklahoma hunt had secured numerous wolves and smaller game, and had in particular given the President some long days of hard horseback riding in the Kiowa-Comanche country. Refreshment and exhilaration always come to him from such an experience. It was an excellent preparation for the weeks of isolated mountaineering, and hunting for grizzly bear and cougar, that lay immediately before him. In the opening number of the *Country Calendar*, a new magazine devoted to out-of-door affairs, ex-President Cleveland writes wisely and entertainingly upon the good that comes from hunting and fishing to men whose ordinary pursuits are mental and sedentary. It is quite in the spirit of the ex-President's article that President Roosevelt is off in the mountains for well-earned recreation, and for the refreshment of body and mind that he needs in view of the four years of tense and critical public life to which the American people have called him, and from which they justly expect a public service of the highest order and the most far-reaching significance.

The Work of a President.

The chief work of a man situated as President Roosevelt is consists in deciding about things. It is true that the President writes state papers, makes speeches, talks with people many hours every day, keeps alive his knowledge of government work in detail by conference with cabinet officers and



From a cartoon by McCutcheon in the *Chicago Daily Tribune*.

"A QUIET DAY" IN THE PRESIDENT'S WESTERN VACATION.



From a stereograph, copyrighted, 1905, by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

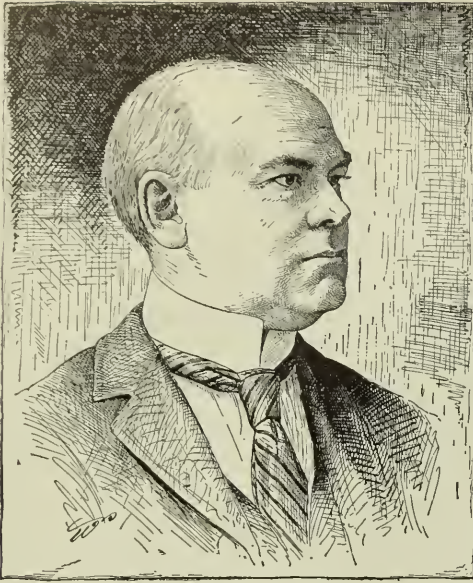
PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND A NUMBER OF THE SAN JUAN HEROES, AT SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS.

other public officials, and thus fills his day very full with conference, correspondence, and the like. But all these things which keep alive his intelligence and give him wide and intimate touch with public affairs are merely for the sake of enabling him to decide for or against the innumerable things that he has to confront. Every working day at Washington demands from him the making of many decisions, some of which are of vast concern. In view of all this, the President needs to cultivate health and vigor beyond any other man in the world. For the will cannot work to good advantage where nerves are depleted, digestion impaired, or the mind warped by too close and long-continued application to routine without change of thought and scene. Such are the reasons why President Roosevelt is away on his vacation in the mountains. The publicity of it all, the ten thousand

friendly but jocose paragraphs in the newspapers, the hundreds of cartoons, all on this same theme, are not what the President desires, but what he has to put up with as our foremost public character.

*The
Philippine
Census.*

The census of the Philippine Islands having been completed, a general election will be called, in accordance with the act of July 1, 1902, for the purpose of choosing delegates to a popular assembly. As a result of the census enumeration, much important information has been secured relating to the agriculture, schools, railroads, and industries of the archipelago. The total population as returned from 342 independent islands is 7,635,426. Of this number, almost 7,000,000 are more or less civilized, wild tribes forming about 9 per cent. of the entire population. The total



GEN. JAMES F. SMITH.

(Secretary of public instruction for the Philippines.)

population, according to the most reliable data is a little more than four times as great as it was one hundred years ago. The excess of birth rate over death rate has been large, in spite of losses resulting from epidemics of various diseases. The density of population in the Philippines is 67 per square mile, as against 26 per square mile in the continental area of the United States. It was found that more than half of the population could neither read nor write in any language. Less than one-half of those able to read could write, while the number able to both read and write constituted only one-fifth of the population ten years of age and older. It is stated that the opposition to the study of English is diminishing, and that 11 per cent. of the pupils in the schools are reported as understanding the language. Apart from facts elicited by this census, the information that we have in this country regarding the Philippine school system is, on the whole, decidedly encouraging. The increase in the number of children attending the public schools during the past two years has been remarkable. In September, 1903, 182,202 pupils were reported in attendance. One year later,—in September, 1904,—there were 342,000 in attendance, while estimates furnished to the general superintendent of education for the months of October and November, 1904, showed a grand total approximating 364,000 pupils,—an increase of 100 per cent. in fourteen months. As a single item of school conditions

in the islands, it is interesting to note that there was an attendance of 12,000 in the night schools, many of the pupils in these schools being adults who were engaged in acquiring the English language. It was reported last month that American capital was seriously interested in the Philippine railroad project, for which the Government guarantees 4 per cent. on the investment. It was estimated that the proposed lines of railroad will cost \$20,000,000. They will aggregate in length about nine hundred miles.

The Question of Freight Rates. The Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce has opened a series of hearings on the subject of railroad-rate legislation. Various propositions have been made by experts and students of the question, with a view to establishing some system of national regulation of rates. One of these is set forth in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," on page 619. Of those propositions which may be said to represent the public as distinct from the traffic managers, perhaps the most significant is that of President Hadley, of Yale University. It seems to President Hadley that much might be accomplished by the creation of a special tribunal having jurisdiction over railroads and coordinate in authority with the present circuit courts. A judicial tribunal thus constituted might set aside unreasonable rates at the instance of a complainant, and might even indicate how much rates will have to be reduced in order to be reasonable. President Hadley would transform the Interstate Commerce Commission itself into a board of experts composed of practical railroad men,—three from the traffic department and one each from the operating and financial departments. It would be the business of the commission to ascertain matters of fact on which the court may base its decisions. The Interstate Commerce Commission has resumed its investigation of the private-car lines, concerning which important testimony was adduced a few months ago.

New Tax Laws.

Aside from the New York City legislation, the bills in the State legislature at Albany which have aroused the most discussion during the present session have been those providing for the taxation of mortgages and the taxation of stock transfers. The former measure imposes a tax of one-half of one per cent. upon all mortgages recorded subsequent to June 1, next. The other bill imposes a stamp tax of 2 cents per \$100, or \$2 per 100 shares, on the sale or transfer of stock shares. The argument chiefly employed against the mortgage-tax bill is that the effect of such a

measure would be to impose a double tax on all mortgaged real estate, thus tending to check the improvement of property and to drive capital from the State. It is denied, however, by the sponsors of the bill that the rate of interest on mortgages will be increased by its operation, although that is the result most generally looked for by the debtor class. As to the stamp tax on stock transfers, the arguments used for similar taxes imposed by the general government in

home, the garden, and open-air pursuits is strikingly exemplified in the immediate success of the *Country Calendar*, the new magazine whose aims are described elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. It is a good year, too, for farmers, both those amateurs who farm for farming's sake and the man whose living is won from the soil. The Department of Agriculture reports the average condition of winter wheat last month as 91.6, the best average in an entire decade. Statisticians figure out that this should mean a total crop of nearly 480,000,000 bushels. The unseasonable cold weather of mid-April has probably done some harm to truck farming and peach orchards in the South, but seems to have let off the Northern and Eastern States with comparatively little damage.



THE CAPITALIST LANDLORD: "My tenant'll pay it."
From the *Herald* (New York).

time of war are applied to this State tax. It is lucrative, and easily collected. It will, of course, affect thousands of stock transactions on the New York Exchange between persons who are not citizens of the State of New York. The Legislature of Texas has increased the annual franchise tax imposed upon corporations doing business in the State. This is a tax on the authorized capital stock of corporations.

With the Farmers. The vigorous interest of Americans in the movement back to the country is shown this spring in a flood of books dealing with gardening, farming problems, poultry-keeping, the care of domestic animals, country home-making, and nature-study. This movement, in which the real countryman, the farmer, joins by his new enthusiasm for and understanding of his own vocation, has been gathering force for several years, but is more striking in 1905 than ever before. Perhaps America is so big and resourceful that every wholesome American can be a country gentleman, just as every Englishman of a certain class is supposed to have his country estate and a knowledge of and interest in the crops and farming conditions and the game supply. The intensity of our interest in the country

A Few Notes on Education. In the field of higher education, one of the interesting developments of the last few weeks was the announcement by Mr. Andrew Carnegie of his intention to bestow his bounty, in the future, on small colleges rather than on libraries. Generous gifts to the endowment funds of several of the smaller colleges of the middle West have already been reported. In some cases, Mr. Carnegie conditions the gift upon the securing of an equal sum from other sources. This is in line with the principle adopted some years ago by Dr. D. K. Pearsons, who has just announced his purpose to aid a number of struggling institu-



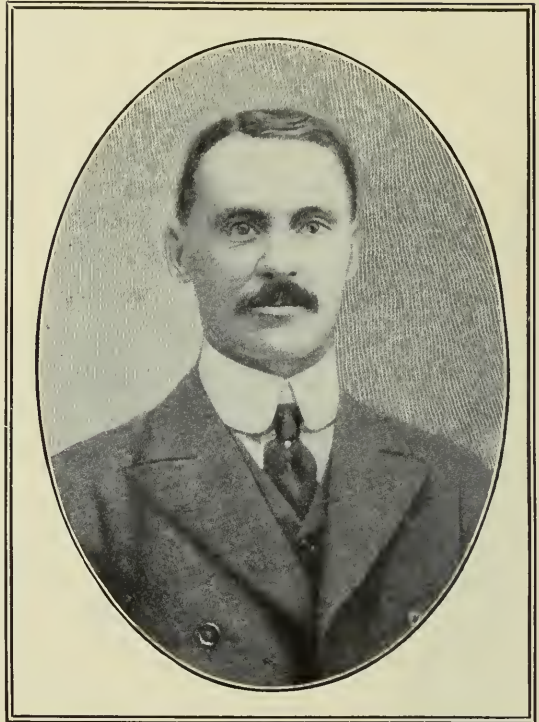
"ANDY'S OTHER LEG."

THE SMALL COLLEGE: "This leg is shorter than it really ought to be."—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

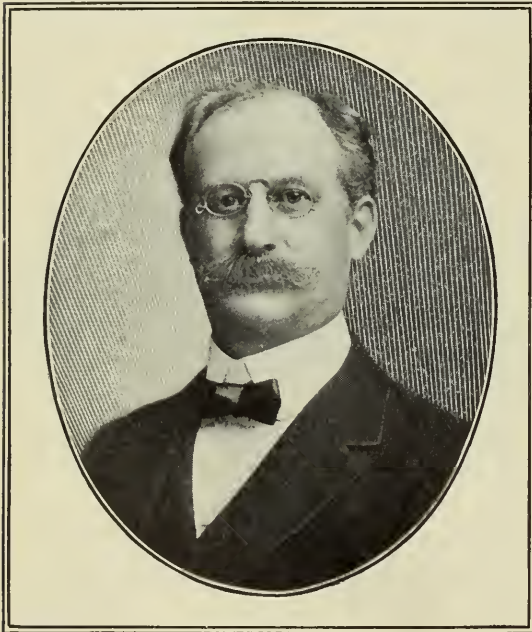
tions in the South. Dr. Alderman's inauguration as president of the University of Virginia, on Jefferson's birthday, brought together a group of eminent educational leaders. Professor Brown Ayres, who has been a member of the faculty of Tulane University, of Louisiana, for the past twenty-five years, was installed as president of the University of Tennessee on April 26. The South's profound interest in education has been manifested of late in many ways. The eighth annual meeting of the Conference for Education in the South will have been held at Columbia, S. C., before these pages are read. The summer school that has been maintained for some years at Knoxville, Tenn., greatly to the benefit of Southern schools and teachers, will be open during the coming season. In the country at large there is promise of the usual number of largely attended conventions and other gatherings devoted to various educational and professional interests. Elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS there is printed a list of more than one hundred such meetings, scheduled for the remaining eight months of 1905.

*The School
Question
in Canada.*

Following the somewhat acrimonious comment in the Canadian press on the failure of the Hay-Bond treaty and the discrimination of the Newfoundland legislature against American fishermen (a dis-



HON. F. W. G. HAULTAIN, OF ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN.



PROFESSOR BROWN AYRES.

(The new president of the University of Tennessee.)

cussion of this whole subject will appear in this REVIEW for June), and the ripple of excitement over the resignation of the Hon. S. N. Parent, premier of the Province of Quebec, because of dissensions in the Liberal party, there had been more widespread and emphatic opposition to the separate-school clauses in the measure for the incorporation of the two new Canadian provinces. Charges that undue ecclesiastical influence had been exerted in behalf of separate schools had been made. The religious question has always been a very important one in the Dominion, and several times it has forced its way into school matters, causing considerable bitterness. It will be remembered that in 1896 the Conservative government of Sir Charles Tupper pronounced in favor of separate schools for Manitoba, and in consequence was overwhelmingly defeated at the following general elections. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who succeeded Sir Charles Tupper, settled the question on the basis of provincial rights, and Manitoba has an excellent and united school system to-day. In the Canadian territories, schools, both Protestant and Catholic, are practically public schools, under the entire supervision of the territorial government. It is not the general curriculum, but the question of

the half-hour of religious exercises every afternoon (which is permitted but not enjoined), that is making the trouble. Already it has brought about the resignation of the Hon. Clifford Sifton, minister of the interior, and brought a strong open letter of protest from Premier Haultain, of the territories (Alberta and Saskatchewan) which are to be made provinces. Protests and resolutions against the measure (which is still open), from churches and other representative gatherings, had poured into the capital. Prominent Liberal leaders, and Liberal newspaper organs like the *Toronto Globe* and the *Montreal Witness*, are strong in their protest against the stand taken by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who desires to continue this privilege of religious exercises daily.

Although President Castro's curt refusal to accept the proposition of the *The Venezuelan Complications*. United States Government for the arbitration of the different American claims against Venezuela is irritating, and even provocative, it will not force our government into any rash or inconsiderate action. Late in March, with France, Holland, and Italy pressing their various claims, Mr. Bowen, the American minister at Caracas, under instructions from Washington, had delivered what was practically an ultimatum to President Castro, to the effect that he should arbitrate the pending disputes or the United States would be obliged to take matters into its own hands. President Castro, in reply, had peremptorily told Mr. Bowen that he would not arbitrate. Some time before this, however, Castro had, through one of his European agents, arranged to consolidate the entire foreign debt of Venezuela (which is now held principally



THE RECONCILIATION OF CHILE AND PERU.
(Showing the national coats-of-arms of both countries.)
From *Sucesos* (Valparaiso).

in Italy and Germany), and, in payment of interest on this consolidated debt, to apply 50 per cent. of the receipts from all the Venezuelan custom-houses except La Guayra and Puerto Cabello. The customs of these two ports had already been set aside for payment of the claims of the allies awarded several years ago by the Hague court. Other actions against Venezuela had been pending in the cases of the French Cable Company and the American Asphalt Company, in both of which cases practically a confiscation of property had been effected by the Castro government. It had been Castro's contention that, the Supreme Court of Venezuela having rendered its decision, he could do nothing. Meanwhile, the Venezuela receiver for the property of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company continues to mine and sell asphalt without any recognition of the company's claims.

With the exception of Venezuela, South American countries had been enjoying periods of quiet and prosperity. Within a few weeks there had come about a final settlement of all differences between Chile and Peru, growing out of a desper-



A VENEZUELAN FANDANGO.

This is the way a German comic paper (*Kladderadatsch*, of Berlin) regards President Castro's "defiance" of Europe and Uncle Sam.

Other Latin-American Affairs.

ate war, a few years ago, which resulted in the loss by Peru of some rich seaboard provinces. Speaking generally, the tendency of the more important South American states is now toward stability and much improved neighborly relations. In Central America, also, there had been an important settlement of a long-standing dispute,—that of the boundary between Panama and Costa Rica. Mexican prosperity had been emphasized by the adoption, on the 1st of this month, of the gold standard. In the West Indies, Santo Domingo had been claiming the greater share of attention by reason of its unsettled and revolutionary state. The republic of Cuba, on the other hand, had just passed through a most prosperous year. In his message to the Congress, on April 3, President Palma stated that last year the imports of the island had increased by \$15,000,000 over those of the preceding year. About 60 per cent. of this increase appears in the American account. The new cabinet includes Juan Francisco O'Farrell, secretary of state and justice; Gen. Freyre Andrade, secretary of government; Gen. Ruis Rivera, secretary of the treasury; Eduardo Yero, secretary of public instruction; and Gen. Rafael Montalvo, secretary of public works.

British Politics. On the eve of a dissolution of Parliament and an appeal to the British electorate, which, it is generally assumed, will result in a substantial Liberal victory, our British friends are interested in the fate of Mr. Chamberlain's protective-policy scheme, which has practically disrupted the Conservative party, and in the appointment of several new high government officials. Chancellor of the Exchequer Austen Chamberlain, in his budget report to the Commons, on April 10, presented a very favorable statement of British finances. He stated that the revenue of the year just closed exceeded his estimate by nearly fifteen million dollars, so the heavy deficit of last year will be much reduced. The general political situation in Great Britain, with a little about the probable Liberal leaders in the next Parliament, is outlined in the article, "Three of the Leaders of the Next British Parliament," on another page of this issue of the REVIEW. Much is expected from the appointment of Mr. Walter Hume Long to succeed Mr. George Wyndham as chief secretary for Ireland, although the Liberal leader in the House, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, had refused to put the party on record in the matter of Irish home rule. Another administrative change of great moment to the empire had been Lord Selborne's appointment to fill Lord Milner's place in South Africa.

Imperial Affairs.

A hint as to the make-up of the next cabinet had been given by Mr. John Morley at the reception tendered him by the League of Young Liberals in London last month. In his speech, Mr. Morley had declared that the next cabinet would probably contain a Labor member. It had become an open secret in England that the coming ministry would contain at least three new members. Two of these had



RT. HON. WALTER HUME LONG.

(New chief secretary for Ireland, succeeding Mr. George Wyndham.)

been thought to be Mr. Lloyd-George and Mr. Winston Churchill. The Labor member, it is now believed, will be Mr. John Burns. At the other end of the empire, the new Transvaal constitution had been signed at about the time Lord Selborne sailed to take up his duties as high commissioner of South Africa. For Australia, also, an impor-

tant imperial development had been the announcement by the postmaster-general that at last the penny postage was to be extended to Australia, making it now possible for English letters with a penny stamp (two cents) to reach Australia. King Edward and Queen Alexandra had begun their spring visits. The Queen had spent some weeks in Portugal, and the King, after passing a few hours in Tangier at a significantly short interval after the Kaiser's visit to that place, had gone north to Copenhagen, it was rumored, where, the general belief in England had it, he would try to persuade his sister-in-law, the Dowager-Empress of Russia, mother of the Czar, to use her influence in favor of bringing about peace between Russia and Japan.

Norway's Differences With Sweden.

In Norway, during early March, the Hagerup ministry had fallen because of its attitude on the question of the constitutional right of Norway to a separate consular service. The new cabinet, which is headed by Mr. P. C. H. K. Michelsen, will demand a separate Norwegian consular service. Premier Michelsen holds, also, the portfolio of justice, while his predecessor, Mr. Hagerup, be-

comes one of the resident Norwegian ministers at Stockholm. The strained relations between the two Scandinavian nations over the question of separate consular services have more than once resulted in almost complete rupture. The Norwegian contention is based upon the fact that the Riksakt, or treaty of union, made in 1815, says nothing about the consular service, which is, by implication, left to the two states individually. Norway also cites her old constitution, the Grundlov, which speaks of Norwegian consuls, and which the Swedish King has pledged himself to support. The Grundlov, however, sanctioned the appointment of foreigners as consuls, and therefore Sweden justifies the exclusive employment of Swedes in this capacity. The different industrial development of the two countries has caused a separation of their commercial policies, until now Norway, as a shipbuilding country, stands practically for free trade, while Sweden has developed its manufacturing industries mainly under a protective policy. According to the agreement of 1885, the King is bound to employ only a Swedish foreign minister. As this places Norwegian international interests under a Swedish minister, who is not responsible to the Norwegian Parliament, considerable dissatisfaction has been aroused in Norway. In March of 1903, after repeated vain efforts, it was agreed that there should be separate consular services; but since then, owing to disagreement over the power of the Swedish minister to control the consular services, nothing has been accomplished. Now Norway has determined to take the matter into her own hands. Early in April, the Regent, Crown Prince Gustav, who is acting King, had announced the government scheme of conciliation, which provided for a common foreign minister with a special consular service for each country, to be under the direction of the foreign minister in all matters affecting foreign relations. The foregoing seemed to be the maximum which Sweden was willing to concede. But it is not acceptable to Norway, and the end is not yet.

In France and Austria. Political questions of more or less acute nature, and involving the stability of government, had been agitating some of the other countries of central Europe. In France, the bill consummating the formal separation of Church and State was passed in the Chamber on April 12, by a vote of 422 to 45. It is a simple measure, and its substance is found in this sentence: "The republic assures liberty of conscience and guarantees the free exercise of religion, the only restrictions being those in the interest of public order." Thus, Premier Rouvier carries out the policy of his predecessor.



THE ARCHDUKE FRANZ FERDINAND, HEIR TO THE THRONE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, AND HIS FAMILY.

He will now devote himself to the other items in his programme, notably the income tax. France is generally enjoying quiet and prosperity. Last month, however, a somewhat aggravated strike situation had been created at Limoges among the workmen at the porcelain works, which the military had to be called out to suppress. The Austro-Hungarian crisis had deepened. The decided victory for the Independent party in Hungary had brought a serious situation to the front in the inability of Emperor Francis Joseph to find a leader for even a temporary Hungarian cabinet. The Emperor had been unable to effect a compromise with the Hungarian Nationalists in the matter of the language question in the Hungarian army. An increase in the tension is expected on May 3, when the Parliament again meets and the discussion of the speech to the throne will begin.

The Kaiser's Policy.

The temporary relegation of Russia to the list of secondary powers, loosening, as it has, the bonds of the Dual Alliance, and the drawing away of Italy from Austria and Germany, thus making the dissolution of the Triple Alliance only a question

of a short time, is apparently bringing about a disintegration of the main groups of European powers, and the German Kaiser, as usual, is the first monarch in the field to lay down the lines of suggested new alliances. To begin with, in a recent speech at the unveiling of the monument of the Emperor Frederick at Bremen, the Kaiser reaffirmed the pacific character of his policy. Recalling how, while a boy, he had been enraged at the weakness of the German navy, he declared that this early feeling had inspired his entire naval policy, not for aggression, but for the purpose of inspiring the respect of the rest of the world. It is his aim, he declared, to "do everything possible to let bayonets and cannon rest, but to keep the bayonets sharp and the cannon ready, so that envy and greed shall not disturb us in tending our garden or building our beautiful house." Further, he said :

I vowed never to strike for world-mastery. The world-power that I then dreamed of was to create for the German Empire on all sides the most absolute confidence as a quiet, honest, and peaceable neighbor. I

have vowed that if ever the time comes that history shall speak of a German world-power, or a Hohenzollern world-power, this should not be based upon conquest, but should come through the mutual striving of nations after common purposes.

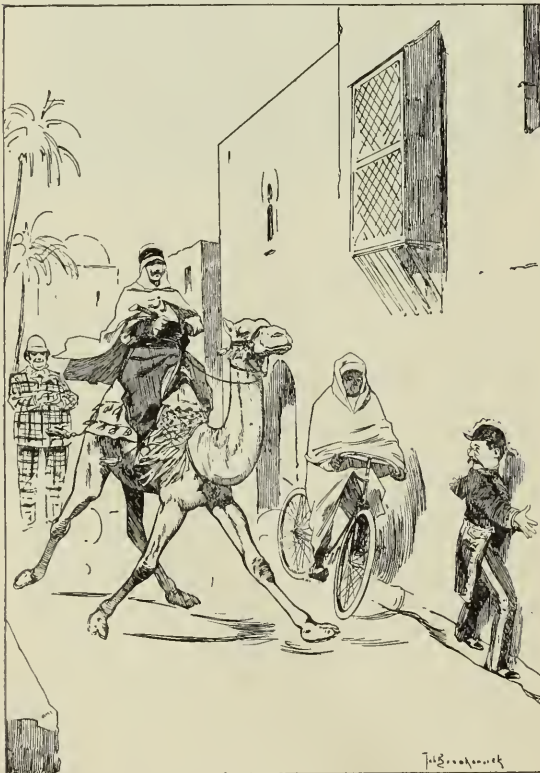
It must be admitted that, although the Kaiser has made a number of flamboyant speeches and has used the mailed fist in China and southwest Africa, he has, in the main, studied the peace of the world, and, in developing the industrial and commercial resources of his empire, he has won the respect of the world and its confidence in his integrity of purpose.

*Germany
and
Morocco.*

One of these flamboyant speeches, which have so often seemed to threaten the tranquillity of the world, was made by Kaiser Wilhelm during his short stay of only a few hours at Tangier, Morocco, in the course of a holiday sea trip which he began several weeks ago. Speaking to the German residents, who control about one-fifth of the export trade of Morocco, the Kaiser said :

I am happy to recognize in you devoted pioneers of German industry and commerce, who are helping me in the task of always upbuilding in a free country the interests of the motherland. The sovereignty and integrity of Morocco will be maintained. In an independent country such as Morocco, commerce must be free. I will do my best to maintain its politico-economic equity.

This, at a time when France is trying to set on foot that policy of pacific permeation which she has been free to adopt since the Anglo-French convention of last year, approved by the Franco-Spanish agreement of several months later, had seemed calculated to make mischief. It had looked like a notice served on France that Russia's extremity was Germany's opportunity, and that the Kaiser is determined to again bring Germany to the center of the stage. The speech had caused a flutter of excitement in the European chancelleries, but in an address to the Chamber of Deputies immediately after the visit of the German Emperor to Tangier the French foreign minister, M. Delcassé, had given ample assurance of the fairness of French policy. He had declared that France "had to seek a remedy for the intolerable situation in Morocco without allowing her action to awaken the suspicion of other nations." France, he continued, "does not pretend to base her interests on disregard for the interests of others." It had been reported that the Kaiser would appeal for recognition of his claims against France's special interest in Morocco to England, the United States, Spain, and Italy, the American interest being assumed on the basis of our



THE GERMAN KAISER IN MOROCCO.

DELCASSÉ: "Look here! Can't you pass without crowding us both to the wall?"

From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).

recent efforts to release Mr. Perdicaris from his captivity by the Moorish chieftain, Raissuli. These powers, however, had already assured France of their good wishes toward the republic in her policy in Morocco. Germany's contention for the "open door" in the Moorish kingdom is, of course, in line with the policy of all the commercial nations. It is a pity that the Kaiser does not advocate this policy in China.

*The New
Italian Minis-
try and Its
Policy.*

The Italian Parliament reassembled on April 4. The new premier, Signor Fortis, in the official declaration of principles, had announced the government's intention to carry out the general features of the programme offered by Signor Giolitti, who had been defeated owing, mainly, to the serious situation with regard to the proposition that the government take over all the railroads of the kingdom. According to the new premier, the policy of the former ministry will be maintained with regard to foreign relations, the strengthening of the defenses of the country, and the reform of the finances and taxation. State management of railways will be the new policy. Government control of railways, it is believed, will better the condition of the employees, who under private ownership have suffered considerably from low wages and the irregular application of legislation. Economic and agricultural questions are particularly important to the Italy of to-day, and his Majesty King Victor Emmanuel III. has shown his broad statesmanship in his recently issued invitation to the nations of the world to participate in a conference (to be held in Rome, on May 28) to arrange for the establishment of an international chamber of agriculture. On another page of this issue (599) a statement of this proposition, with Italian comment, is given.

*India
and the
Near East.*

A series of severe and destructive earthquake shocks in the Lahore district of northern India, in early April, in which over four thousand people lost their lives and much property was destroyed, had turned the attention of the world to the great Himalaya region where so much of the world's politics are at present being made. The earthquake razed almost a dozen large towns in the Punjab, particularly in the Kashmir Valley, and even in Lahore and Simla many buildings were destroyed. Details have not yet reached the outside world, owing to the destruction of telegraph lines in the affected area. In general, however, British India has been prosperous during the years of Lord Curzon's administration, and even such visitations of na-

ture as famines and earthquakes, to which the peninsula has been so often subjected in the past, have spared her in recent years. Financially, also, India is in good condition, the budget for 1904-05 being estimated for a surplus of some sixteen million dollars.

*World-
Politics
in Asia.*

The world-movements which have gradually been grouping themselves around British India as a center have been very distinctly emphasized by the Russo-Japanese war. It has been claimed in Russia and in the other Continental nations, which are generally suspicious of the expansion of the British Empire, that the recent expedition to Tibet, under Colonel Young-husband, represented a British appreciation of Russia's difficulties and an intention to take advantage of them in extending Britain's Indian empire so as to control the head waters of the Yang-tse-Kiang River, in the valley and at the mouth of which lies England's richest Chinese sphere. Russian effort toward the absorption of Persia and the reduction of Afghanistan had been evident. Some months ago, a Russian occupation of the eastern Chinese province of Kashgar had been reported, and early in April it had been announced by the Indian correspondent of the London *Times* that the Khanate of Bokhara, including all the posts on the Oxus River, had been occupied by a Russian military force. Meanwhile, the British mission, headed by Mr. Dane, to the Amir of Afghanistan still remains at Kabul. Whether, as announced, this mission has the rectification of trade relations in view solely, or is intended to counteract Russia's efforts to cross Afghanistan and secure a port on the Persian Gulf, are subjects for speculation. There are those who believe that Lord Curzon is really looking for an opportunity to test the value of the reforms which Lord Kitchener has introduced into the organization of the Indian army.

*The
Manchurian
Campaign.*

With the capture of Tie Pass by the Japanese (March 16), the battle of Mukden proper had ended. General Linevitch, who had succeeded General Kuropatkin as commander-in-chief of the Russian forces (Kuropatkin assuming immediate command of General Linevitch's army), had reorganized as best he could the shattered Russian forces and retreated along the line of the railway toward Harbin, converting the whole country into a desert as he marched. The Japanese pursuit had been slow and deliberate, and, while the censorship had kept any definite information from leaking out, the consensus of the reports circulated by the middle of April had been to

The Military Situation Further. With the appointment of General Linevitch as commander-in-chief of the Russian forces in the far East came the resignations of General Sakharoff (Kuropatkin's chief of staff) and General Stachelberg,—the former on account of differences with Linevitch, and Stachelberg because of broken-down health. The latter general, it will be remembered, was defeated by the Japanese at Vangow, or Telissu (on June 14-17, 1904), while trying to relieve Port Arthur. He has, however, been one of the hardest-fighting generals on the Russian side. Other changes had been announced in the war office at St. Petersburg. General Suklominoff had been appointed minister of war to succeed Minister Sakharoff, and the Czar had appointed General Dragomiroff, the veteran of the Turkish wars, as a kind of imperial military adviser. Before leaving the war office, General Sakharoff, stung by the many criticisms of his department in forwarding troops to the far East, had given out a statement that since the beginning of the war the Siberian Railroad had transported to Harbin 761,000 soldiers, 13,000 officers, 146,000 horses, more than 1,500 guns, and more than 350,000 tons of stores. If, as has been admitted, there were not more than 60,000 Russians in Manchuria when the war began, and if, as the most reliable figures indicate, there are not more than 300,000 men there now, Russia has lost, in the fourteen months of the war, more than half a million men. It is more probable, however, that these figures represent the paper strength of the forces sent. Either way, the result is anything but complementary to the imperial war office. The anti-peace party, however, still talks of sending men to the front, and it is reported that the garrison at Vladivostok has already been increased to 100,000 men. On the other hand, Japan is preparing to double her present army in the field. According to reports from Tokio, early in April, the Japanese Manchurian fighting forces will number, by the coming autumn, more than one million men actually in the field.

The Baltic Fleet in Chinese Waters. In watching the slow progress of the Russian Baltic fleet toward Chinese waters the shrewd advisers of the Emperor of Japan have held that Admiral Rozhestvenski could have one of only two possible missions, either of which the Japanese navy was confidently regarded as being able to frustrate. It had been believed at Tokio, and by students of the situation all over the world, that, considering the lack of modern fighting units in the Russian fleet and its admitted inferiority to that under Admiral Togo,

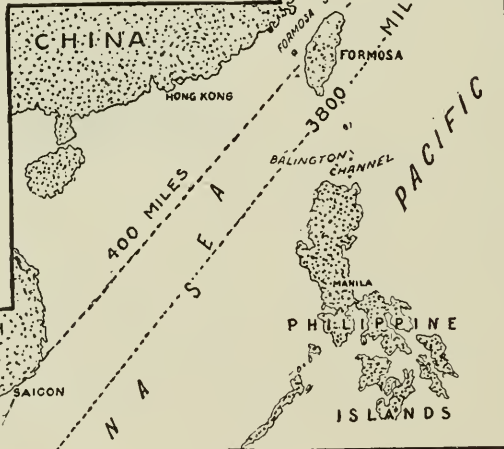
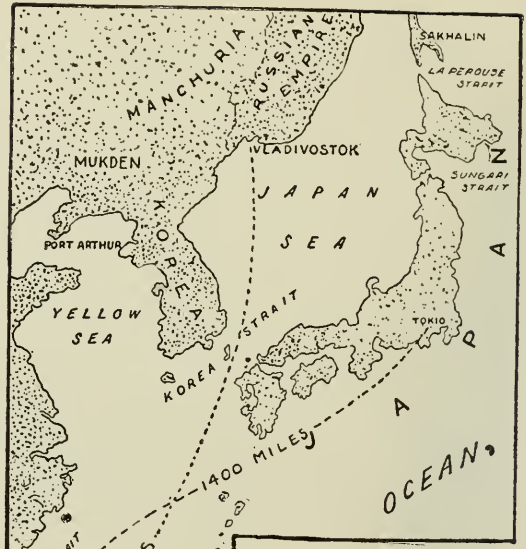


GENERAL DRAGOMIROFF.
(The Czar's military adviser.)

the real object of Admiral Rozhestvenski in Chinese waters had been, not to seek battle with the Japanese, but to so impress the rest of the world with a show of strength, and to so occupy the attention of the Japanese fleet, that in the negotiations for peace which were believed to be in progress early in April the powers of the world would combine to modify Japan's demands. There had been, however, a possibility that Admiral Rozhestvenski, in the course of his long voyage from home waters, and particularly during his stay north of Madagascar, had so brought up the efficiency of his vessels and crews that he would make an actual dash for Vladivostok, Russia's only remaining stronghold in the far East, and accept battle with Admiral Togo if the latter should offer it.

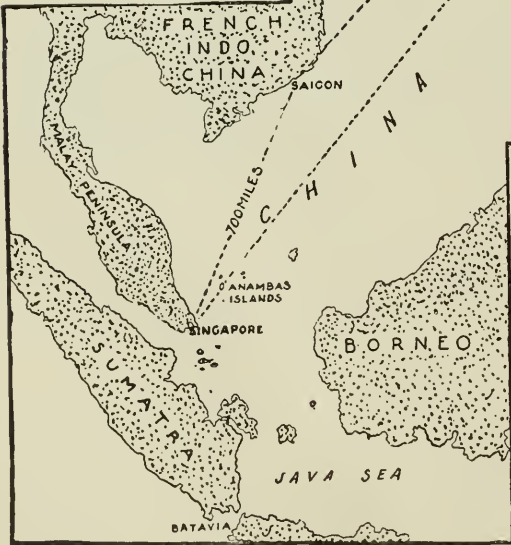
Admiral Togo's Problem. The problem before Admiral Togo as the Russian Baltic fleet approached the China Sea had become infinitely more complicated and serious than even the result of a great battle between the two fleets. Ever since the first attack on Port Arthur (on February 8 and 9 of last year), Admiral Togo's tactics have been those of a statesman as well as a naval commander. Those who have criticised

him for not closing in with the Russians at Port Arthur and destroying them in a great fight between battleships (and there are many who have thus criticised him severely) have forgotten that old, homely proverb which says, "Don't put all your eggs in one basket." The entire Japanese navy is at present in active service under Admiral Togo. He has only five battleships, and it will not be possible within the next year or so for Japan to build another first-class fighting ship. During the war, neutral countries are not permitted to sell her any. Admiral Togo and the naval department at Tokio have not forgotten the "friendly advice" given Japan at the close of her war with China, and backed up by the combined fleets of Russia, Germany, and France. The island empire wants no more of such "friendly advice," and Admiral Togo has been too shrewd and cautious to risk, for the spectacular advantage of an open-sea fight, the right arm of his nation, which alone would command respect in case of a possible European anti-Japanese coalition at the end of the war. Therefore, not even for the sake of the dramatic unities, or the newspaper correspondents of the rest of the world, has Admiral Togo been willing to risk his great battleships unnecessarily.



Rozhestvenski's Progress.

It may be said that the attention of the whole world had been fixed on the Baltic fleet and its probable fate when, in the first few days of April, Admiral Rozhestvenski was reported to have passed into the China Sea, part of his fleet going through the Straits of Malacca and part through the Sunda Strait. The Russians, steaming slowly northward, had been noted



(on April 11) passing Singapore. Several days later they were reported at the Anambas Islands, and their hospital ship, the *Orel*, entered the harbor of Saigon, French Cochin China, for supplies. The Chinese waters are at all times scoured by the navies of Great Britain, France, and Holland, and there is always a small force of American warships in Philippine harbors. The Russians, therefore, were reported at many different points and small islands, and the world hourly awaited the great battle which had been confidently expected. By April 19, the Russians, after coaling in the French harbor of Kamranh, calling forth considerable protest in the Japanese press over what was termed French violation of neutrality, had sent out cruisers to "supervise" Japanese and neutral commerce passing Formosa. To those familiar with Admiral Togo's tactics

SCENE OF THE FAR-EASTERN NAVAL OPERATIONS.
(Showing Admiral Rozhestvenski's route.)

and the geography of the situation, it had become evident that the plans of the Japanese admiral were, in general, somewhat like this: Assuming that Admiral Rozhstvenski were really making a dash for Vladivostok, the Japanese naval commander, from some base probably near the island of Formosa, would send out many torpedo boats (the Japanese boast that they can manufacture these as fast as they could possibly be destroyed) to pick off the Russian vessels; second, that he would send fast scouting cruisers, also provided with torpedoes, to harass the Russians; and, third, that he would take advantage of everything that nature afforded,—the dangerous channels, the fogs, and every other natural obstacle,—to retard his foes.

If the Russian admiral were short-sighted enough to make for Vladivostok harbor, Admiral Togo, it was understood, would permit the enemy's vessels to enter and then destroy them in the roadstead as he destroyed the Russians at Port Arthur. In case Admiral Rozhstvenski meant to cruise in Chinese waters, as an argument in favor of better terms of peace for Russia, the general harassing tactics could also be pursued. This policy, in the main, called for the closing with mines of the avenues of approach to Vladivostok, and in accordance with this policy it was announced on April 18 that the Tsugaru Straits, between the main Japanese island and the northern island of Yezo, were within the zone of defense and had been mined. On paper, the rival fleets were of approximately equal strength, with a preponderance of battleships in favor of the Russians. If the fourth Baltic squadron under Nebogatov, which was reported having left the Red Sea on March 26, had joined Rozhstvenski, this preponderance might possibly have been real. The Russians had seven battleships (five of them first-class, although none of them of the most modern build), two armored cruisers, and six protected cruisers. Although uninjured by war, the Russian ships were in bad condition from their long stay in tropical waters, overloaded with coal, and hampered by their colliers and supply ships. Altogether, Admiral Togo had five battleships, eight armored cruisers, and thirteen protected cruisers, besides a large number of destroyers and torpedo boats. Although it is not known just how much these Japanese ships have been damaged as the result of their hard service of over a year, in general they must have been in good fighting condition. In the number of guns, the fleets were about equal, although in weight of metal Togo was superior, and immeasurably so in the training of his gunners.

*The
Strength of
the Fleets.*



THE DOWAGER-EMPRESS OF RUSSIA.

(The mother of the Czar, who was the Princess Dagmar [Maria Feodorovna], is daughter of King Christian of Denmark and sister of the Queen of England.)

*The
Russian
Reforms.*

While the numerous commissions and committees created by the various reform rescripts and ukases of the Czar during the past few months had been deliberating, and exasperating the overridden peasantry by their inactivity, there had been a certain amount of real progress made in the internal affairs of the empire. Especially significant were the real concessions which it is reported have been made to Poland and Finland, and the movement launched for the separation of Church and State. Especially significant, also, was the formation of the National Professional Reform League, projected by the national congress of lawyers which recently finished its work in Moscow. The reactionary party, however, appears to be in the ascendency, and repression again holds sway. The only exception to this policy of repression appears in the concessions to Finland. These concessions are said to be due to the influence of the Dowager-Empress, who, however, is generally regarded as one of the most reactionary of the Russian court party.

*Concessions
to
Finland.*

The Czar had made a real concession in answer to the petition of the Finnish Diet asking that all imperial decrees since the Diet of 1899 be withdrawn because they were not approved by the Diet. The Czar orders the suspension, until 1908, of

the conscription act, by which Finns were drafted into the Russian army contrary to the fundamental law of Finland. In the year mentioned, the question will be submitted to the Diet. In the meantime, Finland will pay an annual war contribution of \$2,000,000 instead of furnishing recruits. The Czar also restores the judges who were illegally removed from office for opposing the so-called Russification of Finland. Concessions to the Poles had not yet been actually carried out, but a large majority of the Council of Ministers, headed by President Witte, are known to favor the abandonment of the compulsory use of Russian in Polish schools. The movement to sever the bonds between the Orthodox Church and the State, and thus secure self-rule and independence for the Church, while vigorously opposed by Procurator Pobyedonostzev, had found favor among the important members of the clergy in large cities, and a document embodying the views of these priests had been published in one of the clerical organs of St. Petersburg, urging that the Church free herself from her obligations to the State in order to "detach herself from the worldly feelings and interest," and suggesting that a great council be called to consider the whole matter.

Progress of the Revolutionary Spirit. Anarchy and rioting had continued throughout the empire, and assassination by bombs had appeared to be on the increase. Attempts on the lives of Governor-General of St. Petersburg Trepov and Baron Nolken, police chief of Warsaw, had been followed by the arrest of a man and a woman for attempts to blow up the Czar himself. By the middle of April the trial of Ivan Kolaiev for the assassination of Grand Duke Sergius had been finished and Kolaiev found guilty and sentenced to death. The restlessness of the peasants had continued, and disorders in the country districts had increased. Many large estates had been pillaged, and a condition of civil war existed in the Caucasus. An agrarian movement of widespread extent and violence had been apprehended for the Russian Easter season, which occurs during the first week in our month of May. The whole empire was impatiently awaiting some definite action on the part of the government commissions, as it had long been felt that social and economic questions were beyond the power of the bureaucracy to solve. Many reforms had been promised, and it had been assumed that, in accordance with the Czar's declaration of March 3, some popular representative assembly would be summoned in the near future. Up to the middle of April, however, the meetings of the lawyers and doctors, and the announced in-

tion of the government to at once extend the zemstvo system to Poland and eastern Siberia, had been the only real progress. On April 19 it had been reported that Count Lamsdorf, the foreign minister, and M. Witte, president of the Council of Ministers, had resigned their positions in consequence of the Czar's refusal to discuss the question of the separation of Church and State and to give immediate consideration to the problems relating to peasant tenure of land. In the great cities, the discontent among the workmen had been increasing, and order had been maintained only with difficulty by Cossacks in the streets.

As to Russian Finances.

Russia's ability to finance a long war had become a matter of prime interest to Europe and to the rest of the world. Up to the 1st of April, the empire had obtained two foreign loans amounting to \$400,000,000. She had also issued an interior loan of \$100,000,000. At a monthly expenditure of \$20,000,000 for the war (which is the amount admitted by the Russians themselves), the cost, so far, of fifteen months' conflict, including the initial expenses, would be about \$350,000,000. This is "running expenses," and does not include the immense property losses of stores and supplies which the Russians have sustained in the campaign just closed. The failure of the Czar's endeavor to raise a new loan in France had caused the belief in some quarters that Russia was at the end of her resources. This is, of course, a fallacy. The whole question of the relation of France to Russia in the matter of financial loans and the resources of the empire is considered in a "Leading Article" on another page of this issue. There is an immense reserve,—nearly \$500,000,000,—deposited in St. Petersburg, most of it, however, being security for loans already made. There is also another reserve, the "holy gold fund," consisting of the gold and jewels in the Russian churches, which might be used in a great national crisis. Altogether, should Russia need to do so, she might carry on the war indefinitely, so far as the matter of expense is concerned. The failure to float the loan in France, and the opposition at home to continuance of the war, had been reflected in the decrease in the price of Russian 4 per cent. bonds, which during the first week in April, for the first time in their history, had dropped below 83. During late March, the world had been interested in the somewhat sensational offer of Finance Minister Kokovsev, made to the *London Times*, to permit a representative of that journal to enter the great vaults and "verify personally the gold reserve."

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From March 21 to April 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

March 23.—President Roosevelt appoints Truman H. Newberry, of Michigan, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, to succeed Charles H. Darling, resigned.... The Maryland Supreme Court orders the governor to submit the constitutional amendment relating to negro disfranchisement to popular vote.... The Delaware Legislature adjourns without electing a United States Senator.

March 25.—The Nebraska Legislature appropriates \$250,000 for a State binder-twine factory.

March 28.—The city of Louisville, Ky., is indicted by the federal grand jury for peonage.

March 29.—All the members of the Panama Canal Commission resign.... The general counsel of the Panama Railroad purchases for the United States all but five of the outstanding shares of the company.

March 30.—The committee of the New York Legislature begins its investigation of the New York City lighting trust.

April 3.—President Roosevelt appoints a new Panama Canal Commission, as follows: Theodore P. Shonts, chairman; Charles E. Magoon, governor of canal zone; John F. Wallace, chief engineer; Rear-Admiral M. T. Endicott, U.S.N.; Brig-Gen. Peter C. Hains, U.S.A. (retired); Col. Oswald H. Ernst, U.S. Engineers, and Benjamin M. Harrod.... Michigan elects a Republican State ticket by a large plurality.

April 4.—Judge Edward F. Dunne (Dem.) is elected mayor of Chicago, by a plurality of more than 22,000 votes, over John M. Harlan (Rep.).... Mayor Rolla Wells, of St. Louis, is reelected.

April 10.—Commissioner of Corporations Garfield arrives in Kansas to begin the investigation of the oil industry.... United States Supreme Court decides that the right to a trial by a common-law jury exists in Alaska.

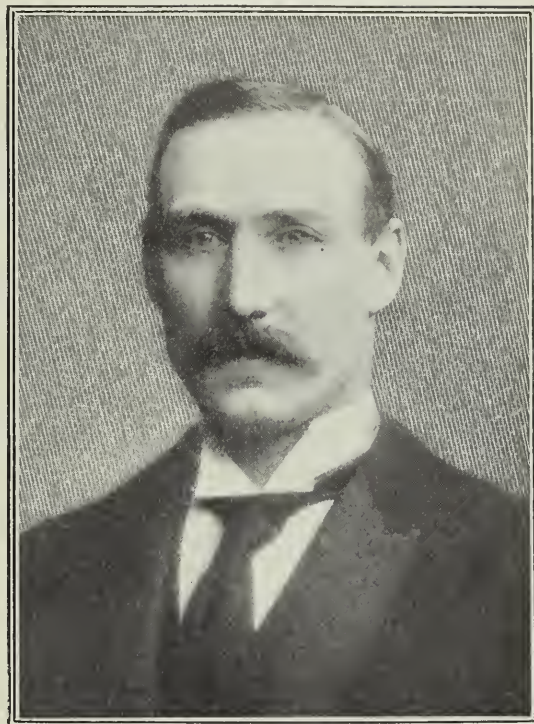
April 12.—The executive committee of the Panama Canal Commission holds its first meeting in Washington (see page 549).

April 13.—Indictments charging tampering with a witness are returned against four persons by the federal grand jury of Chicago which is investigating the Beef Trust.

April 17.—The United States Supreme Court declares the New York law fixing ten hours as a day's work for bakers unconstitutional.... The Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce begins its hearings on the railroad-rate question at Washington.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

March 21.—The Kossuth party leaders in Hungary decide to oppose any cabinet that refuses the demand for Hungarian as the language of military command.... Motions to postpone the question of Church and State separation, and to refer it to a commission, are defeated in the French Chamber of Deputies.... Viscount Goschen and the Earl of Selborne defend the increase in naval expenditure in the British House of Commons.



THE EARL OF SELBORNE.

(Who has been appointed to succeed Viscount Milner as high commissioner for South Africa.)

March 22.—The Russian Committee of Ministers decides to recommend the abolition of the compulsory use of the Russian language in Polish schools.... In the British House of Commons, a Liberal motion on the fiscal question is carried by a vote of 254 to 2, Balfour's followers not voting.

March 23.—The Emperor of Germany signs a bill for the construction of a railroad from the Cameroons to Lake Chad.

March 27.—A bill for reform of labor conditions in the Prussian mines is supported in the Prussian Diet by Count von Bülow.... The King of Greece opens the new Parliament in person.

March 29.—The insurrectionary movement against Russia is reported strong in the Caucasus.

April 2.—President Diaz, of Mexico, congratulates the country on its recent monetary reform.

April 4.—The government of Manitoba, Canada, issues a statement on the separate-school question.

April 10.—Austen Chamberlain, chancellor of the exchequer, announces a surplus of \$7,070,000 in Great Britain's finances.... The Italian minister of marine,

Admiral Mirabello, asks the Parliament for \$12,000,000 to enlarge the navy.

April 14.—The Russian minister of finance announces that important reforms in the labor laws are being prepared.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

March 23.—The government of Newfoundland takes steps to prevent American fishermen from obtaining bait there. . . . German holders of Venezuelan bonds sign an agreement for unifying the debt.

March 24.—President Castro, of Venezuela, refuses the American demand for arbitration of the asphalt controversy. . . . It is announced that Colombia has settled the last of the American claims. . . . The representative powers in Santo Domingo agree on the appointment of a commissioner to collect revenues and hold 55 per cent. in trust for foreign creditors until the United States Senate acts.

March 25.—United States Minister Dawson arranges with Santo Domingo for the temporary collection of revenues by a United States commissioner.

March 27.—The American State Department advises Cuba that Spanish ordinance on the island should be returned to Spain, as requested.

March 28.—President Roosevelt decides to accept Santo Domingo's proposition for an American receiver of customs, pending final action on the treaty. . . . Lord Lansdowne, the British foreign secretary, proposes placing Macedonian finances under international control.

March 29.—Prince George, the governor of Crete, asks the powers to postpone intervention, and calls on the revolutionists to lay down their arms. . . . The European powers determine to collect the Macedonian taxes and apply them to needy districts. . . . Italy presents an ultimatum to Santo Domingo, but withdraws it on learning of the American receivership plans. . . . Count von Bülow, the imperial chancellor, says that Germany will stand firm in Morocco in the interests of the open-door principle. . . . The Swiss Bundesrath rejects the commercial treaty with the United States because of the Senate's modifications.

March 31.—Santo Domingo decides to stop debt payments until the American receivership plan is inaugurated.

April 2.—Chile announces her determination to acquire sovereignty over the former Peruvian provinces of Taena and Arica.

April 3.—Belgians, who are Santo Domingo's largest creditors, protest against the American arrangement.

April 4.—A supplementary extradition treaty between the United States and Sweden and Norway is signed. . . . Lord Lansdowne informs the British House of Commons that Germany has violated her agreement to protect British traders in the Marshall and Caroline islands.

April 5.—The American State Department publishes the statement that American action on the neutrality of China was at the suggestion of the German Emperor.

April 8.—Representatives of South and Central American republics complain to the United States of preferential tariff in Panama Railway rates.

April 13.—Lord Lansdowne declares in the British House of Commons that England joins with the other powers in cordially accepting President Roosevelt's invitation to a second peace conference.



THE NEW PROTESTANT CATHEDRAL IN BERLIN, GERMANY.

(It cost \$3,000,000, and was twelve years in building.)

April 14.—President Roosevelt appoints a commission of three experts to consider and report on the diversion of international rivers.

April 15.—It is announced at Washington that the United States has referred the questions to be taken up in the second peace conference to the Hague tribunal.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

March 23.—The Japanese enter Chang-tu-fu, ten miles north of Kai-yuen, as they follow after the retreating Russians. . . . The internal loan for \$100,000,000 is signed in St. Petersburg.

March 24.—The Japanese are carrying out another flanking movement south of Harbin; the Russians fear being cut off. . . . The new Japanese loan for \$150,000,000 is to be raised half in America, half in London.

March 25.—From the beginning of the war to date, the Siberian Railway has delivered at Harbin 761,467 soldiers, 13,687 officers, 146,408 horses, 1,521 guns, and 351,000 tons of stores. . . . The *Sigma Yatchestor* calculates that the Manchurian enterprise, inclusive of the war, has cost Russia \$1,000,000,000.

March 26.—The Russians are still retreating; they are driven out of all the districts watered by the Liao River.

April 2.—The Chinese report Japanese armies moving

against Vladivostok on the east and Tsitsikar on the west.

April 3.—St. Petersburg reports the Russian armies concentrated and awaiting attack.

April 7.—General Linevitch reports a sharp action in which the Japanese lose heavily. . . . The Russian Baltic fleet under Rozhstvenski passes Singapore.

April 17.—Admiral Rozhstvenski's vessels are reported at Kamranh Bay, north of Saigon, and at points farther north.

April 18.—The Japanese estimate the strength of General Linevitch's army at 200,000 men.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

March 21.—A flood at Pittsburg, Pa., renders 1,000 persons homeless and causes a property damage of \$500,000.

March 23.—Commander Peary's new Arctic steamer *Roosevelt* is launched at Bucksport, Maine. . . . It is announced in the British Parliament that over 346,000 deaths occurred in India from the plague up to March 11, 1905.

March 25.—A plan for the union of Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is published. . . . Citizens of New York subscribe \$600,000 toward an endowment of \$1,000,000 for the American Academy of Fine Arts in Rome, Italy. . . . Owners of factories in and about St. Petersburg lock out 30,000 men.

March 28.—A protest is filed against the acceptance of John D. Rockefeller's gift of \$100,000 by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.

March 30.—The New York Rapid Transit Commission reports plans for new subways to cost \$200,000,000.

March 31.—The will of Mrs. Jane Stanford makes personal bequests amounting to \$4,000,000, and leaves the residuary estate to Stanford University.

April 1.—The Pennsylvania soft-coal operators renew last year's wage scale, thus averting a strike of 45,000 men. . . . St. Louis ice and coal wagon drivers decide to go on strike. . . . Oxford easily defeats Cambridge in the annual rowing race on the Thames. . . . The turbine steamship *Victorian* arrives at Halifax, having crossed the Atlantic in one hour and ten minutes less than eight days (see page 574).

April 2.—The Simplon tunnel is officially inaugurated (see page 572).

April 3.—President Roosevelt leaves Washington on a two months' vacation trip to Texas and Colorado. . . . A gas explosion in a mine at Ziegler, Ill., entombs fifty miners. . . . The New York superintendent of insurance begins an investigation of the Equitable Life Association.

April 4.—Earthquakes cause the loss of many lives and serious damage in India.

April 5.—The United States Government invites England, Germany, and France each to nominate one distinguished engineer to serve on the advisory board of the Panama Canal Commission.

April 6.—The Board of Directors of the Equitable Life Association adopt an amended charter allowing the policy-holders to name 28 out of 52 directors.

April 7.—President Roosevelt is the guest of honor at a reunion of the regiment of Rough Riders, at San Antonio, Texas.

April 8.—The collapse of a partially constructed reservoir near Madrid, Spain, causes the death or injury of 400 persons.

April 10.—Ambassador Joseph H. Choate is elected a Bencher of the Middle Temple.

April 11.—The Prudential Committee of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions formally accepts the gift of \$100,000 from John D. Rockefeller, and issues a statement explaining its action.

April 13.—Dr. Edwin A. Alderman is inaugurated as first president of the University of Virginia.

April 15.—President Roosevelt leaves Newcastle, Colo., for his camp in the mountains.

April 18.—The assassin of the Grand Duke Sergius is sentenced to death at Moscow.

OBITUARY.

March 21.—Ex-Chancellor Edward P. Crane, of the Western University of Pennsylvania, 73.

March 22.—President Elmer H. Capen, of Tufts College, Massachusetts, 67. . . . Antonin Proust, former French minister of fine arts, 73.

March 23.—Ex-Congressman Theodore M. Pomeroy, of Auburn, N. Y., 80. . . . Eduardo Tabacchi, Italian sculptor.

March 24.—Jules Verne, the French story-writer, 77 (see page 579). . . . Señor Don Manuel de Azpiroz, Mexican ambassador to the United States, 69. . . . Ex-Congressman Charles Tracey, of Albany, N. Y., 57.

March 25.—Maurice Barrymore, the actor, 55. . . . Sol Eytinge, the illustrator, 72. . . . Charles Boyd Curtis, the New York lawyer and author, 78.

March 28.—Adrian Iselin, the veteran New York banker, 87. . . . Lord Norton, conspicuous in the establishment of self-government for the British colonies, 90.

March 29.—Col. Jacob L. Greene, president of the Connecticut Mutual Life Insurance Company, 68.

March 31.—William H. Meeker, one of the oldest actors of the American stage, 83. . . . Immanuel Auerbach, editor of the *New-Yorker Handels-Zeitung*, 82. . . . Samuel F. Dunlap, Oriental scholar and legal writer, 80.

April 1.—President William F. Potter, of the Long Island Railroad, 50.

April 2.—Prof. Albert A. Wright, of Oberlin College, 59. . . . Samuel Miller Hageman, a well-known clergyman and author, of Brooklyn, N. Y., 57.

April 4.—Alphonse Favier, Roman Catholic Vicar-Apostolic in China, 68.

April 7.—Edward Floyd DeLancey, a New York lawyer and historian, 83. . . . Gen. Cullen A. Battle, of the Confederate army, 76.

April 9.—Miss Sarah Chauncey Wordsworth ("Susan Coolidge"), 60. . . . Chief Justice Jesse Knight, of the Wyoming Supreme Court, 55.

April 10.—Judge Lawrence Weldon, of the United States Court of Claims, 76.

April 13.—H. T. Craven, the British dramatist, 84. . . . Colonel Renard, a well-known French aërostatic inventor, 58.

April 15.—Gen. John Palmer, former secretary of state of New York, 63. . . . Ex-Congressman Halbert E. Paine, of Wisconsin, 80.

April 20.—Rev. S. D. F. Salmond, principal of the United Free Church College, of Scotland, 67.

ANNOUNCEMENTS OF CONVENTIONS AND OTHER GATHERINGS, 1905.

THERE follows a list of over one hundred important meetings or assemblies to be held in America during the remaining eight months of the current year. A glance at this tabulation will afford some indication of the varied activities of the American mind. It also shows how great a factor the convention, or conference, has become in our scheme of living, and how even the difficulties of the transcontinental journey, once deemed well-nigh insurmountable, have been minimized in the interest of assemblages believed

essential to our welfare and progress as a people. To the meeting of the National Educational Association, at Ashbury Park, N. J., in the first week of July, will flock thousands of teachers from every quarter, while in the week following the young people of American Protestant churches will be represented in imposing numbers at Baltimore, by the Christian Endeavor Society, and at Denver, by the Epworth League. At Portland and Seattle, in the Pacific Northwest, there will also be great gatherings.

EDUCATIONAL GATHERINGS.

American Institute of Instruction..... Portland, Ore.
 American Instructors of the Deaf..... Morgantown, N. C.
 Annual Convocation of University of the State of New York..... Albany, N. Y.
 Catholic Educational Association..... New York City
 Catholic Summer Schools of America..... Cliff Haven, N. Y.
 Chautauqua Institution..... Chautauqua, N. Y.
 International Friends' Educational Conference..... Richmond, Ind.
 Jewish Chautauqua Society of America..... Atlantic City, N. J.
 National Educators' Association..... Ashbury Park, N. J.
 National Educators' Association..... Washington, D. C.
 Summer School of the South..... Knoxville, Tenn.

MEETINGS OF MUSICIANS.

American Federation of Musicians..... Detroit, Mich.
 American Union of Swedish Singers..... Chicago, Ill.
 Music Teachers' National Association..... New York City
 National Elstreddorf..... Scranton, Pa.
 National Federation Musical Clubs' Convention..... Denver, Colo.
 Worcester Musical Festival..... Worcester, Mass.

PATRIOTIC CONVENTIONS AND REUNIONS.

Annual Encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic..... Denver, Colo.
 National Mexican War Veterans' Association..... Dallas, Tex.
 Naval and Military Order of Spanish American War..... Boston, Mass.
 Reunion of the Blue and the Gray..... Washington, D. C.
 Sons of American Revolution National Society..... Philadelphia, Pa.
 Spanish-American War Nurses..... Washington, D. C.
 United Confederate Veterans' National Reunion..... Louisville, Ky.
 United Daughters of the Confederacy..... San Francisco, Cal.

MEETINGS OF RELIGIOUS BODIES.

American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions..... Seattle, Wash.
 American Missionary Association..... Worcester, Mass.
 American Unitarian Association..... Boston, Mass.
 Augustana Swedish Lutheran Synod of America..... Stanton, Iowa
 Baptist General Convention..... St. Louis, Mo.
 Brotherhood of St. Andrew..... Chicago, Ill.
 Central Conference of American Rabbis..... Springfield, Ohio
 Congregational Home Missionary Society..... Frenco, Cal.
 Cumberland Presbyterian Church General Assembly..... Denver, Col.
 Epworth League National Convention..... Toronto, Canada.
 Field Workers' Conference..... Winona Lake, Ind.
 General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A..... Asbury Park, N. J.
 General Synod of the Reformed (German) Church in United States.....
 General Conference Board of Free Baptists..... Allentown, Pa.
 General Conference of Christian Workers..... Ocean Park, Me.
 German Baptists of the United States..... E. Northfield, Mass.
 International Convention of Christian Endeavor..... Bristol, Tenn.
 International Convention of Christian Endeavor..... Baltimore, Md.

DATE.

July 10-13
 July 8-15
 June 28-30
 July 11-13
 July-August
 June 29, Aug. 27
 July 31, Aug. 3
 July 8-30
 July 3-7
 June 26
 June 20-July 28

SECRETARY.

Wm. C. Crawford, 80 Ashforth Street, Boston, Mass.
 Prof. J. L. Smith, Faribault, Minn.
 Howard P. Rogers, First Ass't. Comr. of Education, Albany, N. Y.
 Rev. F. W. Howard, 212 E. Broad Street, Columbus, Ohio.
 Robert L. Kelly, Earlham College, Richmond, Ind.
 Isaac Ashley, P. O. Box 825, Philadelphia.
 Irwin Sheppard, Winona, Minn.
 Robert L. Fulton, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.
 Mrs. David Campbell, 1225 Vine Street, Denver, Colo.
 H. N. Deberg, 1514 Belmont Avenue, Chicago.
 Charles H. Farnsworth, Columbia University, New York.
 D. E. Pfeifferhard, Scranton, Pa.
 Mrs. C. B. Kelsey, 64 Washington Street, Grand Rapids, Mich.
 Paul B. Morgan, 21 Lincoln Street, Worcester, Mass.

May 15
 July 20-23
 June 21-23
 June 12
 June 9-29
 Sept. 25-29

Mrs. David Campbell, 1225 Vine Street, Denver, Colo.
 H. N. Deberg, 1514 Belmont Avenue, Chicago.
 Charles H. Farnsworth, Columbia University, New York.
 D. E. Pfeifferhard, Scranton, Pa.
 Mrs. C. B. Kelsey, 64 Washington Street, Grand Rapids, Mich.
 Paul B. Morgan, 21 Lincoln Street, Worcester, Mass.

Sept. 4-9
 May 23-24
 May 20
 May 10-11
 April 30, May 2
 May 1-2
 June 14-16
 Oct. 3

John E. Gilman, Adjutant-General, 95 Milk Street, Boston, Mass.
 Mrs. More Murdock, Dallas, Tex.
 Capt. John T. Hilton, 170 Fifth Avenue, New York.
 A. H. Clark, Smithsonian, Washington, D. C.
 Lela Wilson, 7 Thomas Street, Jamaica Plain, Mass.
 Maj.-Gen. Wm. E. Mickle, New Orleans, La.
 Virginia F. McSherry, Martinsburg, W. Va.

September 14-18
 October
 May 23-24
 June 9-16
 May 16
 September 21-24
 July 2-7
 May 30-June 1
 May 18
 July 5-9
 June 20-23
 May 18-23
 June 7

Cornelius H. Patton, 14 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.
 J. W. Cooper, D. D., 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.
 Charles E. St. John, 25 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.
 Rev. C. A. Randolph, Stanton, Iowa.
 Rev. Charles H. Moss, Malden, Mass.
 Edgar G. Griswell, Broad Exchange Building, Boston, Mass.
 Rev. Adolph Gutmacher, 239 Bolton Avenue, Baltimore, Md.
 Washington Choate, Fourth Avenue and 22d Street, New York.
 Rev. J. M. Hubbard, Marshall, Mo.
 E. M. Randall, D. D., 57 Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.
 E. A. Fox, Louisville West Building, Louisville, Ky.
 W. H. Roberts, D. D., Witherspoon Building, Philadelphia.
 Wm. H. DeHart, Raritan, N. J.
 J. P. Stein, Reading, Pa.
 Harry S. Myers, Hillsdale, Mich.
 H. R. Moore, Boston, Mass.
 V. F. Bowman, Johnson City, Tenn.
 Von Oeden Vogt, Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass.

International Sunday School Convention..... Toronto, Canada
 Lutheran Church General Synod..... Pittsburg, Pa.
 National Conference of Church Clubs (Episcopal) in the U. S. Cleveland, Ohio
 National Convention of the Disciples of Christ..... San Francisco, Cal.
 National Purity Conference..... La Crosse, Wis.
 National Spiritualists' Association..... Minneapolis, Minn.
 National Woman's Christian Temperance Union..... Los Angeles, Cal.
 National Young People's Christian Union..... Portland, Ore.
 National Zionists' Convention..... Hartford, Conn.
 Order Brith Abrah..... Philadelphia, Pa.
 Presbyterian Church General Assembly (South)..... Baltimore, Md.
 Reformed Presbyterian Church General Synod..... Fort Worth, Tex.
 Seventh Day Adventists' General Conference..... New York City
 Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church..... Washington, D. C.
 United Brethren General Conference..... Topeka, Kan.
 United Presbyterian Church General Assembly..... Washington, Ia.
 Women's International Club of America..... Minneapolis, Minn.
 World's Student Conference..... Chicago, Ill.
 Y. M. C. A. Student Officers' Convention..... E. Northfield, Mass.
 Young People's Missionary Movement..... Silver Day, N. Y.
 Young Women's Conference..... E. Northfield, Mass.

SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL GATHERINGS

American Association for the Advancement of Science..... New Orleans
 American Bar Association..... Narragansett Pier, R. I.
 American Chemical Society..... Buffalo, N. Y.
 American Forestry Association..... Washington, D. C.
 American Institute of Electrical Engineers..... Asheville, N. C.
 American Institute of Homoeopathy..... Chicago, Ill.
 American Library Association..... Portland, Ore.
 American Medical Association..... Portland, Ore.
 American Osteoprotic Association..... Denver, Colo.
 American Protocological Society..... Pittsburg, Pa.
 American Society of Civil Engineers..... Cleveland, Ohio
 American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses..... Washington, D. C.
 American Society of Zoologists..... Ann Arbor, Mich.
 American Surgical Association..... San Francisco, Cal.
 American Therapeutic Society..... Philadelphia, Pa.
 Association of American Physicians..... Washington, D. C.
 International Hahnemannian Association..... Chicago, Ill.
 National Eclectic Medical Association..... Saratoga Springs, N. Y.

SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND POLITICAL CONFERENCES.

American Civic Association..... Cleveland, Ohio
 American Economic Association..... Baltimore, Md.
 American Social Science Association..... Boston, Mass.
 Farmers' National Congress..... Richmond, Va.
 International Railway Congress..... Washington, D. C.
 International Woman's Label League..... Chicago, Ill.
 National American Woman Suffrage Association..... Portland, Ore.
 National Association of Manufacturers..... Atlanta, Ga.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction..... Portland, Ore.
 National Good Roads Association..... Portland, Ore.
 National Negro Business League..... New York City
 National Park Superintendents' Association..... Buffalo, N. Y.

OTHER ORGANIZATIONS.

Catholic Knights of America Supreme Council..... St. Louis, Mo.
 International Sunshine Society..... Niagara Falls, N. Y.
 National Edith's Sons of Temperance..... Asbury Park, N. J.
 National Editorial Association..... Guthrie, Okla.
 National Woman's Press Association..... Washington, D. C.
 North American Ginnets Union National Festival..... Indianapolis, Ind.
 United Commercial Travelers of America..... Independence, Kan.

Mr. Marion Lawrance, Toledo, Ohio.
 Jackson W. Sparrow, Johnston Building, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 Benjamin L. Smith, Y. M. C. A. Building, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 B. S. Steadwell, La Crosse, Wis.
 Mary T. Longley, 600 Pennsylvania Ave., S. E., Washington, D. C.
 Susanna M. D. Frey, Evanston, Ill.
 Mrs. Henrietta Brown, Albany, Ore.
 Miss Emma Barnett, Rich Valley, Ind.
 Leonard Leisersohn, Second Avenue and First Street, New York.
 W. A. Alexander, 501 College Street, Clarksville, Tenn.
 Rev. J. Y. Boice, 2213 Spring Garden Street, Philadelphia.
 W. A. Spicer, Tacoma Park, D. C.
 J. W. Sproull, D. D., 122 E. North Avenue, Allegheny City, Pa.
 Rev. George Miller, Carlisle, Iowa.
 Rev. D. F. McGill, D. D., Allegheny City, Pa.
 G. L. Demarest, Manchester, N. H.
 Emma Pow Bander, 224 Chestnut Street, Oakland, Cal.
 L. V. Moore, Boston, Mass.
 H. Pierce, 1145 N. H. Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C.
 C. W. McKay, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York.
 H. M. Moore, Boston, Mass.

L. O. Howard, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
 John Hinkley, 215 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Md.
 W. A. Noves, Bureau of Standards, Washington, D. C.
 H. M. Suter, 510 Twelfth Street, New York
 Ralph W. Pope, 95 Liberty Street, New York
 Joseph P. Cobb, M. D., 254 East 47th Street, Chicago.
 J. I. Weyer Jr., University of Nebraska Library, Lincoln, Neb.
 George H. Simmons, Chicago.
 Dr. H. L. Chiles, 118 Metcalf Building, Auburn, N. Y.
 Dr. William M. Beach, 516 Market Street, Pittsburg, Pa.
 Charles Warren Hunt, 220 West 57th Street, New York.
 Miss M. A. Nutting, Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Md.
 W. E. Castle, Cambridge, Mass.
 Dr. D. P. Allen, 290 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio.
 John V. Shoemaker, 1519 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.
 Dr. Henry Hun, 149 Washington Avenue, Albany, N. Y.
 J. B. S. King, M. D., 70 State Street, Chicago.
 Dr. Finley Ellingwood, 100 State Street, Chicago.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 121 South Broad Street, Philadelphia.
 Frank A. Fetter, Morrill Hall, Ithaca, N. Y.
 Frederick Stanley Root, 291 Orange Street, New Haven, Conn.
 John M. Stahl, Quincy, Ill.
 Mrs. Mary H. Baltr, 505 East Market Street, Elmira, N. Y.
 Kate M. Gordon, 1800 Prytania Street, New Orleans, La.
 Marshall Cushing, 170 Broadway, New York.
 Alexander Johnson, 105 East 22d Street, New York.
 R. W. Richards, Omaha, Neb.
 Emmett J. Scott, Tuskegee Institute, Ala.
 J. F. Colwell, Buffalo, N. Y.

Anthony Matre, 705 Mermoid-Jaccard Building, St. Louis, Mo.
 Mrs. C. W. Alden, 96 Fifth Avenue, New York.
 Ross Slack, Trenton, N. J.
 Wm. A. Ashbrook, Johnston, Ohio.
 Mrs. Mary M. North, Snow Hill, Md.
 Rudolph Zimmerman, 344 16th Street, Milwaukee, Wis.
 C. R. Crawford, Independence, Kan.

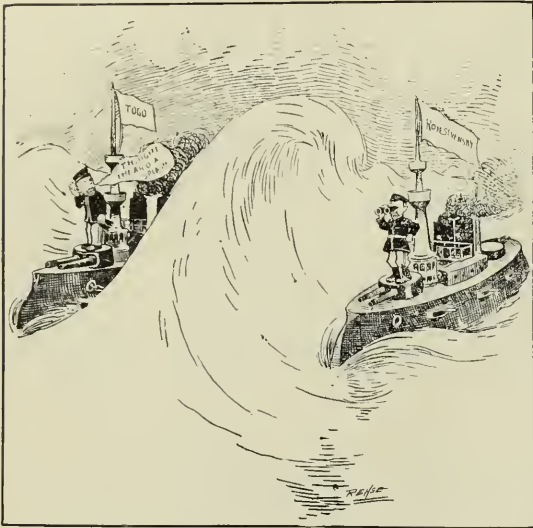
June 20-27
 June 14-21
 May 4-5
 October 24-26
 August 17-24
 October 17-20
 Oct. 27, Nov. 1
 June 27-28
 July 12-19
 June 16
 May 7-12
 May 18-26
 May 17
 May 11-30
 May 24
 May 11-12
 May 24-31
 Oct. 20-25
 June 21-22
 July 9
 May 28-31
 July 11-30

Dec. 29
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 December 13
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 June 26-30
 July 2-7
 July 11-14
 August 14-19
 May 5-6
 June 20-23
 May 1-6
 December 26-30
 June 5-7
 May 4-6
 June 16-17
 May 22-24
 June 20-22

October 4-6
 December 26-30
 May 11-13
 Sept. 12-22
 May 3
 June 6
 June 29-July 5
 May 16-18
 June 15-17
 July 14-17
 August 16-18
 June 28-30

May 9
 May 18-19
 July 12-13
 June 7-9
 May
 June 21-26
 May 12-13

SOME NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



THE GAME OF HIDE-AND-SEEK IN THE CHINA SEA.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

The drawing together of the Japanese and Russian war fleets in Chinese waters had furnished subjects for many cartoons last month. The rush to subscribe for the new Japanese loan had also been much pictured, and there had been evident an increasing recognition of the splendid campaigning of the armies of the Mikado as a new war college for the nations.



STILL LIFE IN MANCHURIA.

From the *Borsszem Jankó* (Budapest), the leading Hungarian cartoon journal.



SUCH A DIFFERENCE!

From the *Press* (New York).



"NOTHING SUCCEEDS LIKE SUCCESS."

(The pupils flock to the newest school.)

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



THE GERMAN KAISER IN A FEW NEW RÔLES.

HE OPENS THE EYES OF THE CZAR TO RUSSIA'S MISERY.—From the *Vikingen* (Christiania).



WITH HIS MAILED FIST HE DISTURBS THE HARMONY IN MOROCCO.

From the *Press* (New York).



HE REJOICES OVER HIS L.L.D. FROM PENNSYLVANIA.

DR. HOHENZOLLERN TO DR. ROOSEVELT: "While we are in these togs, why not review my ships at Kiel?"

From the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).



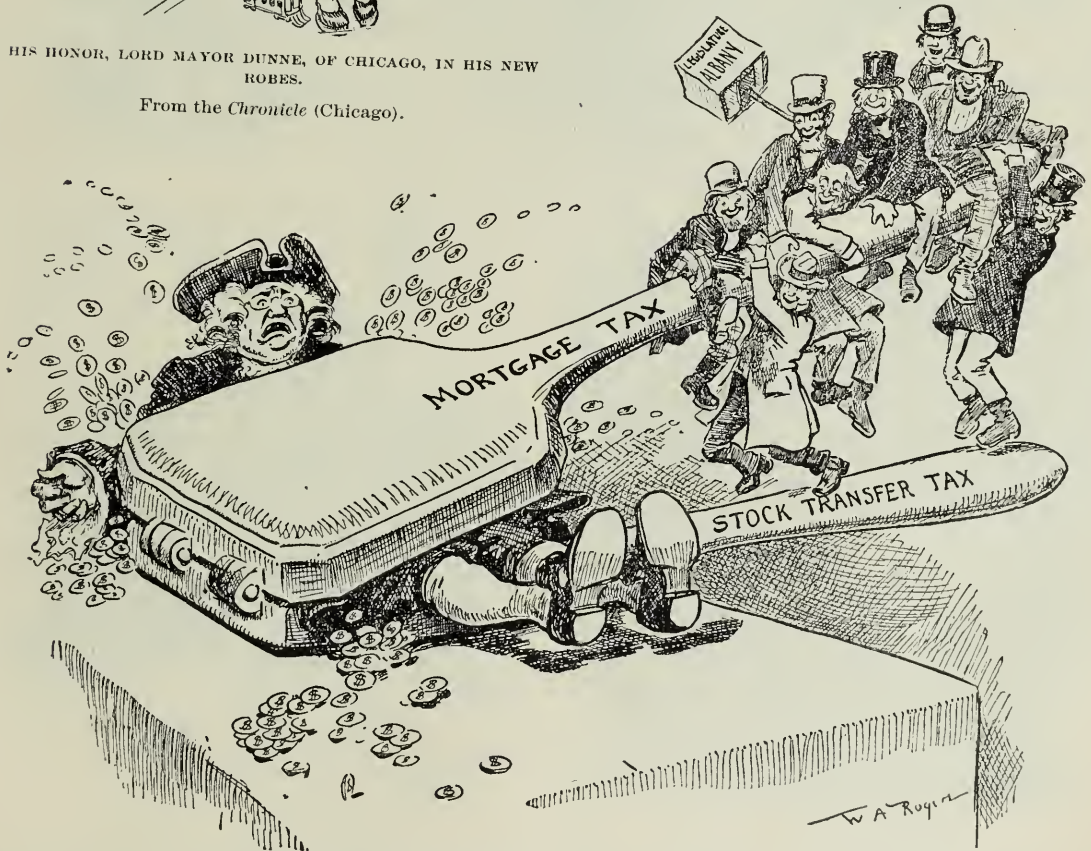
HIS HONOR, LORD MAYOR DUNNE, OF CHICAGO, IN HIS NEW ROBES.

From the Chronicle (Chicago).



DR. GLADDEN LEADING THE ARMY OF PRESENT-DAY CRUSADERS AGAINST THE CITADEL OF THE MONEY POWER.

From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).



FATHER KNICKERBOCKER SQUEEZED AGAIN.—From the Herald (New York).



THE PRESIDENT GOES A-HUNTING.

LEADING THE SIMPLE LIFE IN COLORADO.—From the North American (Philadelphia).



"THE CALL OF THE WILD."

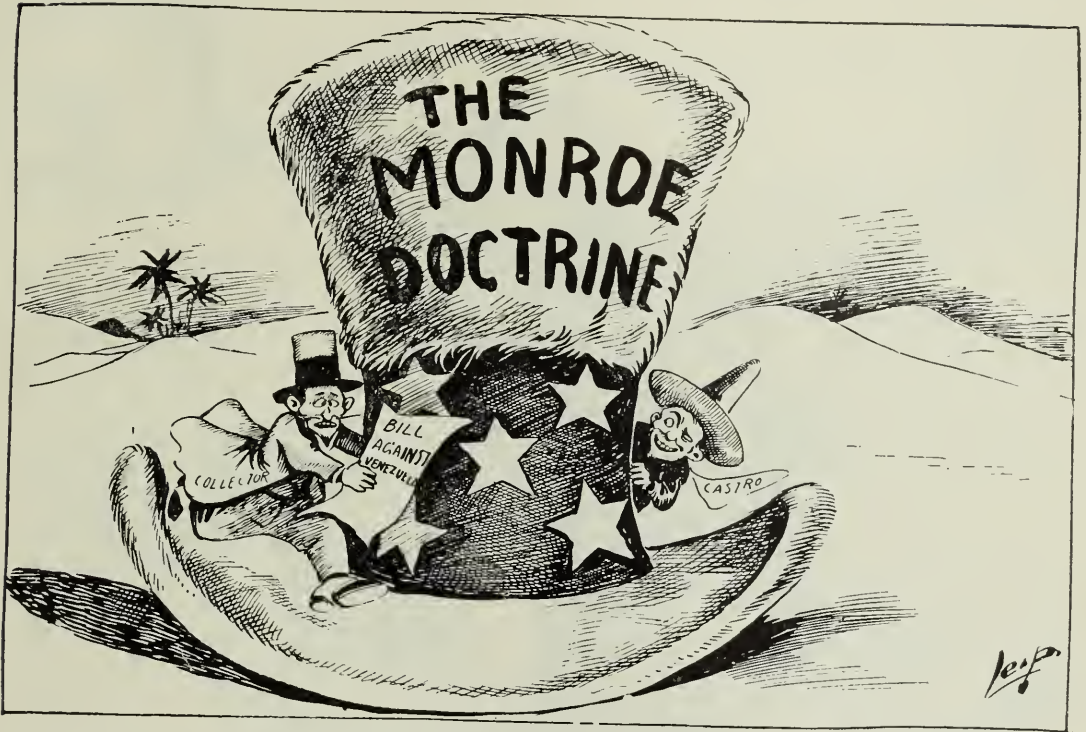
From the Brooklyn Eagle (New York).



DARK DAYS FOR BEARS OF ALL KINDS.

From the Evening Mail (New York).

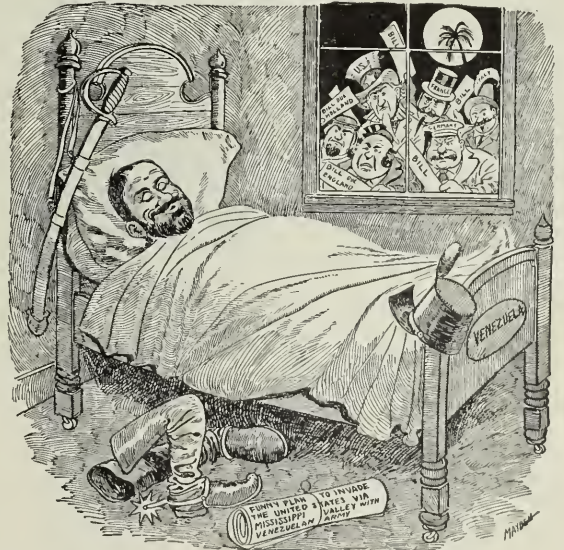
Whether representing the Russian Empire, roving the Western plains, or swallowing "lamb" in Wall Street.



THE COLLECTOR: "The 'Money-you-owe duck-trine' is what I would call it."—From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



"I WON'T DO A THING WHEN I GET IN THERE!"
From the *Herald* (Boston).



CASTRO LETS THE OTHER FELLOWS WORRY.
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

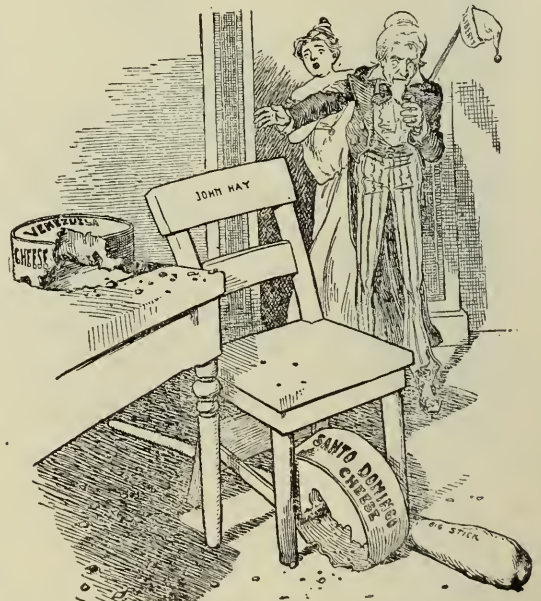
While Europe presses for settlement of her claims, Napoleon Castro dreams of conquering the United States by invading our southern seaboard.



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT (on his way to Texas): "Oh, things will be all right in Washington. I have left Taft sitting on the lid keeping down the Santo Domingo matter."—From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland).



BOTH SPOILING FOR A WHIPPING.
UNCLE SAM: "Really, I don't know which one of 'em I ought to spank first!"—From the Press (New York).



"WHEN THE CAT'S AWAY, THE MICE WILL PLAY."
From the Evening Telegram (New York).

THE NEW EXECUTIVE OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

THAT America is the land of opportunity and of rapid rise for those who are alert when fortune knocks at their gates is well shown in President Roosevelt's selection of Theodore Perry Shonts to be chairman of the Panama Canal Commission. Until his appointment to this most important post was announced, Mr. Shonts was unknown, even by name, to a great majority of his fellow-citizens. He had attained some prominence in the West as a manager of railways, but even in that field had not been operating with properties of the first magnitude. This argues nothing whatever against his ability or fitness. Indeed, everything that has been learned about Mr. Shonts since his appointment seems to justify the President's judgment in choosing him.

THE PRESIDENT'S SEARCH FOR EXECUTIVE TALENT.

Mr. Roosevelt had no little trouble in finding a man just to his liking for builder of the canal. He realized the heaviness of the task, and was not in a frame of mind to put up with second-rate talent. For several months the President had in mind getting a man of the very highest type of American executive ability—one who had established his worth and his reputation beyond all question. To such a man the President was willing to give, not only absolute authority, so that he might make of himself the Napoleon of the canal, but he more than once expressed the opinion that the American people would indorse the payment to such a man of a salary commensurate with the importance of the service he was asked to render. For such a man, if salary were an object, fifty, or even a hundred, thousand dollars a year would be quite proper. Thus grew up the notion that the President was looking for "the hundred-thousand-dollar man." He was looking for such a man.

He offered the post of chairman to at least three well-known Americans, accompanied by an intimation that the compensation should be made anything they liked within reason. The President did this on the theory that Americans are thoroughly imbued with the principle that men of the first rank in management of large enterprises are worth all they cost, and that it doesn't matter much what that cost is. The man—not the salary—is the thing. Two of the men to whom this offer was made were former Sec-

retary of War Elihu Root and Henry Clay Frick, formerly of Pittsburg, but now a resident of New York City. Mr. Root declined because his ambition lies in the field of the law, where it may be truthfully said he is now at the head of the New York bar, and probably earning a larger income than any other man of his profession in the country. Mr. Frick declined because he had made his fight in life, had accumulated, with a vast fortune, large responsibilities, and did not wish to embark in a new enterprise demanding an almost incalculable expenditure of energy.

A NEW PLAN OF ORGANIZATION.

Failing to find the hundred-thousand-dollar man his heart was set upon, the President turned his attention to securing two or three twenty-five-thousand-dollar men. This phrase is used as expressive of the change of plan of organization which occurred about this time, not in estimate of the worth of the men themselves. Instead of a Napoleon to carry the whole enterprise on his shoulders, the President now sought a division of responsibility and two or three men worthy and willing to take their share of the work. This division of responsibility naturally fell into three great departments: First, the executive, comprising the financial and office management,—the duties of chief of staff of the canal-building army; this was to be the work of the chairman of the commission. Second, the command of the actual army in its combat with the obstacles of nature; this belonged to the chief engineer. Third, management of the political aspects of the work, government of the canal zone, dealing with the natives and with all questions of local administration; this fell to the governor of the zone. These three men, the President decided, he would make an executive committee of the commission. These three men, indeed, were to be the actual controlling force, the constructors of the canal. Congress had compelled him to retain a commission of seven; very well, he would have such a commission, but he would centralize the power in the hands of three of them, responsible directly to himself. The other members could be given departmental duties of great value and usefulness. And for the all-important task of deciding upon the plan for the canal, upon the kind of canal that will

best serve the interests of the nation, Mr. Roosevelt wisely concluded to appoint a board of consulting engineers, composed, not only of eminent American professional men, but of foreign engineers of highest repute.

The second and third of this triumvirate the President easily settled upon. For field marshal, Chief Engineer Wallace was clearly the man. As chief engineer, he had done good work. He had taken hold in vigorous fashion. None of the shortcomings of the past year could be laid to his account. The President thought that Mr. Wallace had made a good start under rather discouraging circumstances, and that, if supported, he would make a good ending. For the political side he had no difficulty in selecting Judge Magoon, whose service in the War Department as right-hand man to Elihu Root and Secretary Taft had been of the highest order. He was the ideal man for the place.

A RAILROAD PRESIDENT FROM THE MIDDLE WEST.

But the first of the trio, the chairman and head of the whole organization, was a nut not so easily cracked. The President considered a number of men, most of them railroaders who had won reputations as managers of large properties. Finally, Secretary of the Navy Morton suggested Theodore P. Shonts. The President had never heard of Mr. Shonts. But there are thousands of clever and able Americans of whom few of us have ever heard. In a country like ours, lack of a broad reputation is no bar to preferment, if the man has the right stuff in him. Mr. Morton soon convinced the President that Mr. Shonts was full of the right stuff. Mr. Shonts was asked to come to Washington for a conference. The President liked him from the first moment. The thing he liked best was Mr. Shonts' opening statement, frank and manly, that he wouldn't touch the job unless he could have absolute authority—unless, in case of differences of opinion, his judgment was to be final as to any matter lying within his province.

Thus, this relatively unknown man rises at a leap from the presidency of a third-rate Western railroad to chiefship in the greatest engineering enterprise the world ever saw. It was quick work. And now it is Mr. Shonts' cue to make good the high expectations of the President and of his employers, the American people. His friends believe he will not disappoint. He has had the training. He started out as a railroad contractor in Iowa. There he gained experience in the management of men and in dealing with physical problems. Next, he was superintendent of the Indiana, Illinois & Iowa Railway. Afterward, he became its president. His

field was steadily broadening. He knew the practical side of railway work. Now he was brought in touch with railroad finances. He learned rapidly. He and his friend, Paul Morton, secured control of a majority of the stock of the railroad of which Mr. Shonts was president. Then they sold their holdings to the Vanderbilt interests, and realized a profit of something like seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars each. More than a year ago, Mr. Shonts became president of the Toledo, St. Louis & Western Railway, and it was this post he held when the President asked him to become chairman of the Canal Commission.

This is rapid rising in the world. Mr. Shonts is only fifty years old. He is in rugged health. He is not afraid to go to the Isthmus to do as much of his work as may be necessary there. He is a rich man. His income is said to be a hundred thousand a year from his railway investments; so he is "the hundred-thousand-dollar man," after all. He is frank and vigorous of manner,—the Western type. He talks freely. What he has to do, he does; and what he has to say, he says. Stories are told of his administering a sound thrashing to a man who called at his office to whip him and was surprised when the railroad president locked the door and started right in with the business in hand. The stories may be apocryphal, but they indicate the character of the man. He has vigor, he has grasp, he has that well-nigh indefinable American way of "making things go" which has been so well illustrated in the careers of our successful railway managers.

A FRIEND AND CLASSMATE OF CHIEF-ENGINEER WALLACE.

It is both an interesting and an important fact that the two men who are to work together,—in double harness, as it were,—as constructors of the canal, the chief of staff and the field marshal, are like Damon and Pythias. They have been lifelong chums. Born in Crawford County, Pennsylvania, fifty years ago. Mr. Shonts went West with his family. He graduated from Monmouth (Illinois) College in 1876. Among his classmates was John F. Wallace. Wallace's father was the president of the college. The friendship that started between the two youths at school has continued throughout their manhood. They speak of each other as "John" and "Teddy." Now the chums find themselves hitched to the same big wagon, and each realizes that he must pull for all he is worth. It is safe to say that they will work harmoniously and effectively together.

Mr. Shonts has two fully developed hob-



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MR. THEODORE P. SHONTS.

(Chairman of the Panama Canal Commission.)

bies,—music and work. The former he took up as a means of winning his wife, a musical enthusiast, and daughter of former Governor Drake, of Iowa. His love for work he inherited from his ancestry, which was Dutch on the paternal and French Huguenot on the maternal side. Like most great workers, he is cheerful,

optimistic, light-hearted, fond of his many friends, a good comrade,—knows how to play a little and to rest once in a while, but is dynamic and irresistible when it comes to practical achievement. His salary as chairman of the commission has been fixed at thirty thousand dollars a year.

A NOTABLE AUTOBIOGRAPHY.*

THE public services of the Hon. Andrew D. White, whose portrait appears on the opposite page, have been noted from time to time in earlier numbers of this REVIEW. Just before the assembling of the Hague Conference of 1899, in which Mr. White, as chairman of the American delegation, played so distinguished a part, this magazine published a sketch of his career, in its May number for that year, and in December, 1902, on the occasion of his resignation as ambassador to Germany, a detailed account of Mr. White's achievements, including his work at The Hague, appeared in these pages. We wish at this time to direct our readers' attention to Mr. White's "Autobiography," which has just been published by the Century Company,—not merely because of the inherent personal interest in this life-record of a great American, but because, apart from the question of individual achievement, this retrospect is full of valuable lessons to the generation now coming into the full responsibilities of American leadership.

The career that is here unfolded would have been unusual in any country; in the United States, it has been unparalleled. In the first place, Mr. White has pursued for more than forty years four or five distinct lines of activity and service. He has been brought into relations with as many distinct groups of fellow-workers, and he has retained an exceptional influence in all these relations. Now and then we say of a successful college president in this country that he would have made a capital politician or diplomat, but in the case of Andrew D. White no idle or half-regretful "might-have-beens" are needed to express our estimate. In all three fields,—politics, university administration, and diplomacy,—Mr. White has toiled and achieved. To the sum of his fruitful endeavor in these separate vineyards he has added solid and useful contributions to literature and historical science. Thus, his autobiography is a record of several careers, in a sense, and the very arrangement of the material is significant of this, for the portion devoted to "Political Life" is complete in itself, as is that which reviews the author's long and distinguished diplomatic service, while his university services are also separately treated.

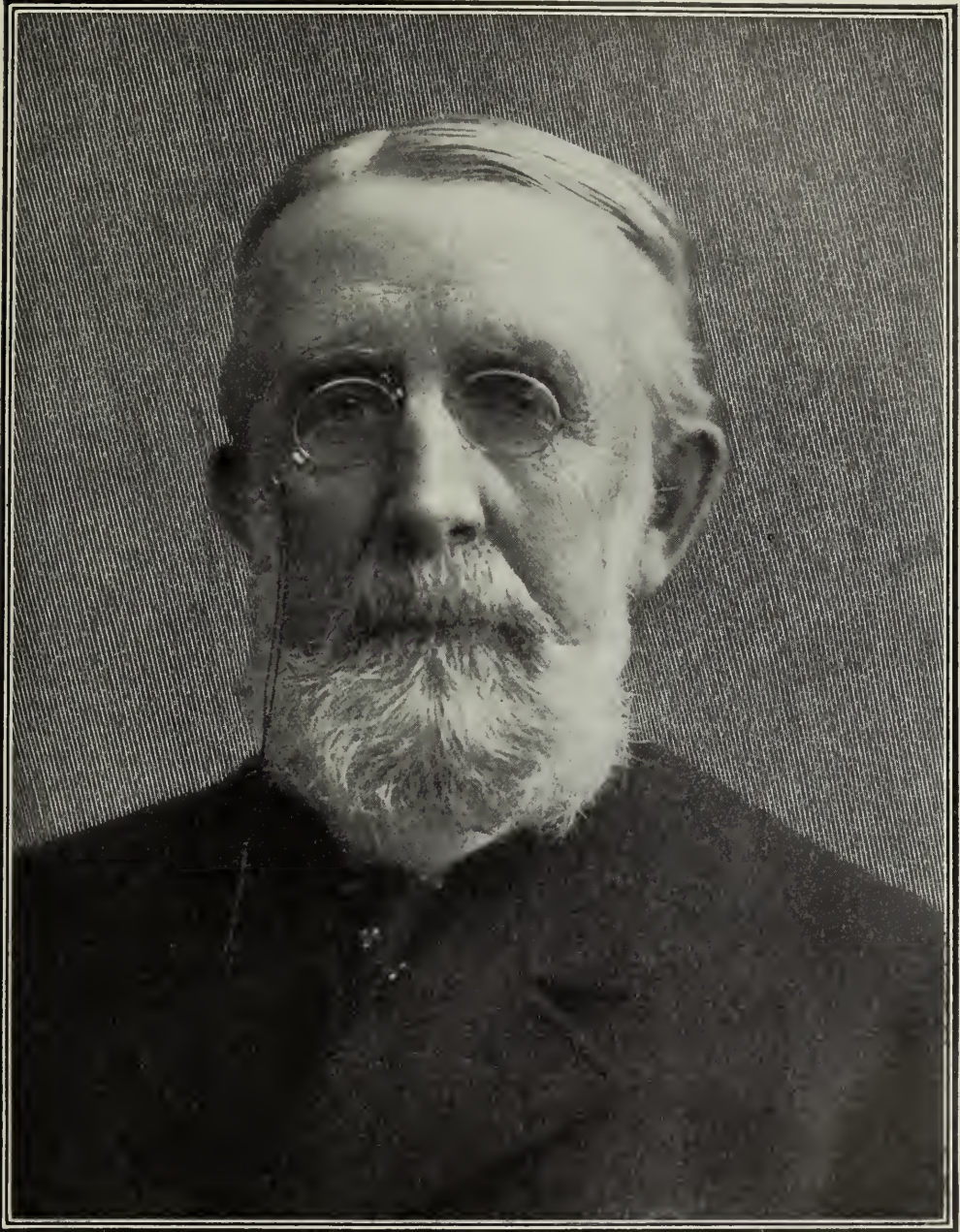
The chapters in which Mr. White relates his experiences in practical politics are among the

most readable in the book. As a young man he was interested in politics, particularly as an anti-slavery worker. Later, as a member of the New York Senate, he did much to advance the State's educational interests,—notably in conjunction with Ezra Cornell in obtaining a charter for Cornell University and in fixing the State's policy in relation to the Morrill land grant. His recollections of public men with whom he has been associated during the past forty years have a present pertinence, for while he has labored earnestly and effectively for improvement in our politics, he has always been a "practical politician" in the Rooseveltian sense; he has not been blinded to the good in our political life; his judgments on the whole have been wise, his estimates of men and measures just. Thus, his memoirs have a real historical value.

No living American has had a more brilliant record in the diplomatic service than Mr. White. He became an attaché at St. Petersburg in 1854, and served for two years in that capacity during the eventful period of the Crimean War; in 1871, he was appointed by President Grant as commissioner to Santo Domingo; in 1879, he was made minister to Germany and served through the remainder of the Hayes administration; in 1892, President Harrison appointed him minister to Russia, where he had begun his diplomatic service almost forty years before; he remained at that court two years, and in 1895 was made a member of President Cleveland's Venezuelan Commission. His most conspicuous service was the ambassadorship to Germany in the years 1897-1903. During that period he successfully conducted the affairs of the embassy throughout the trying months of the Spanish-American War and was president of the American delegation at the Hague Conference. In the extracts from his diary at that time we have the inside history of the efforts that led to the establishment of an international arbitration tribunal. The bare enumeration of these various and important diplomatic offices suggests the wealth of these memoirs in the materials of modern history.

Not less substantial is the contribution that Mr. White makes, through his autobiography, to the history of higher education in America. He has watched the whole development of the modern university on our soil. As a young professor in the University of Michigan he formed ideals which later took definite form in Cornell University, of which he was the first

* The Autobiography of Andrew D. White. Two volumes. Century Company.



Photographed especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Davis & Sanford, New York.

HON. ANDREW D. WHITE.

president. He was one of the pioneers in American university-building.

In the closing chapters of his autobiography the author of "The Warfare of Science with Theology" expounds his conception of religion.—"the bringing of humanity into normal rela-

tions with that 'Power, not ourselves, in the universe which makes for righteousness.'" Any fair or adequate review of his achievements must lead to the conclusion that this noble ideal has truly inspired the varied and useful activities that have filled the life of Andrew D. White.

CHICAGO'S VOTE FOR MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

BY AN IMPARTIAL OBSERVER.

A LOCAL election of national significance took place in Chicago on April 4. The editor of this REVIEW directed attention, in the April issue, to the canvass then in progress in the "Western metropolis" and the important issue which it presented to the voters concerned therein. Now that the citizens of Chicago have rendered their verdict, it is well to review the unusual campaign and set forth more fully the essential points of the political controversy between the Democratic candidate for mayor, Judge Edward F. Dunne, and the Republican candidate, John Maynard Harlan,—a controversy which, as intelligent readers are aware, the people of Chicago, on April 4, decided in favor of the former.

What was the issue? Not, as some suppose, "municipal ownership." Where there is general agreement there can be no issue. Chicago has been for several years a "municipal ownership city," so far as the sentiments and settled purpose of the great majority of the electorate are concerned. Certain "business interests" are doubtless still opposed, even in principle, to municipal ownership of the street-car systems (and, of course, other public utilities), and these interests are not without representation in the City Council. But our politicians are aware that on election day these interests neither make nor mar candidates, and no political organization ventures to "view with alarm" or "deprecate" the trend toward municipal ownership.

ALL PARTIES FOR MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

There were four municipal tickets in the field,—Republican, Democratic, Socialist, and Prohibitionist. Each of the four candidates for mayor was placed on a municipal-ownership platform, though the Republican plank left not a little to be desired and was a source of uneasiness, disappointment, and apprehension to Mr. Harlan's staunchest friends and sincerest supporters. Mr. Harlan was more radical than his party, but the managers of the Republican campaign had sufficient influence in the first stage of the canvass to prevent a forceful, definite, straightforward presentation, on the "stump," of Mr. Harlan's views and intentions. A number of his speeches were as vague and uncertain as the platform phrases that had been forced on him.

The Republican "traction" plank (and trac-

tion was the paramount, if not the sole, issue in the election) ran as follows:

It is the duty of the City Council and the mayor to formulate and present to the people a definite and comprehensive plan for the immediate rehabilitation and improvement of our street-railway service. This plan should contain ample provision for municipal ownership and operation when the city shall be legally and financially able successfully to adopt it.

This could not be satisfactory to those who had twice voted for municipal ownership at the earliest possible opportunity, and who had extorted from a reluctant, boss-controlled legislature a law (the so-called Mueller act) giving Chicago the right to acquire, own, and operate street cars, and authorizing the issue of bonds or special street-railway certificates for that purpose.

The Democratic platform, recognizing the "academic" referendums of 1902 and 1903, which resulted in overwhelming majorities in favor of municipal ownership, as morally binding, though they were held under a "public policy" act which merely enables voters to express abstract opinions, requiring no public body or official to give effect to such opinions when expressed, adopted a simple and unequivocal plank demanding and promising "immediate" steps toward municipal ownership.

The parts of the Democratic platform which concern us are here subjoined:

We hereby specifically demand:

1. That the City Council, by resolution, terminate all negotiations with the street-car companies for the extension of existing or the granting of new franchises.

2. In place of such negotiations, that the city government proceed at once to negotiate with the street-railroad companies for the purchase of their tangible property and their unexpired lawful franchises in the streets for a fair, liberal, and full price.

3. In the event of a failure to reach an agreement on the above terms within a reasonable time, the city government shall proceed without delay to acquire ownership of the property of the street railways, or, if deemed better by the city government, that it proceed in lieu thereof, or in connection therewith, to establish new street-car lines in place of those now operating. Should suits for condemnation or other legal proceedings be necessary, we are mindful of the fact that these proceedings may be expedited under the laws relating to eminent domain, which give such litigation precedence over all other civil business.

This programme appeared to favor the giving of immediate effect to the twice-issued popular

mandate, which, moreover, had been emphasized and reinforced by the referendum vote upon the acceptance by Chicago of the Mueller "enabling act." That act had been adopted by the voters of the city in April, 1904, by a majority of over five to one, the vote standing 153,223 in favor of and 30,279 against adoption.

PROPOSED SETTLEMENT WITH THE TRACTION COMPANIES.

Judge Dunne, in his speech of acceptance, as well as in all his subsequent speeches, charged Mr. Harlan with evasion. The promise, he declared, of municipal ownership when the city should be "legally and financially able successfully to adopt it" was empty and meaningless, and he demanded to know, at the outset, whether Mr. Harlan contemplated or proposed a "settlement" with the traction companies,—that is, a settlement involving an extension of their franchises *from the city* and a recognition of their alleged franchise from the State of Illinois, a franchise embodied in a "boodle" act passed forty years ago over an executive veto and in defiance and contempt of the people of Chicago. An influential committee of the City Council, the committee on local transportation. it should be stated, had embodied the terms of what it considered a perfectly fair "settlement" in a "tentative ordinance," and Mayor Harrison and the leading newspapers had approved and recommended that ordinance in the hope that the traction companies would accept it as a lesser evil than "war to the bitter end" with the city government and the public.

Now, Mr. Harlan was a "settlement candidate." He had been nominated as such; he was supported by the authors, sponsors, and advocates of the "tentative ordinance," and he honestly held, as did his real friends, that some such compromise or settlement as the proposed ordinance involved was not only expedient but right, and practically unavoidable.

In other words, while Mr. Harlan was a believer in municipal ownership and as radical as Judge Dunne in that respect, he also believed that, in the circumstances actually existing, with the companies in possession of the streets under franchises having several years to run, and further alleged franchises from the State that, if valid and real, will not expire until 1964, an amicable settlement doing away with costly and protracted and uncertain litigation, and procuring for Chicago a complete and comparatively early extinction of all outstanding rights or claims of the companies, improved service forthwith, and a reasonable amount of compensation in one form or another, was eminently desirable

and reasonable. And this is the sort of settlement Mr. Harlan favored. While he objected to the "tentative ordinance" on minor grounds, and advised the people to reject it, he indorsed the principle upon which it was based. He would have granted the companies a thirteen or fifteen year franchise in return for a complete and final surrender or waiver of all their claims and privileges and a first-class modern service plus pecuniary compensation.

This, however, was but half a programme. There was absolutely no reason to suppose that the traction companies would agree to terms that could be submitted to the people (and no settlement could be made without a referendum) with any hope of favorable action upon it. The companies had not evinced the least inclination to accept the "tentative ordinance." There had been a parade of "negotiations," but the Council had been unable to elicit a word of definite encouragement. In fact, there had been plain intimations to the contrary. Representatives of one of the companies (and the more conciliatory and tractable of them) had criticised the tentative ordinances as harsh and one-sided, wholly unjust to the traction interests, and in need of very material modification. Some had expressed the hope that more liberal terms would be offered by the city—more liberal, mark you, than the terms which Mr. Harlan and other leading citizens had declared too liberal already.

When, therefore, Mr. Harlan's platform and campaign speeches urged an amicable settlement on the "waiver" basis, the proposal was purely academic and hypothetical. It was necessary to propose an alternative programme,—a war programme, as it were—in the event of the not improbable failure of the peace programme. And this, as the campaign progressed, gradually emerged and practically supplanted the other.

Should the traction interests reject the city's terms, Mr. Harlan declared, he should, if elected mayor, proceed to construct a subway in the central, or downtown, district of the city, and to establish, gradually and slowly, a competing municipal system of street railways. The subways, desirable in any event, according to transportation experts, were a necessary part of a competing system, because the companies had possession of most of the "approaches" and streets entering the central section. As for the parallel lines, the expiration of the franchises of a minor company (one of those absorbed by the union traction interests, now supposed to be controlled by a J. P. Morgan syndicate) would permit an immediate beginning, the realization of municipal ownership on a modest scale.

OBJECTIONS TO THE HARLAN PROGRAMME.

Here we have the Harlan programme in its entirety. It was indorsed by some of the "veterans" of the municipal-ownership movement, but the majority of the recruits and the organizations for the promotion of that policy were opposed to it. Several objections were urged against the Harlan programme, but those which are conceded to have been most effective were these:

1. The litigation Mr. Harlan wished to avoid could not possibly be avoided. The companies might *pretend* to waive or surrender their claims in consideration of a new and short grant by the city, but they could not be trusted. They had forfeited all title to confidence by their methods and practices, which included jury-bribing, debauching of legislatures, corrupt deals with the lowest of the politicians, and so on. They might make a contract with the city wholly acceptable on its face, but at the end of the period some pretext would be found for attacking the fundamental condition of the settlement, and the fight would simply have been postponed, not avoided. Judge Murray F. Tuley, our leading chancellor, the Nestor of the bench, declared that the companies could not legally waive or compromise their claims in a way to commit the bondholders, and there would be nothing to prevent the latter from repudiating the settlement at the end of the period of the new franchise.

2. Even if a fair settlement, doing away with litigation, be legally possible, the city government had no moral right to make it, since the people had voted for immediate ownership "without delay," and their will was law. Mr. Harlan himself had, in 1899, said that the people had the right to decide when the policy of municipal ownership should be put into effect.

3. With regard to the constructive part of the programme, the subway and parallel system suggestions were pronounced to be vague, full of uncertainty, and unreal. The city had no money for subways, none for parallel lines, and none for "wasteful," warlike, or retaliatory enterprises. Two systems would mean, in most cases, two fares, delays, poor transfer facilities and inconvenience, whereas the people demand a unified service on the "one city, one fare" basis, and the best of accommodations.

These are the objections, the arguments, which defeated Mr. Harlan. Judge Dunne's "simpler" programme,—purchase or immediate condemnation proceedings,—carried the day. The election, in the words of a local newspaper which vigorously supported Harlan, was the triumph of the word "immediate." The people

had lost all patience with the traction companies, had conceived so profound a hatred and detestation for them, that the suggestion of another "compromise," a settlement with them on any terms, was repugnant to them. "They must be ousted at once, as soon as the law will allow it," was, in effect, the verdict at the polls against the companies. And no one in Chicago is in the least surprised at the verdict. The policy of the companies has been suicidal; they reap what they have sown.

THE REFERENDUM VOTE ON THE SETTLEMENT PLAN.

The full significance of this verdict cannot, however, be understood without a reference to the vote on the so-called "little ballot." Thanks to the efforts of municipal-ownership workers, three questions were submitted, under the public-policy act of the State, to the people of Chicago on April 4. They were as follows:

1. Shall the City Council pass the [tentative] ordinance reported by the local transportation committee, granting a franchise to the Chicago City Railway Company?

2. Shall the City Council pass *any* ordinance granting a franchise to the Chicago City Railway Company?

3. Shall the City Council pass any ordinance granting a franchise to *any* street-railroad company?

The newspaper which earnestly and ably supported Mr. Harlan had advised the voters to ignore these questions as confusing rather than helpful. Mr. Harlan himself, who had promised to sign no franchise ordinance and to effect no settlement without the approval of the majority given by a referendum vote, had, nevertheless, admitted that the answers to the above questions would not influence or guide him, and that even an overwhelming negative vote would not estop him from attempting to negotiate a settlement.

The vote on the first question was: "Yes," 60,136; "no," 136,140; majority against the tentative franchise ordinance, 76,000. On the second question, 57,000 voted "yes" and nearly 140,000 "no." On the third, 55,660 voted "yes," and 141,518 citizens voted "no." The majority against *any* franchise extension or renewal, against any settlement with the company not carrying an "immediate" evacuation, was nearly 86,000. *Not one ward* gave a majority in favor of the settlement plan, and while over a hundred thousand of those who voted at the election ignored the "little ballot" questions, it is by no means certain that it is the intelligent who failed to answer them. The presumption is rather that the ignorant did so. Certainly, the people who dis-

believe in municipal ownership and desire an extension of the companies' franchises might well have answered the third question in the affirmative, and the situation was such that there was every reason why, from their point of view, they should have felt it their duty to answer it so as to stem the tide of municipal ownership. There is no reason for believing that a full vote would have changed the relative strength of the two sides.

THE VOTERS PRONOUNCE FOR "PURCHASE OR CONDEMNATION."

Chicago, then, has voted decisively for immediate steps toward municipal ownership in accordance with the Dunne-Democratic programme—purchase or condemnation. Does this programme offer a short-cut to municipal ownership? Was the confidence of Judge Dunne, Judge Tuley, his chief sponsor,—the man who undoubtedly, by his appeals and warnings, brought about the nomination of his fellow-judge, and of the whole Dunne campaign organization,—warranted by the facts of the situation?

The Dunne platform was subjected to severe criticism in the course of the campaign. Judge Dunne was asked how much he would be willing to pay for the properties and assets, including unexpired franchises, of the companies. The physical property is not worth more than \$27,000,000, on a liberal estimate, but the aggregate of their stocks and bonds (watered and inflated, to be sure) was valued before the election at over \$100,000,000, and a Morgan syndicate recently organized owns a controlling interest, at least, in these properties. Would the owners dispose of these properties for a price materially less than the market value? If not, and if condemnation proceedings were resorted to, would a jury and the courts disregard the market value as indicated by the prices of the stocks and bonds of the companies?

Judge Dunne and his friends ridiculed the notion that \$100,000,000 or anything like that sum would have to be paid. The market value, they asserted, was based on the hope and expectation of another franchise; destroy that hope and the value must decline to a point not far removed from the value of the physical property of the companies. "The city would pay second-hand prices for second-hand property" was a refrain of the Dunne orators, and no jury would award the companies higher prices, knowing, as the jurors do, that markets are manipulated and artificially maintained, and that there is little relation between stock values and real values.

The voters accepted this view. They authorized "purchase or condemnation," expecting to

obtain the properties at a price they can afford to pay and would deem fair and reasonable. Any practical proposal under the Dunne plan must be referred to them; the "Mueller act" provides for such reference. The real question is,—will Judge Dunne be able to carry out his promises? He has promised a good deal, and "the law's delays" are notorious. The companies will not sell on his terms, and condemnation suits will have to be instituted. Difficult and novel questions will arise,—among them the *right* to condemn franchises of public-service corporations. The validity of the provision in the Mueller act for the issue of street-railway certificates with which (or with the proceeds of which) to pay for the properties is doubted, and only the State Supreme Court can resolve that doubt. Other questions will certainly be carried to the federal Supreme Court.

OBSTACLES TO "IMMEDIATE OWNERSHIP."

In short, the outcome of the enterprise to be embarked upon under Mayor Dunne's direction is exceedingly uncertain. It may eventually be necessary to revert to the discarded Harlan programme,—that is, the second half of it. In all human probability, there will be no further franchise dealings with the companies. So far as that phase is concerned, Chicago has spoken definitely and finally. We are witnessing the beginning of the end of private ownership (and, possibly, also of private operation) of public utilities in Chicago. The question of method is, in reality, still open, and, fortunately, there is nothing in Mayor Dunne's general position on traction to prevent him from adopting the Harlan alternative,—subways and a parallel system,—should his own plans prove defective and impracticable.

The whole country is wondering "what Mayor Dunne will do next." Let no one be misled by the word "immediate." The new mayor never promised the impossible. He knows he must reckon with the courts and with the traction companies, whose interests will be served by delay and by apparent failures on the part of the administration. He will consult legal and technical experts, and, after ascertaining the approximate value of the physical property and the unexpired franchises (or alleged franchises), will offer to purchase the same at that price. No one expects that an agreement will be reached as to the price. The next step, then, as stated above, will be a condemnation suit. Judge Tuley says that "condemnation proceedings will take about one and one-half years," as they have precedence over all other court business. He adds: "I do not see how the matter could

be carried to the United States Supreme Court, as it is purely local [involving State law and its interpretation], but if it is, it can be passed upon there in less than a year."

Clearly, in the latter event, Judge Dunne will have no opportunity to take a single further step toward his goal,—the goal of the people of Chicago. His term will come to an end in April, 1907, and on Judge Tuley's own showing the condemnation proceedings cannot be passed upon finally by the federal Supreme Court (if taken there) within this period. Of course, the people will be asked to give him another term, or to elect another advocate of municipal ownership.

EXPERIMENTAL CONTROL OF A SINGLE SYSTEM.

But it is important to bear in mind one practical consideration.—Judge Dunne will be in a position to give Chicago *immediate* municipal ownership (as distinguished from an immediate lawsuit) on a small scale. If the first step counts, Chicago will take the first step toward municipal ownership under Mayor Dunne within the next few months. There is a street-car system, now allied with and part of the hated Union Traction interests, called the Chicago Passenger Railway. It comprises some thirty-seven miles of track, and can be profitably operated. It connects populous sections of the West Side with the congested central section. The franchises of this company have expired (the traction lawyers insist that they have another year of life, but their construction of the ordinance which granted these franchises is so strained and unnatural that no one takes it seriously), and the ninety-nine-year act does not apply to them on any possible theory. There is, then, nothing in the way of municipal acquisition of this system. Even Mayor Harrison favored "experimental" municipal ownership of these lines, and if he waited till the last days of his fourth and last term to make a move in that direction, it was because of his lingering hope that a settlement with the companies might be arranged which would render the "experiment" inadvisable at this juncture. But before Judge Dunne was installed as mayor the City Council, at the instance of Carter H. Harrison, the retiring executive, had advertised for bids from capitalists, contractors, and financiers desirous of going into street-railway operations under a lease. Mayor Dunne intends to push this part of the general scheme.

OPERATION DISTINCT FROM OWNERSHIP.

All that Chicago contemplates now, even with reference to the Passenger Railway system, is municipal *ownership*. The question of municipal operation is distinct and separate, although the

Dunne-Democratic platform indorses the principle of municipal *operation* as well. Here is the plank covering that aspect of the problem:

After municipal ownership of traction facilities is acquired, the city government shall at once obtain the referendum vote of the people, which is already provided for by law, upon the question of municipal operation thereof, and promptly upon the rendering of an affirmative vote thereon, as required by law, proceed to complete all necessary arrangements for such operation, and we unqualifiedly believe in and indorse such municipal operation.

Why is "immediate" operation less strenuously urged? The explanation lies in the provisions of the Magna Charta of municipal ownership in Illinois, the so-called Mueller enabling act. The right of Chicago to own, acquire, construct, maintain, etc., street railways was conferred by that act, subject to adoption and ratification thereof by a majority of the voters. The right to operate was also conferred, but before the city can proceed to operate an acquired or constructed street railway she must refer the question to the voters, and obtain the approval of three-fifths of the electors voting upon the proposition. The theory of the Mueller act is that municipal ownership is less doubtful, as a "business proposition," than municipal operation, and there are more or less impartial observers who believe that the requisite three-fifths vote will not easily be secured by the radical advocates of municipalization.

THE MERIT SYSTEM IN CHICAGO.

Some misgivings have been expressed with regard to the possible effect of the "spoils system" on municipal operation. It is not generally known that Chicago has an excellent merit law applicable, thanks to Supreme Court decisions, to the entire municipal service. The law will extend, *ex proprio vigore*, to the employees of any municipally owned and operated transportation system. The Democratic plank on the civil service was satisfactory, and Judge Dunne has declared again and again that during his tenure the merit law shall be rigidly enforced. This pledge, to be sure, has been taken in a Pickwickian sense by the Democratic machine, but the honest supporters of Mayor Dunne think disappointment is in store for the spoilsmen.

Be this as it may, for the next several months legal questions, rather than technical or practical ones, will engage the attention of the mayor, the City Council (which will cordially cooperate with him, it is gratifying to state), and the thoughtful citizens of Chicago anxious to give effect as fast as possible to the deliberate and unmistakable mandate of the people.



STATE STREET, HARRISBURG, SHOWING SECTION OF PAVING AND PLANTING COMPLETED.

THREE YEARS IN HARRISBURG.

BY J. HORACE McFARLAND.

IN February, 1902, the citizens of the capital city of Pennsylvania adopted, by voting for the million-dollar loan required, a comprehensive scheme of municipal improvement. This scheme was remarkable, not so much for its extent as for its concrete character, as it had been developed after a novel examination of the city by experts upon water filtration, sewage, paving, and park problems. The various suggestions of the able engineers employed were presented to the voters by means of a notable and successful campaign of education, against the opposition of the selfish and ultra-conservative.

At the same election the character of the city government was totally changed by the election of Vance C. McCormick, a young man of wealth, energy, and high civic ideals, as mayor, against the opposition of the political machine. The one-term plan prevails in Pennsylvania, and the three years of Mayor McCormick's administration closed with the swearing in of his successor (elected on a pledge to continue the same administration) on April 3 of this year.

The story of the accomplishments of three years in this little city under an able, courageous, and interested head reads like a romance. The mayor believed that he was elected as the real administrative head of the city corporation, not as a mere executive figure-head, and he has

wrought his belief into continuously vigorous action, as contrasted with the far more usual passive morality.

Three years ago, Harrisburg was practically "wide open," but Mayor McCormick closed it promptly, within the law. A corrupt police force, collecting tribute through a corrupt chief for division with a corrupt mayor (and all this was brought out in an investigation instituted by Mayor McCormick, who forced restitution of fees illegally retained by his predecessor), was promptly and substantially reformed, and was turned over to Mayor Gross, elected in 1905, in a high state of efficiency.

Political appointees to the city departments were replaced by men selected for superior qualifications, and in at least one case, Mayor McCormick supplemented an insufficient salary from his private means in order to get a capable man.

Harrisburg had three years ago about four miles of paved streets, which had been carelessly put down at a high price, and were allowed to go uncleaned for the most part. During the three-year period nearly twenty miles of modern asphalt pavement has been laid, and by the institution of a proper competition and the elimination of the influence of a financially interested political boss, it has been obtained at prices 25 per cent. under those formerly paid. A competently

organized inspection bureau has seen to it that this paving is properly laid and the specifications adhered to. By frequent analyses and the obtained visits and advice of eminent paving engineers, the high standard of the work has been assured.

A "white-winged" corps of sweepers has brought the paved streets of Harrisburg into a



A SCENE ALONG THE RIVER FRONT IN HARRISBURG.

high state of cleanliness, not excelled anywhere. Remarkable as it may seem, this great improvement has been accomplished without material increase in the rate of taxation, although the mayor's insistence upon an honest assessment has added considerably to the city's valuation and revenue.

Meanwhile, and always with the vigorous attention and assistance of Mayor McCormick, the other improvement work has been proceeding. Under a conspicuously able Board of Public Works, a comprehensive scheme of water purification has been worked out, after tests of the Susquehanna water made hourly for six months without interruption. The clean, filtered water will be delivered to the citizens by August of this year. Coincidentally the same board (serving without pay) has constructed a great intercepting sewer as part of a comprehensive revision of the drainage system of the city, and has arranged, in conjunction with the park commissioners, to prevent certain disastrous floods, that

had from time immemorial distressed a considerable portion of the city, by creating a beautiful lake, to serve for the storage of flood waters as well as for the flushing out of the little stream which has been at once a danger from sewage contained at low water and from floods at high water.

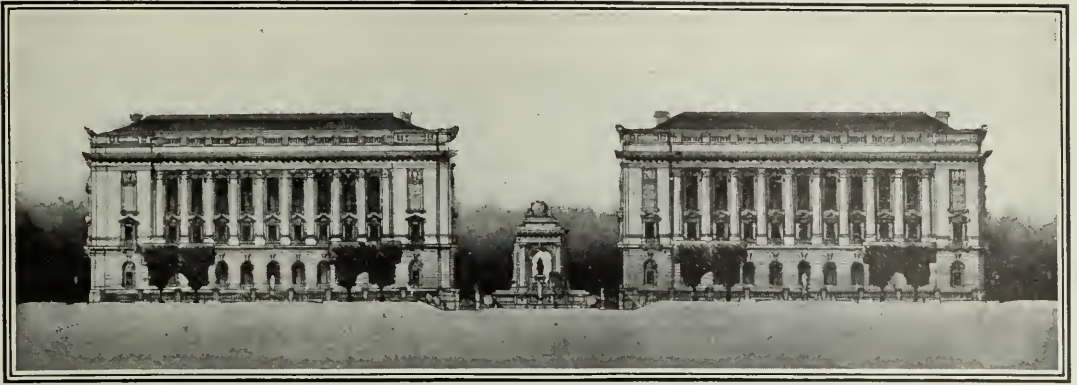
In the three years the park area of Harrisburg has been trebled, and now, by the acquirement of a great natural park site in conjunction with the improvement above alluded to, an area of over six hundred acres is added. This will give Harrisburg over twelve acres of park area to the thousand of population, which is considerably in favorable excess of the average of American cities. The park scheme has not neglected playgrounds, which are being added to the city's facilities for caring for its population.

To a very considerable extent, and as much as possible within the unsatisfactory charter conditions maintained in Pennsylvania by a boss-ridden legislature, the local laws have been coordinated and made harmonious. A system of building inspection has been instituted, and the efficiency of the engineering and the fire departments very greatly enhanced.

When Mayor McCormick assumed office, the local traction company was paying grudgingly into the city treasury but three-fourths of one per cent. tax on its gross receipts for the use of the streets, and constantly obtaining additional franchises without compensation. Through his fair and wise interposition it has been caused to increase this to 3 per cent. per annum, and for the use of a new subway under the Pennsylvania Railroad it has also paid a substantial sum.

As a parting gift to the city he has served with such intelligent devotion, Mayor McCormick and his family are having erected, upon carefully matured plans worked out through the coöperation of three eminent consulting engineers, a formal entrance to Harrisburg from its river front. A new and handsome bridge spans the mile-wide and magnificently scenic Susquehanna, along which the capital city of Pennsylvania extends for about five miles. At the entrance to this bridge there have been erected two columns taken from those used in the front of the beautiful old colonial capitol destroyed by fire in 1897, these historic columns standing upon suitable bases, and being surmounted by appropriate finials. A dignified historical entrance to the city is thus provided.

With the impetus thus given, made effective for three years largely through the recognition by one young man of wealth of his public duties, Pennsylvania's capital city is entering upon a period of rapid and solid development.



The Federal Building.

The Library Building.

SECTION THROUGH THE MALL, TAKEN EAST AND WEST, LOOKING SOUTH.

THE GROUPING OF PUBLIC BUILDINGS IN CLEVELAND.

BY EDWIN CHILDS BAXTER.

THIS is written to recount the steps by which one American city is progressing toward a high ideal of civic beauty and strength, and, by inference, to point the way for other cities that may strive to realize like ideals.

The following terse statement of a great opportunity which has been well seized by the city of Cleveland is the text of a resolution adopted in January, 1899 :

Whereas, By an exceptional and fortunate coincidence, several public structures are soon to be erected in Cleveland, thus giving this city an opportunity, such as has seldom come to any city and may never come to Cleveland again, to carry out a magnificent scheme of architectural unity ; therefore be it

Resolved, By the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, that the president be requested to appoint a committee of five to confer with the commissions and boards having in charge the erection of these buildings and ascertain whether or not it is feasible to erect them upon such sites and in such relationship to each other as to form one harmonious architectural plan, and to contribute to public utility and convenience.

Movements for the grouping of public buildings in accordance with harmonic plans are now in various stages of progress in at least eight of our large cities. Cleveland was the pioneer, and was followed by Washington, whose "civic awakening," dating from 1900, Mr. West reported in the *MARCH REVIEW*.

INADEQUATE HOUSING OF CITY AND FEDERAL OFFICES.

For many years the following conditions have impressed themselves upon the minds of Clevelanders, and of visitors to that city :

The county offices are principally contained in two buildings huddled together in a corner of the "public square" and remarkable for nothing that is good in exterior or interior appearance or facilities ; they are overshadowed, moreover, by tall office buildings. The city departments and officials occupy rented quarters entirely ; the City Hall, so called, is an old office building under lease, and the Board of Education rents offices in another quarter of the business section. The Public Library, formerly housed by courtesy in the Board of Education's old building (torn down some years ago), occupies a small brick building erected temporarily for it. The United States courts, customs offices, and post-office are using an old office building while the new government building is being erected. All these official headquarters are alike in two respects at least ;—they are notoriously inadequate in space, and they are lacking in beauty and in cleanliness. Furthermore, vast accumulations of invaluable public records, which could not be duplicated, are in daily danger of absolute destruction, for the City Hall and county court-houses are veritable fire-traps.

CLEVELAND'S RAPID GROWTH.

It must not be supposed that these conditions have been accepted with complacency by the citizens of Cleveland, nor that no plans were made before 1899 to remedy them. On the contrary, for many years there have been "sinking funds" for the erection of new public buildings. Commissions of leading citizens have been in charge of the funds, and have been preparing to

erect the buildings. A condition common to many American cities has hindered the working out of their plans, and has been responsible for the inadequacy of the building that has been done. This condition is the rapid growth of the city.

This growth was directly due to the discovery and development of the Lake Superior iron-ore region, for 60 per cent. of whose vast output the Cleveland district is the market. After the mine-owners, the shipping and shipbuilding interests are the first to profit by this trade: 80 per cent. of the shipping used in carrying the ore of all the mining region is owned in Cleveland; Cleveland produces a greater tonnage of steel steam vessels than any other port in America, Philadelphia not excepted. The district of which Cleveland is the center assembles iron and coal, authorities say, more cheaply than any other; to this fact are due many of the city's vast manufacturing industries, valued at more than \$100,000,000, and producing annually over \$150,000,000 worth of output, largely iron and steel products.

These are some of the reasons accounting for a population grown from less than 50,000 in 1860 to 450,000, probably, in 1905. Cleveland is now the first city of Ohio in number of inhabitants, and the second on the Great Lakes.

The circumstances of such a growth, as has been said, delayed and deterred the erection of public buildings. The city's future needs are

still difficult to forecast. It is well, however, that these delays occurred, for until 1895 no thought of grouping the proposed buildings harmoniously was suggested. In that year the Cleveland Architectural Club held a competition for "proposed arrangements of the public buildings in a comprehensive group." The plans of several architects were submitted, and the popular interest began to be awakened. In October, 1898, a communication was addressed to the commissioners of the City Hall sinking fund by the Cleveland chapter of the American Institute of Architects requesting the commission "to provide a spacious site for the new City Hall, and to make efforts to harmonize that building, the Public Library, and the County Court House in a group."

ADOPTION OF A GROUPING PLAN.

At this time, Col. Myron T. Herrick (now Governor of Ohio) was the chairman of a committee on public buildings of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce. No grouping plan had been considered by his committee or by the chamber until the meeting in January, 1899, when the resolution already quoted was adopted.

Since that time the movement has advanced surely, if slowly and with many vicissitudes. One plan after another has been considered and superseded by a better. The legality of commissions has been questioned and decided in the courts, and their personnel changed. The Cham-

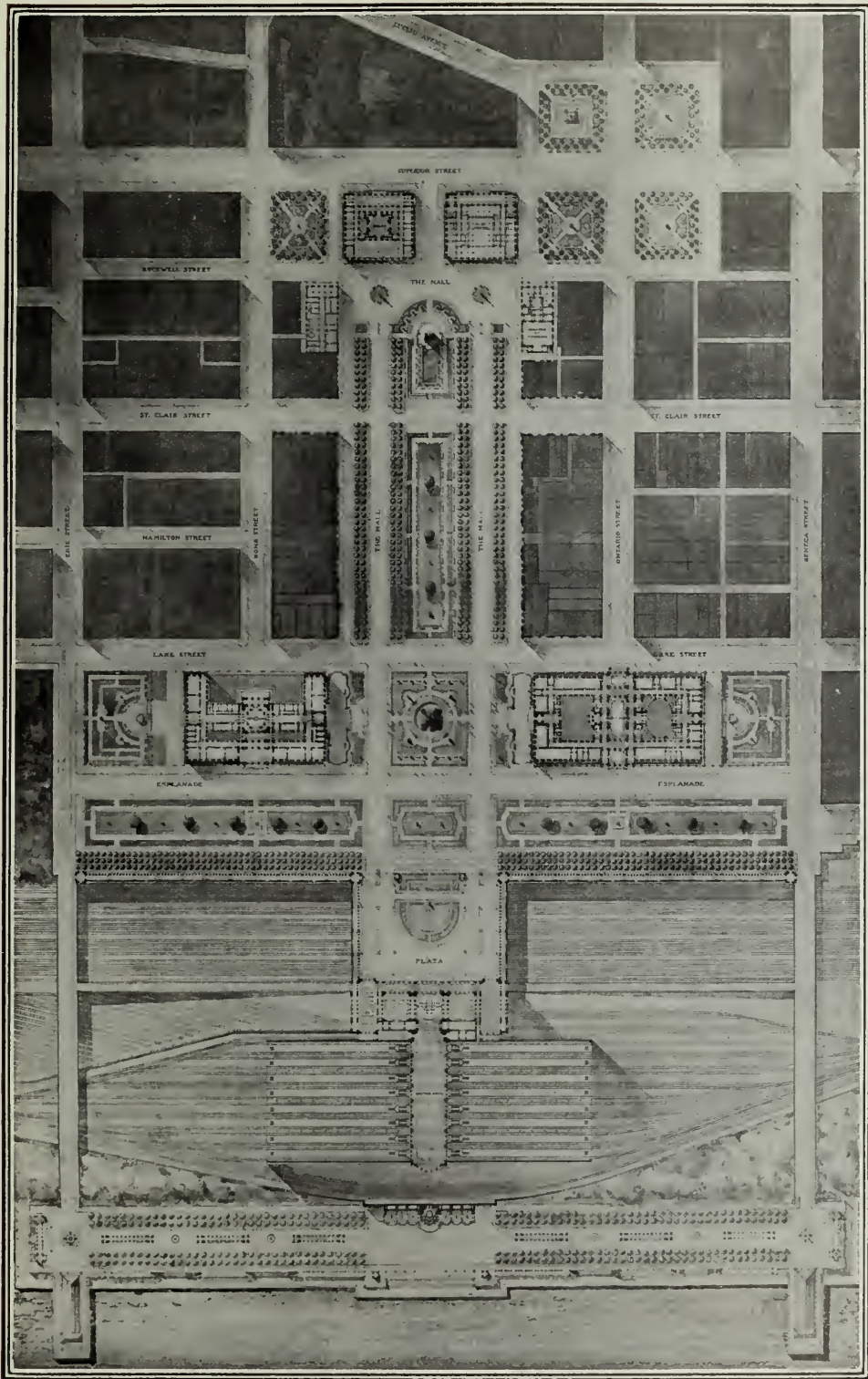
ber of Commerce committee then appointed has continued to act, two additions being later made to its number. In March, 1902, there was prepared under its direction a bill to create a board of supervision, and this bill was enacted into law by the State legislature. Under its provisions, the governor appointed Messrs. D. H. Burnham, John M. Carrère, and Arnold W. Brunner as such board. These gentlemen, whose reputation as architects is international, prepared and submitted, in August, 1903, a plan which seems destined to be carried out in detail.

FEATURES OF THE PROPOSED SCHEME.

Briefly stated, the plan is as follows: the four public buildings which are abso-



THE FEDERAL BUILDING.
(Arnold W. Brunner, architect.)



THE GROUP PLAN OF THE PUBLIC BUILDINGS OF THE CITY OF CLEVELAND.

(This sketch shows the proposed treatment of the surroundings and approaches, the parkways and pleasure grounds. From an imposing railroad station—on the left—to the Federal Building and library, symmetrically balancing each other—on the right—extends a mall, on either side of which a roadway is provided for traffic approaching the facing buildings. Two other avenues for general traffic are somewhat removed from the buildings and lined on either side by two rows of formal clipped trees, with a sidewalk on the outer edge and a gravel parking with seats and drinking fountains placed under the trees the full length of the mall.)

lute necessities,—Government Building, County Building, City Hall, and Public Library,—are to flank the ends of a mall which will form the main axis of the group, and will lead from the Lake Erie front to Superior Street, the main business thoroughfare.

The county and city buildings will front on a secondary axis, at a right angle to the main axis, near the lake.

The government building (now in course of erection) will be balanced by the Public Library, both fronting on Superior Street, and the space between these buildings will form the south entrance to the mall.

West of the government building site is the northeast section of the public square, which contains a geyser fountain, lawns, and a stone reviewing stand. This corner of the square is also fronted, on its adjacent side, by the Chamber of Commerce Building and the Society for Savings Building,—two dignified structures of a semi-public character. It is proposed to establish east of the library site a small park area which will balance the above-mentioned section of the public square.

At the north end of the mall, through a colonnade between the city and county buildings, will be the entrance to the proposed Union Station, which will then occupy the lake front.

The mall is, perhaps, the most effective feature of the scheme, as in Washington. For its center a sunken garden is planned, on either side of which roadways and paths will be laid out, separated by shade trees clipped in formal fashion. A monumental fountain and groups of statuary will eventually complete the picture. At every point of approach some distant feature of the scheme will terminate a magnificent vista.

It is a part of the plan that the city purchase not only the land necessary for the mall and approaches, but also all the property which will front on the mall. The greater part of this will not be required for public buildings, but is to be resold with restrictions in the deeds, providing for structures of a character to comport with the dignity of the public buildings, and to harmonize with the main theme of the composition. This project will provide sites for many semi-public structures, and it is hoped that a music hall may be the first of these.

CLEANING UP A SLUM SECTION.

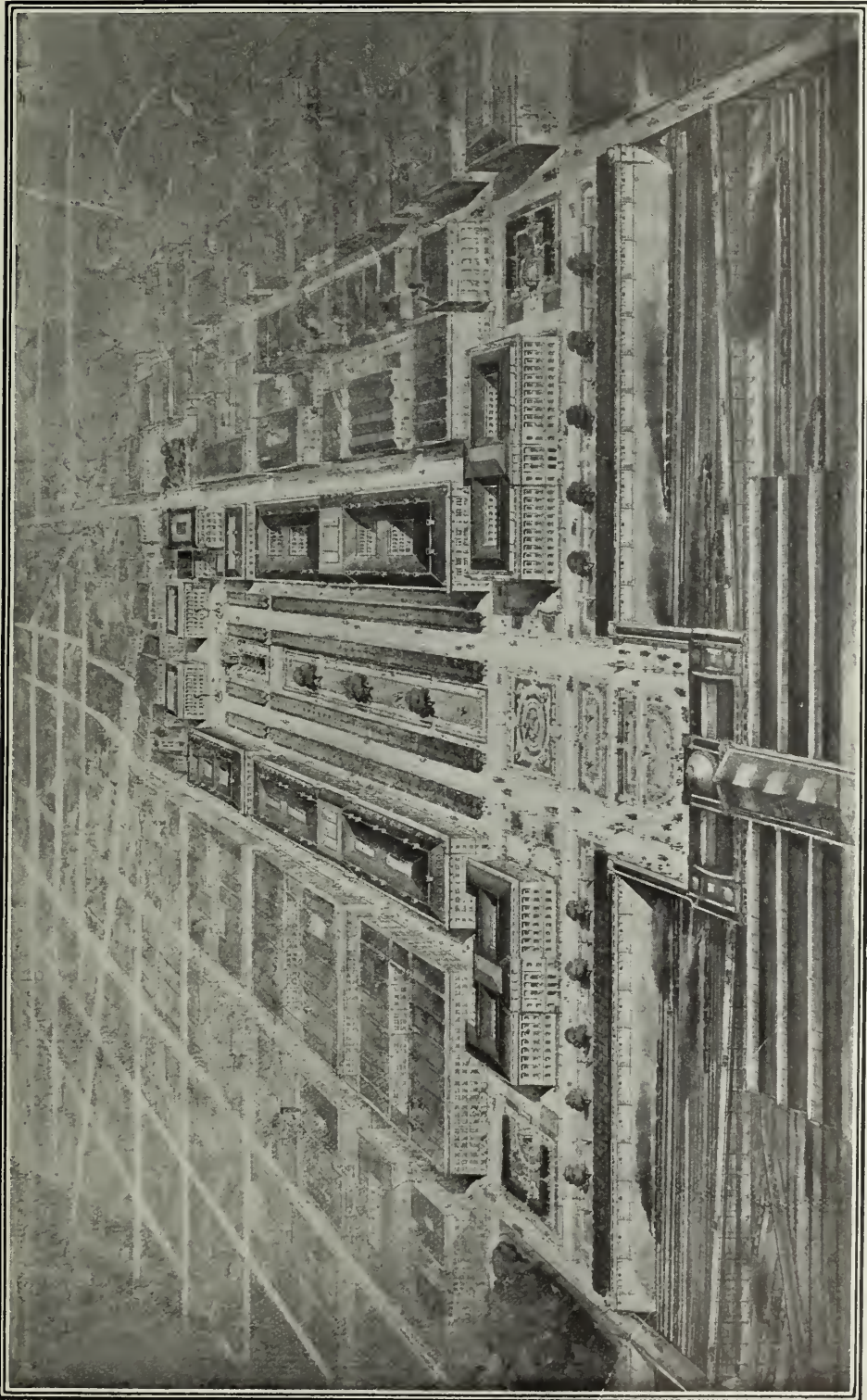
The future aspect of the district comprised in the boundaries of the plan will be in striking contrast to its present character. Part of the territory required is now occupied by small business and manufacturing plants, but a large part of it, near the lake, is used for questionable

purposes. Years ago many of the fine residences of the day were in this neighborhood; most of them are sold and rented to such tenants as the present conditions will attract. Single-story brick and frame store-fronts alternate with the old houses, and are usually occupied by low saloons. In short, valuable as the land is, it contains almost no buildings of considerable value, and the character of the buildings and the district serves to make it a black belt cutting off the lake front from the view and use of most Cleveland people. The ethical as well as the æsthetic value of the improvements is a strong point in their favor.

PRESENT STATUS OF THE MOVEMENT.

The unanimity with which the movement has been furthered is remarkable. From the moment when the Cleveland architects first suggested the scheme, public sentiment has steadily become more and more enthusiastic in its favor. Consider that the "group plan commission" (as the Board of Supervisors has generally come to be known) holds its commission from no body which has power to adopt such a plan,—in fact, that there is no single body so empowered. The consummation of the plan must come, if at all, by the consent and coöperation, even to minor details, of the State legislature, the city council, two building commissions (city and county), the Public Library Board, and the voters who will provide for the necessary bonds. These various representatives of the popular will, in so far as the opportunity has come to them, have each in turn expressed their unqualified approval and pledged their support. What has actually been accomplished to the present time is as follows:

The "United States Post-Office, Custom House, and Court House,"—an imposing granite structure, designed by Mr. Brunner,—is under way, the superstructure being already started. The authorized cost of this building is \$3,000,000. The land for the County Building is purchased and cleared away, and the preliminary plans of the architects of that building are approved by the county. About 90 per cent. of the site for the City Hall has been acquired, and the architect of that building selected by the city. An act of the Legislature, passed at the last session at the instance of the Chamber of Commerce committee (which has been since its appointment the motive power for the whole movement) authorizes the city to purchase land adjacent to the mall, to be sold later with restrictions. Two parcels of land have already been secured for the mall. The railroad companies unofficially favor the plan, and have announced that they are preparing plans for the Union Station, aptly



A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE PROPOSED BUILDINGS, LOOKING SOUTH.
(The railroad station and the city and county buildings appear in the foreground.)

termed by the supervisors "the vestibule of the city."

All that remains to be done to secure the ultimate perfection of the idea is the purchase of the rest of the land for the mall and provision for the library building. The city is already heavily bonded, and a little time will be necessary to work out the financial details. Years will, of course, be necessary for the completion of all the public works, which together make up Cleveland's goal in municipal aesthetics, but years are reasonable expenditures for any American city.

Centuries have been required in the capitals of the old world for developments which Cleveland may rival in years, or decades at most.

THE CITY'S INVESTMENT.

The cost of the plan to the city, including sums already expended and careful estimates of future expenditures, is as follows: land for buildings, \$1,603,325; land for mall and esplanade, \$2,475,000; land to be resold, \$2,875,000; buildings, \$6,000,000; improving mall and esplanade, \$899,780. This makes the total cost \$13,853,105, exclusive of the government building and Union Station.

When analyzed, however, the cost of the group plan, as such, resolves itself into the cost of buying and improving the land for the mall and esplanade. The buildings would have to be erected in any event; the need for them, as we have seen, is imperative. The land bought to be resold will certainly command at least as good a figure, and probably a better one, than its cost.

So the city of Cleveland will have acquired for itself a parkway combining many distinctive features of the famous Unter den Linden and the Champs Elysées, and rivaling these and other famous esplanades of Europe, at a cost of less than three and one-half millions, while the surrounding architectural effect will compare favorably with any in the world. For in such

a grouping the chief value does not consist in the splendor of the individual units which make up the scheme, but rather in the relation of each component part to the whole, the dignifying proportion, and the perspective which multiplies the effect of each feature.

In making this investment the city will have acted with a foresight justified by its own experience. A dozen years ago, Cleveland could claim less than one hundred acres of parks. Under a commission of leading citizens, about \$3,000,000 was expended in the purchase and improvement of land. Now Cleveland boasts over 1,500 acres of beautiful parks, containing 47 acres of lakes and ponds, and threaded by 30 miles of splendid driveways and a corresponding length of graveled paths. The worth of these parks and parkways as influences for good and as instruments for education is, of course, incalculable, but in actual figures the land they contain is estimated to be worth \$19,000,000.

THE REAL VALUE OF SUCH IMPROVEMENTS.

The worth of the completed group to the community will be correspondingly great, expressed in concrete terms, and correspondingly incalculable in subtle influence. Dignity, beauty, and strength in the outward and visible forms of government cannot but inspire inward and spiritual respect—self-respect in a government by the people.

Urban life, economists and sociologists tell us, is the chief part and problem of the life of to-day and of to-morrow. The awakened public conscience, of which we read and hear and talk so much to-day, is discovering many features of American urban life that are bad. Organized efforts are being made to better most of these conditions for to-morrow. It is a hopeful sign; and none of these efforts, we think, is more hopeful or more significant than the one here typified in Cleveland.



PROJECTED FOUNTAIN AT NORTH OF MALL, BETWEEN COURT HOUSE AND CITY HALL.



ONE OF PHILADELPHIA'S VACANT-LOT GARDENS.

FARMING VACANT CITY LOTS.

BY ALLAN SUTHERLAND.

[One purpose of Mr. H. Rider Haggard's visit to the United States, this spring, was a commission from the British Government to investigate and report on the character of the vacant-lot garden work of Philadelphia, which is described in the following article. The subject of school gardens in great cities was treated by Miss Helen Christine Bennett in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for April, 1904 (page 439).]

IN the great business depression of 1893-94, the deplorable condition of many unemployed men and their families demanded the most thoughtful consideration on the part of philanthropists. The ordinary methods of relief proved altogether inadequate to meet the greatly increased suffering. It is doubtful, indeed, whether the "ordinary" means are, as a rule, ever truly helpful, for the real aim of charity should be directed along the line of placing "the submerged tenth" in a position where they may earn a livelihood by their own efforts; all other plans too frequently become nurseries of parasitism, enfeebling the fiber of character and manhood and increasing pauperism.

Many schemes were suggested at the time to meet the growing needs of the people, the happiest and most fruitful in good results being that proposed by the then mayor of Detroit, the Hon. Hazen S. Pingree, which became popularly known as "Pingree's Potato Patch Scheme."

His plan, in brief, was to loan the vacant land in and about the city to the unemployed people to cultivate, giving them all that they could produce. The suggestion was a novel one, and many thought it visionary; but being put to a practical test, resulted in many pleasant surprises. Landowners were quick to place vacant lots at the disposal of the city authorities, and the needy were no less willing to enter upon their cultivation. Out of a thousand families then receiving aid from the city and from charitable organizations, more than nine hundred availed themselves of this avenue of relief. The municipal committee having charge of the experiment expended \$3,600 on seed, implements, and other necessities. A conservative estimate placed the value of the first season's produce, which consisted chiefly of potatoes, at \$15,000. This unexpected result clearly demonstrated the value of the plan. In his annual message to the City Council, in January, 1895, the mayor thus referred to it:

It seems to me that the experiment has demonstrated.—first, that at least 95 per cent. of the people who are in destitute circumstances as a result of the hard times are ready, willing, and anxious to work; second, that a large number of these people can be supported by utilizing vacant lands on the outskirts of the city; third, that a very small space of ground is sufficient to raise enough vegetables to support a family through the winter; fourth, that a majority of our citizens who own vacant land would much rather allow it to be cultivated by the poor than to pay a large tax for their support; and, fifth, that the needy are, therefore, assisted without creating the demoralization in the habits of the people that gratuitous aid always entails.

The following year the results were even more gratifying, and other cities were quick to adopt a plan which had in it so much promise of usefulness. The return of general prosperity, however, soon lessened the interest and the need, and also the number of workers; in many places the work ceased to be vigorously prosecuted, while in others it was altogether abandoned.

THE WORK IN PHILADELPHIA.

In no city has the plan been so systematically and so helpfully introduced as in Philadelphia. Under the supervision of Mr. R. F. Powell, a clear-brained, enthusiastic lover of nature and humanity, essential qualifications in such work, the enterprise has gone steadily forward to ever-

enlarging usefulness, and has shown that there is always a large number of worthy poor who need, and who will gladly avail themselves of, this opportunity of self-support. Mr. Powell and those associated with him believe that it is infinitely wiser to give a man a chance to earn his living than to support him by charity; that soup-houses and wayfarers' lodges are no solution of the great problem of dealing with the poor; that bread-eaters should, so far as practicable, be bread-winners, and that men should live by their own and not by the labors of others.

Some twenty-seven acres were secured in 1897, and were divided into gardens 76 by 100 feet. The ground was loaned on condition that it should be returned, if necessary, to the owner on ten days' notice. Fortunately, no such notices were given. Many applications were received for allotments—far more than could be granted, on account of lack of ground. Each gardener was provided with implements and seed, and was given instructions by the superintendent as to how the one should be used and the other planted and cared for. The following regulations were adopted:

1. Each person receiving land is required to cultivate it thoroughly throughout the season, as directed by the superintendent.
2. Each planter must keep an accurate account of all



WOMEN AND CHILDREN AT WORK PLANTING IN THEIR GARDENS.



BOYS AT WORK IN ONE OF THE SCHOOL GARDENS IN ABOUT THE MOST CLOSELY BUILT-UP SECTIONS OF THE CITY.

(Each plot is marked off by a numbered stake, corresponding to the number on the tag which each gardener wears.)

the time spent by himself and others in cultivating his garden.

3. An accurate account must be kept of the quantity and value of all produce sold, used, or given away.

4. Failure to comply with these regulations, or to follow the instructions of the superintendent, may cause forfeiture of the allotted land.

For a number of reasons, more than 15 per cent. of the gardens were forfeited during the first summer. It was feared that stealing would prove a serious difficulty, as many of the Lilliputian farms were located where such a temptation would be strong; but little trouble, however, was experienced in that direction, as the gardeners arranged a cooperative plan by which the crops were protected.

The amount expended by the association the first year was \$1,825. Ninety-six families were aided, and vegetables valued at \$6,000 were raised. Thus, for every dollar invested more than three dollars resulted.

Mr. Powell thus speaks of the work:

Each gardener was required to cultivate his garden according to one general plan. One-half was planted in potatoes; the other, in beans, peas, cabbage, tomatoes, carrots, turnips, onions, lettuce, radishes, etc. Each

worker was given the widest possible latitude as to what he should plant, but was required to make beds across his garden the same width and on the same plan as his neighbors. One intelligent farmer would make a good teacher for many others; those who did not know how, and there were many, would watch those who did, and would then put what they learned into immediate practice. . . . The incalculable benefit of fresh air and moderate exercise to the physical and moral health of every one is well known. Men have come to these gardens in the spring who had become poor partly or wholly through drink, and by the end of the season have left us sober and industrious citizens. What made the change? Instead of hanging around, they have found pleasant and profitable employment wherein they were their own master. Parents bring little ones along to help weed and pick vegetables. Through the healthfulness of the work, which is in no sense toil, the pale, hollow-cheeked little ones become ruddy, bright-eyed, laughing joys, filled with vigor and happiness before the season is over. "The country week" becomes a "summer's outing," while the playground becomes also a workshop. To compare this natural relief with other ways of helping the unemployed may be rather odious, especially to city governments that are spending millions of poor funds every year while poverty and squalor are growing deeper and wider every day. For each dollar contributed to vacant lots' cultivation in 1903 the beneficiaries for whom it was spent had, by adding to it their own labor, which



STRAIGHT ROWS OF VEGETABLES, WELL WEDED.

(Showing shanty in the background, used for the storing of tools, and vegetables.)

otherwise would have been forever wasted, fully eight dollars' worth of produce. For each dollar paid in poor rates to a city the beneficiaries seldom get over fifty cents of actual aid. This is of vast importance to taxpayers and city officials charged with municipal responsibility, as well as to philanthropists. Some may be rather skeptical as to the statements made, especially in regard to the large returns for the small expenditures. It should be considered that our market is next door to the gardens and that the gardener does his own marketing. His produce is fresh and of the highest quality, and he gets the highest retail price. He gets his fertilizers for next to nothing, as there are thousands of tons of good manure and street sweepings annually thrown on the city dumps, which can be had merely for the asking.

According to last year's report, the total cost of the work of the association was \$5,000; the number of persons affected, 3,581; and the value of the produce, \$50,000. The number of acres increased from 27 in 1897 to 196 in 1904; the number of gardens from 100 to 756; the total product from \$6,000 to \$50,000; while the cost of cultivation per garden was decreased from \$18.25 to \$6.16. There were only three forfeitures during the year on account of neglect and trespass.

IN CONNECTION WITH SCHOOLS AND RAILROADS.

A comparatively new and interesting extension of the work is its introduction into public schools, where it was a prominent success from the start. Already the day of experiment is past,—nature-study and gardening are becoming important factors in educational circles, and an effort is being made to bring them within reach of every child. Boys and girls are becoming more and more interested in this attractive work, which takes them out of themselves, out-of-doors, and into closer and more sympathetic relations with one another. The purpose, primarily, is to teach children how to plant and grow flowers and vegetables by permitting them to do the actual work, so that they may have such practical knowledge of farming as to be able to make a living from it should the need and opportunity come. In addition, they get instruction and exercise which help them morally, mentally, and physically. Each child is given its own garden—about nine by twelve feet—on the conditions that the holder must work faithfully and must not trespass upon others. It is an inspiring sight to see these little ones cultivating the ground that it may bring forth a beautiful flower or a useful vegetable, and, above all, to realize that they are privileged to breathe fresh air and to look up to nature's God through long hours of glorious and health giving sunshine. The hope is indulged that this cultivation of the soil by the children will instill into their hearts



VIEW OF ONE OF THE VACANT-LOT GARDENS, SHOWING SOME OF THE RESULTS OF A SUCCESSFUL PLANTING.

such a love of outdoor life that many will turn their feet countryward and seek a living upon farms rather than remain in the city to find employment in the already overcrowded offices, shops, and factories.

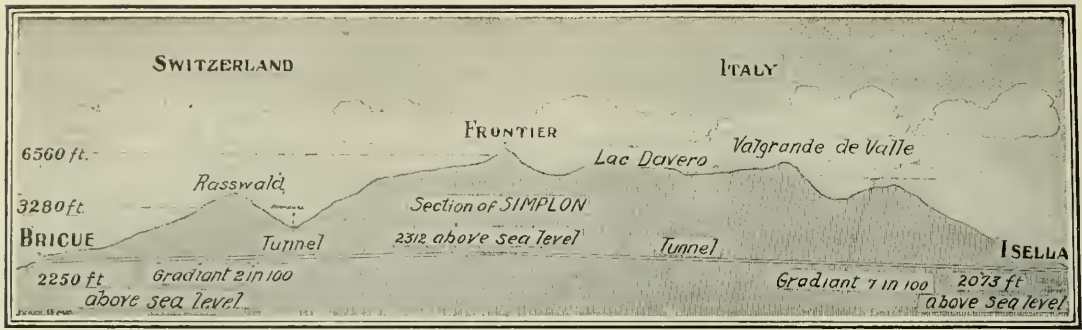
The excellent results which have followed the general work in Philadelphia have excited interest at home and abroad. In 1899, a director of the association gave a lecture in Paris on the work, and distributed copies of the annual report of that year. A benevolent woman became impressed with the value of the plan. She procured some vacant land and said to those who applied to her for aid, "Here is a chance to work; what you produce shall be your own." Many availed themselves of the privilege and prospered beyond their highest expectations. The idea spread and was widely adopted; even the railroad companies of France recognized its value and began putting it into practical operation by granting to their employees the use of vacant strips of land here and there. The Nord (Northern Railway) has already made 3,000 allotments; l'Est (the Eastern), 3,620; the Midi

(Southern), 2,600 to its trainmen and trackmen and 650 to its station agents and clerks.—these 3,250 allotments represent an area of 450 acres. The Orleans Railway has set apart plots for 6,000 of its employees. An earnest effort is being made by Mr. Powell to have the plan adopted by the railroads of this country. He has just succeeded in having it introduced on a comparatively large scale by the Pennsylvania Railroad, and he is sure that the idea will spread.

Many and interesting are the stories told by Mr. Powell of the results which have already followed the work,—of health restored, of independence gained, of heroic struggles to help others, of drunkards redeemed, of a slow but steady movement to enjoy the larger freedom of the country, of a growing discontent with present surroundings, and of a wise impulse to follow that which is truest and best in life. The Vacant Lots' Cultivation Association of Philadelphia is entering upon the present season hopefully, and with the consciousness that it has a far-reaching and ever-widening mission of usefulness.



THE SUPERINTENDENT SHOWING CHILDREN HOW TO PLANT FLOWER SEEDS.
(One of the first school gardens in Philadelphia, at the Church Home for Children.)



A SECTIONAL VIEW OF THE REGION, SHOWING WHERE THE SIMPLON TUNNEL PIERCES THE RANGE OF MOUNTAINS BETWEEN ITALY AND SWITZERLAND.

UNDER THE ALPS FOR TWELVE MILES.

WITH the explosion of a small dynamite cartridge, on the morning of February 24, seven thousand feet below the summit of Monte Leone, one of the peaks of the Alps, many thousands of gallons of water from a hot spring in Switzerland flowed into Italy, and the famous Simplon tunnel had been completed.

This longest railway tunnel in the world was begun in the summer of 1898. Its importance

had been pointed out half a century ago, but nothing of a practical nature had been done until 1893, when plans were first considered and a provisional contract for the construction was made with the firm of the late Alfred Brandt, the famous engineer of the St. Gothard tunnel. An international commission, consisting of representative engineers from Switzerland, Italy, Austria, and Great Britain, devoted several months of 1894 to a complete study of the plans and proposals, and in July of that year, the governments of Switzerland and Italy entered into a treaty authorizing the construction of the tunnel, and agreed to share the expense, which has totaled fifteen million dollars.

This tunnel,—or, rather, two tunnels at a distance of fifty feet apart,—extends from the Swiss town of Brigue to the Italian town of Iselle, a distance of $12\frac{1}{4}$ miles. The two tunnels are connected by cross passages at intervals. The whole of both bores will, when completed, be lined throughout with heavy masonry, and train service will be in working order, it is hoped, early this summer.

Many engineering difficulties had to be overcome. A very hard formation of rock was encountered at the outset on the Italian side, which rendered necessary the construction of special machinery for boring. Two miles beyond this powerful cold springs were met with, from which poured more than five hundred gallons of water per minute, causing several weeks' suspension of work on the Italian side. Then a soft stratum of rock was encountered, requiring very careful shoring. Last September hot water began to pour into the tunnel, causing a rise of temperature to 131° Fahr., and necessitating a suspension of work for several months. Geological experts had claimed that what is known as the rock temperature, at a distance of seven thousand feet below



THE ENGINEER-IN-CHIEF OF THE SIMPLON TUNNEL AND HIS FIRST LIEUTENANT IN WORKADAY DRESS.

(Baron Hugo von Kager, the one on the right, controls the fortunes of the tunnel from the Swiss side of the range.)

the surface, would render successful work impossible. At times the heat was almost insufferable. But all these difficulties were met and overcome by the patience and genius of the engineering corps, headed by Baron Hugo von Kager, who has had control of the work from the Swiss side. On the Italian side, Mr. Conrad Pressel was in charge, with Signor Bacilieri as his chief engineer. The work was done by a set of splendid drills, which bored eighteen feet per day of twenty-four hours, the work being continuous, day and night, and no man dropping his tools until his successor had actually stepped into his place.



METHOD OF TRANSPORTATION OVER THE SIMPLON RANGE BEFORE THE BUILDING OF THE TUNNEL.

One of the remarkable features of the work

has been the standard of health maintained among the three thousand men employed. Arrangements for their comfort and health, for



WHERE THE TUNNEL ENTERS THE SIMPLON RANGE ON THE SWISS SIDE.

(The tunnel enters the mountain in the Rhône valley, near Brigue. Some of the numerous offices, workshops, hospitals, and dwelling-houses necessitated by the tunnel works are shown in the foreground.)

protection from sudden changes of temperature, for changing and drying their clothes, and for substantial food were made. The ventilation was excellent. New towns and villages sprang up. Aladdin-like, in the surrounding villages for the accommodation of engineers and workmen. Special boring tools were used to make the holes for the liquid air or dynamite blasting cartridges. The work consisted of three continuous operations: (1) boring, (2) blasting, and (3) clearing away the rock fragments.

It will be interesting to note the comparative length of this tunnel, with its $12\frac{1}{4}$ miles' extent. The next longest tunnel in the world is the St. Gothard, $9\frac{1}{4}$ miles, and the third longest is the Mont Cenis, also in Switzerland, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles. After this comes the Baltimore & Ohio tunnel, at Baltimore, which is 7 miles long. The meeting of

the two boring parties, Swiss and Italian, was signaled throughout Switzerland by the ringing of church bells and the salutes of cannon. President Ruchet sent messages of congratulation to King Victor Emmanuel, expressing the hope that this great work would strengthen the friendship between Italy and Switzerland and add to the prosperity of both. The benefits will extend to the rest of the Continent and to Great Britain.

When the tunnel is entirely completed and the Jura-Simplon Railway sends its finely lighted vestibule trains through on their way from Calais to Milan, England and Italy will be almost twenty-four hours nearer each other than before. Instead of painfully climbing through the snowy passes of the Alps, the future Hannibal or Napoleon will take his invading army into Italy in a train *de luxe*.

THE FIRST TURBINE LINER TO CROSS THE ATLANTIC.

THE first turbine Atlantic liner, the steamship *Victorian*, built at Belfast, in the yards of Messrs. Workman, Clark & Co., has recently completed her maiden voyage, from Liverpool to Montreal.

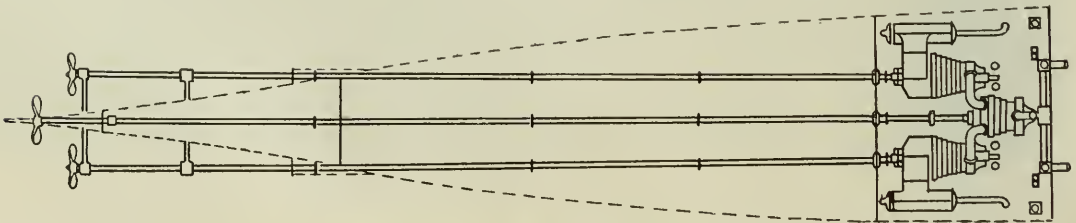
This new 12,000-tonner is a striking contrast to the ordinary straight-sided ocean steamer of to-day. Her lines fore and aft are sharp and clean, swelling gracefully into a noble breadth amidships, which suggests high qualities of steadiness and stability, as well as capacity for speed, which could hardly be excelled.

What makes the *Victorian* so interesting an object to the shipping world just now is her position as the pioneer of a departure which may revolutionize the character of the ocean liner from a shipbuilder's and passenger's standpoint in as great a degree as did the departure which introduced the twin-screw and the 500-footer.

One high-pressure and two low-pressure Parsons turbines will drive the three propellers of

the ship, which, by the way, strike one as being unusually small to drive a monster possessing a cargo capacity of more than 8,000 tons, besides accommodation and equipment for upward of 1,300 passengers. The propellers, however, revolve at a very high speed—from 270 to 300 revolutions per minute. The central one, arranged as in a single-screw vessel, is worked by the high-pressure turbine; the others, which are arranged as in a twin-screw ship, by the low-pressure turbines. The two latter have each a reversing arrangement which enables them to be driven full speed astern, either together or independently. Thus, the ship will be as easily and effectively maneuvered as regards turning or backing as an ordinary twin-screw. This disposes of the objection which has sometimes been urged against turbines,—that they are defective with regard to reversing motion.

The steam to drive the turbines will be generated by eight large boilers of the usual type.



A SECTIONAL VIEW, SHOWING ARRANGEMENT OF MACHINERY IN THE "VICTORIAN."

The length of the *Victorian* is 540 feet, her breadth, 60 feet; her depth, 40 feet 6 inches. She is divided by bulkheads into eleven compartments, and, with the subdivisions of her double bottom, she has twenty water-tight spaces. She is built to the highest class of the British Corporation Registry of Shipping, and her hull



THE ALLAN LINE TURBINE STEAMER "VICTORIAN" BEFORE LAUNCHING.



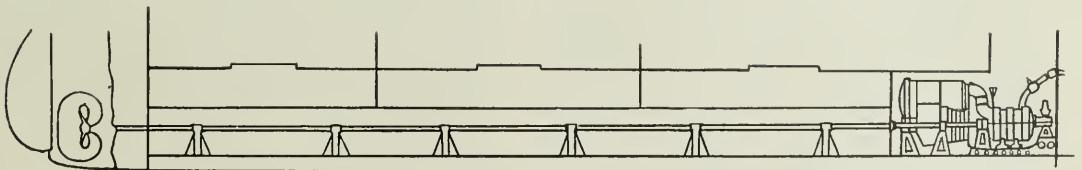
A STERN VIEW OF THE "VICTORIAN," SHOWING HER THREE SCREWS.

has been specially strengthened above the requirements of the corporation in order to make her doubly secure against the heavy weather of the North Atlantic.

As regards facilities for the handling of cargo, the ship is as perfectly fitted as possible. She has no less than ten steam winches and derricks

for working the hold, and she is provided with insulated chambers and a refrigerating plant.

Before the end of the year the *Victorian* will have settled practically the question of the adaptability of turbine engines to ocean liners,—a problem which has been agitating the minds of shipping men for some time past.



A SECTIONAL ELEVATION, SHOWING MAIN SHAFT FROM TURBINE ENGINE.

JOHN H. REAGAN,—A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY WALTER FLAVIUS M'CALEB.

(Authorized editor of Judge Reagan's Memoirs.)

JOHN H. REAGAN—judge and statesman and the last survivor of the Confederate cabinet—is dead. The loss is not restricted to the State of Texas, but the Union at large is the sufferer, for no truer statesman (as he saw the right) ever labored for the betterment of his country.

He was born, on October 8, 1818, in Sevier County, Tennessee. The riflemen of his own State, who, under Jackson, at New Orleans, had aided in destroying Pakenham's army, were but returned from the war; it was truly a time when familiarity with the rifle was of infinitely more consequence than knowledge of books. There was, moreover, in the very air the spirit of the wilderness, which was as yet unconquered; indeed, challenging conquest. To aid in this had Judge Reagan's father come over the mountains (there was but one "Mountains" in that day, the Alleghanies), fresh from the ranks of the Revolutionary army. He had acquired a small landed estate, and in due course young Reagan busied himself on the farm and in the tanyard of his father. But the log schoolhouse had for him a greater attraction, and so we find him at an early age setting out from home and laboring at whatever he could find to do in order to secure an education. However, charitably be it said, the schools and academies of his day were not models of pedagogic or Spencerian wisdom, nor distinguished for their cultural influences. Whatever they were, Judge Reagan got out of them the best there was to give, though all through his life he suffered from want of proper training in the use of English. Frontier-born and bred, he entered life endowed with an intuitive faculty of meeting emergencies on the spot, with a tact useful later in placating antagonists of various types. He had other qualities of the frontier, too,—force, directness, frankness, patience, courage,—scarcely ever found in the same degree in the settled centers of society. The temptation to contrast him with Senator Hoar is very strong, for they were in many respects at antipodes,—in many, shoulder to shoulder. It is sufficient to know that one was born in Concord—the Concord of Emerson and Hawthorne—and the other in Tennessee—the State of Sevier and Jackson.

Politically, Judge Reagan was a Democrat of the Andrew Jackson type. As a boy, he grew

up under this influence, for "Old Hickory" had assumed his sway in Tennessee. Besides, Democracy of this sort could exist only on the frontier or in the communities but newly sprung from the loins of society. The application of the dogma of such a Democracy as was held by the West from 1800 to 1850 was impossible in a society which had begun to build cities and establish factories. And all his life Judge Reagan stood for the simplest governmental forms, looking with alarm upon the innovations of latter-day administrations. Principles were everything to him. He could even refuse the nomination for governor because some of the planks in the platform were out of accord with his views.

A JACKSON DEMOCRAT AND A UNIONIST.

Judge Reagan was twenty-one years of age when he crossed the Sabine into the Republic of Texas. There still rang the echoes of the Texas Revolution, which in itself had been but a protest against governmental machinery,—a conflict between Anglo-Saxon and Spanish institutions. The wars with the Indians which followed were also in the nature of simplifying the problems of government, and here, as a young man, he launched forth boldly, taking part in the famous Cherokee War. Next, as deputy public surveyor, he marked out the lands in some of the unsettled counties; became justice of the peace, a law-maker of the State, and district judge,—having fully embarked upon his life's work. In 1857, he entered the arena of national politics, having been drawn, quite against his wish, into accepting at the hands of the Democrats (their opponents being the Americans, or Know-nothings) a nomination for Congress. Two years later he was again nominated and again elected, and in the halls of Congress was one of those who stood most strongly for the preservation of the Union, his great speech in that direction being one of impelling force. But the die was cast, and toward the end of January, 1861, he, along with many Southern members, withdrew from the Capitol, but not until all compromise measures had failed.

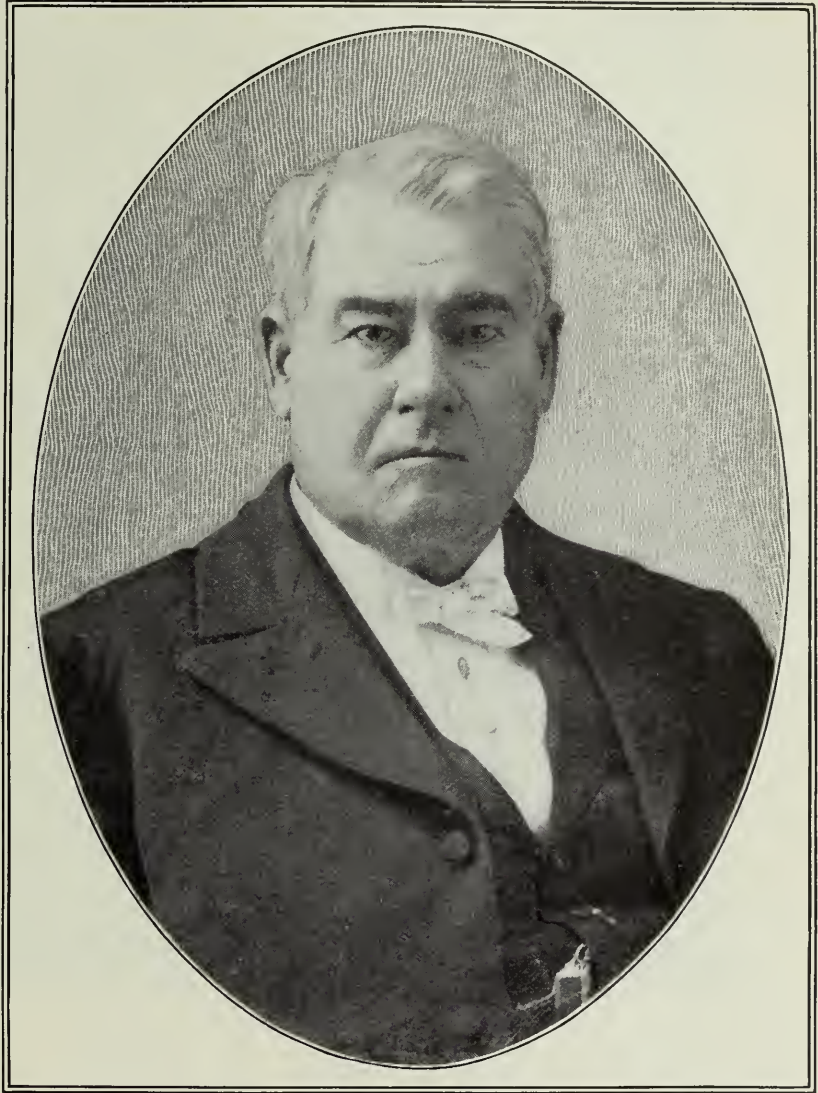
THE CONFEDERACY'S POSTMASTER-GENERAL.

This was the beginning of the crucial period, for while he was *en route* home he learned of his

election to the Secession convention of his State. The tie of union having been broken, he was chosen as one of the six delegates to the Provisional Congress of the Confederacy. In Montgomery, while taking part in the formation of the constitution for the Confederacy, to his surprise, he was offered by President-elect Davis the appointment of Postmaster-General. He accepted the rôle with misgivings, for it was no simple task to organize and set in operation a postal system of the magnitude demanded by the seceding States,—a system which was to be subjected to the severest tests. Here was his great triumph. Not only did he give the South better mail service for half the cost under the Union, but actually year after year, while the financial condition of the Confederacy steadily grew worse, he increased the net returns of his department. Even the last year of the war the surplus in the treasury credited to his department was no mean sum.

This was a splendid achievement,—an achievement proclaiming exceptional executive ability.

Apart from Mr. Reagan's duties as Postmaster-General of the Confederacy, he was one of the most faithful and trusted of President Davis' advisers. On many points of policy he took issue, not only with the other cabinet members, but with the President as well. The most conspicuous instance of this character concerned the plan of the campaign of 1863. He opposed with more than mild words the sending of General Lee into Pennsylvania, urging the dispatch of part of his forces to the relief of Pemberton before Vicksburg and the clearing of Tennessee



THE LATE JOHN H. REAGAN, OF TEXAS.

and Kentucky of Union troops, the Army of Virginia meantime acting on the defensive. After a decision had been made, Judge Reagan wrote a final note to the President appealing in vain for a reconsideration of the question, pointing out the certain calamities which eventuated in Vicksburg and Gettysburg.

It was a marked characteristic of the man that when once a conclusion was reached he held it with a pertinacity recalling the elder Pitt. He had definite ideas on whatever matter came before him, and he was conspicuous in the cabinet for his clear-cut conceptions of what was best to be done under the circumstances. On the bat-

tle field his coolness and bravery were admirable, and in the fighting around Richmond several times he was under fire, while on one occasion his presence of mind probably saved the capital from Sheridan's cavalry.

JUDGE REAGAN'S LOYALTY TO JEFFERSON DAVIS.

After the fall of Richmond and the surrender of Lee's unvanquished though beaten army, he displayed his genius for dealing with pressing problems of state. General Johnston's fragment of army, facing the hosts of General Sherman, could but choose to lay down its arms, and the terms of surrender were certain to constitute a precedent which might involve the whole of the Confederacy. This Judge Reagan realized, and, first of all the cabinet, drew up and submitted for its consideration a tentative agreement, which, indeed, was finally accepted almost *in toto* by the victorious general. However, hope was not yet abandoned by the executive as to ultimate triumph, and as the bedraggled companies of Confederates, under General Breckenridge, beat on southward, Judge Reagan's was one of the stoutest hearts. This was shown by his appointment to the portfolio of Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Trenholm having resigned on account of illness. Thus, acting in the double capacity of Postmaster-General and Secretary of the Treasury, he went bravely on with President Davis when others fell away from him and his sinking cause to fly, as Benjamin, in disguise to friendly shores, or to caress, as some did, the conqueror.

On May 10, 1865, the Davis party was captured and hurried northward. At Hampton Roads, where the prisoners were separated, Judge Reagan besought General Wilson, who was in command, to be allowed to accompany Mr. Davis, who, as many thought, was certain to be executed. Long afterward the judge met General Wilson, who smilingly remarked that he remembered well the day the judge had begged to be shot. That was typical of the man. He knew that he was as guilty, morally or otherwise, as his chief, and that whatever fate befell that chief was meet for his adviser.

ACCEPTING THE RESULTS OF THE WAR.

Imprisoned in Fort Warren, Boston Harbor, a few cells removed from Alexander H. Stephens, far from losing heart, he straightway set about ways and means to secure the readjustment of the States on lines acceptable to both sections. His Fort Warren letter, all things considered, was nothing short of prophetic. It urged the people of Texas to recognize the loss of their cause and to accept the legitimate fruits of the war, if they would escape heavier calamities. He

foresaw, as scarcely any man in the South, the horrors of Reconstruction, and strove manfully to avoid them. Even after his release and return on parole to Texas, he never ceased his vigilance, urging in a letter to Governor Throckmorton, and in one to the people of the State, that the amendments to the Constitution needs must be acceded to. Alas! his advice fell on deaf ears, and he was held up to censure by those he sought to save, many of whom came, with bitterness, to see that he was right.

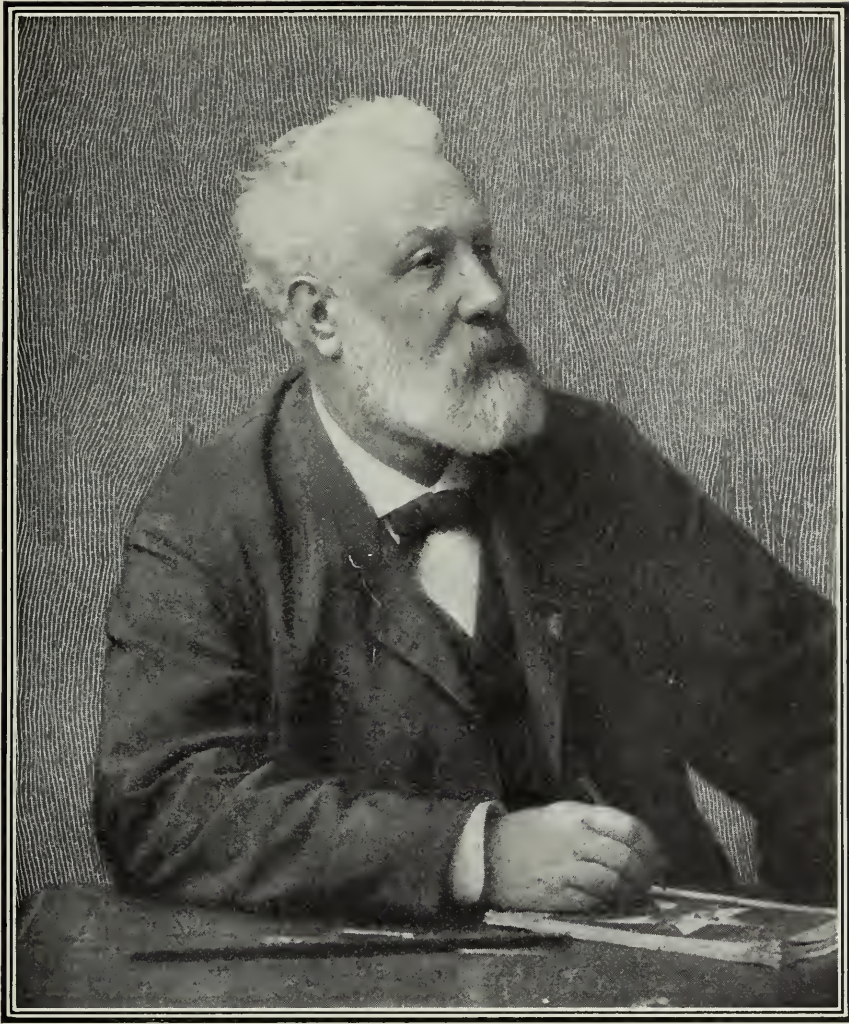
IN THE NATIONAL CONGRESS.

At length came his release from Fort Warren. Disfranchised and defeated, the man rose superior to all obstacles. He retired to his farm, at Fort Houston, near Palestine, and laid his hand to the plow, looking not backward. When his disabilities had been removed by Congress he resumed the practice of law, and in 1875 was returned to Congress, his service being continuous up to his election to the Senate in 1887. During this period his most distinguished labor was on the Committee on Commerce. For eight years he served as chairman, securing the passage of the present interstate commerce law in the face of bitter opposition. So honorable was his career that the State chose to honor him by elevating him to the post of Senator; and here, again, we find that his every thought was how best to serve his people.

AS RAILROAD COMMISSIONER OF TEXAS.

If he had not on other occasions shown that no sacrifice was too great for him to make, his resignation from the Senate to accept the appointment of railroad commissioner of his State would abundantly prove it. Not alone was the post of chairman of the commission less remunerative than that of Senator, but to withdraw from Washington to Austin to undertake the arduous labor of organizing a system which should curb the rapacity of the roads of the State might well have deterred the hardiest. And yet the Senator, despite his seventy-two years, took up the burden and carried it to a most successful ending. After ten years of this exacting routine he retired to his home and began—a labor which had been, alas! all too long neglected—his Memoirs. Happily, when the final summons came, the written record was complete.

Up to the very last, Judge Reagan never lost interest in politics, though he came to be more and more pessimistic over the trend of events. Nevertheless, optimism had always been with him a religious principle, and of none could it be better said: he was one who "Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would triumph."



JULES VERNE, NOVELIST AND SEER.

JULES VERNE, who died at Amiens, France, on March 24, at the age of seventy-seven, has been described as a story-teller who made science live even as the elder Dumas gave life to history. His was an imagination that predicted the semi-miraculous without jarring too severely the reader's sense of the probable. No other writer of fiction has anticipated so many practical inventions. We of this generation have lived to see submarine navigation accomplished, but men who are now gray can recall the spell under which as boys they followed the marvelous adventures of Captain Nemo in "Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea." "Round the World in Eighty Days" is no longer an astounding title, since the journey has been

made in even shorter time. "Five Weeks in a Balloon" (written in 1862) foreshadowed the dirigible flying-machines of the twentieth century. Among the more important of his stories, in addition to the three already mentioned, are "The Giant Raft; or, Eight Hundred Leagues on the Amazon;" "The Cryptogram;" "Hector Servadac;" "Keraban the Inflexible;" "Mistress Branican;" "The Mysterious Island;" "Around the Moon;" "Mathias Sandorf;" "An Antarctic Mystery;" "The Sphinx of the Ice-fields," and "Michael Strogoff." Jules Verne lived a quiet life at Amiens, where he had married his wife in 1857. In 1867, at the time of the voyage of the *Great Eastern*, he made a visit to the United States.

THREE OF THE LEADERS OF THE NEXT BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

JUDGED by any political test that can be applied, a decisive Liberal victory is a certainty in the next general election in Great Britain. The dissolution of the "Khaki" Parliament of 1900 may be deferred for several months, but when it does come, the Balfour ministry will go. Even Mr. Chamberlain has publicly admitted this. Indeed, it may be said that the triumph of Mr. Chamberlain in capturing the Unionist-Conservative party is proving to be the doom of that party.

Who will be the Liberal premier? In the new ministry, it may safely be inferred, the names of Earl Spencer, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, John Morley, James Bryce, Herbert Gladstone, Winston Churchill, Herbert Asquith, Sir Edward Grey, Lloyd George, and Sir Charles Dilke will be prominent. Two statesmen, however, Earl Spencer and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, will undoubtedly be foremost in the consideration of King Edward when that eminently constitutional monarch summons one of the recognized Liberal leaders to form a new ministry.

Lord Rosebery is out of the running,—he has voluntarily ostracized himself. His abilities are recognized, but he will scarcely ever again be prime minister. He is wanted as foreign minister, but that position he does not seek. Then, of course, in the event of Mr. Chamberlain's securing sufficient following to make a composite ministry possible,—a ministry made up of Liberals and free-trade Unionists,—the Duke of Devonshire would, in all likelihood, preside over the cabinet. But this would seem to be very improbable. Throughout the entire United Kingdom it is assumed that King Edward will summon either the "Red Earl" or "C.-B." to be his next premier. The eminence of these two men, and their fidelity to their political ideals, have entitled them to this distinction. Earl Spencer has never resigned; neither has Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. Neither has ever despaired of his party, much less sacrificed its interests to personal feelings. Either would be willing to make way for the other in the interest of the party or of the country.

WHAT THE LIBERAL LEADER SHOULD BE.

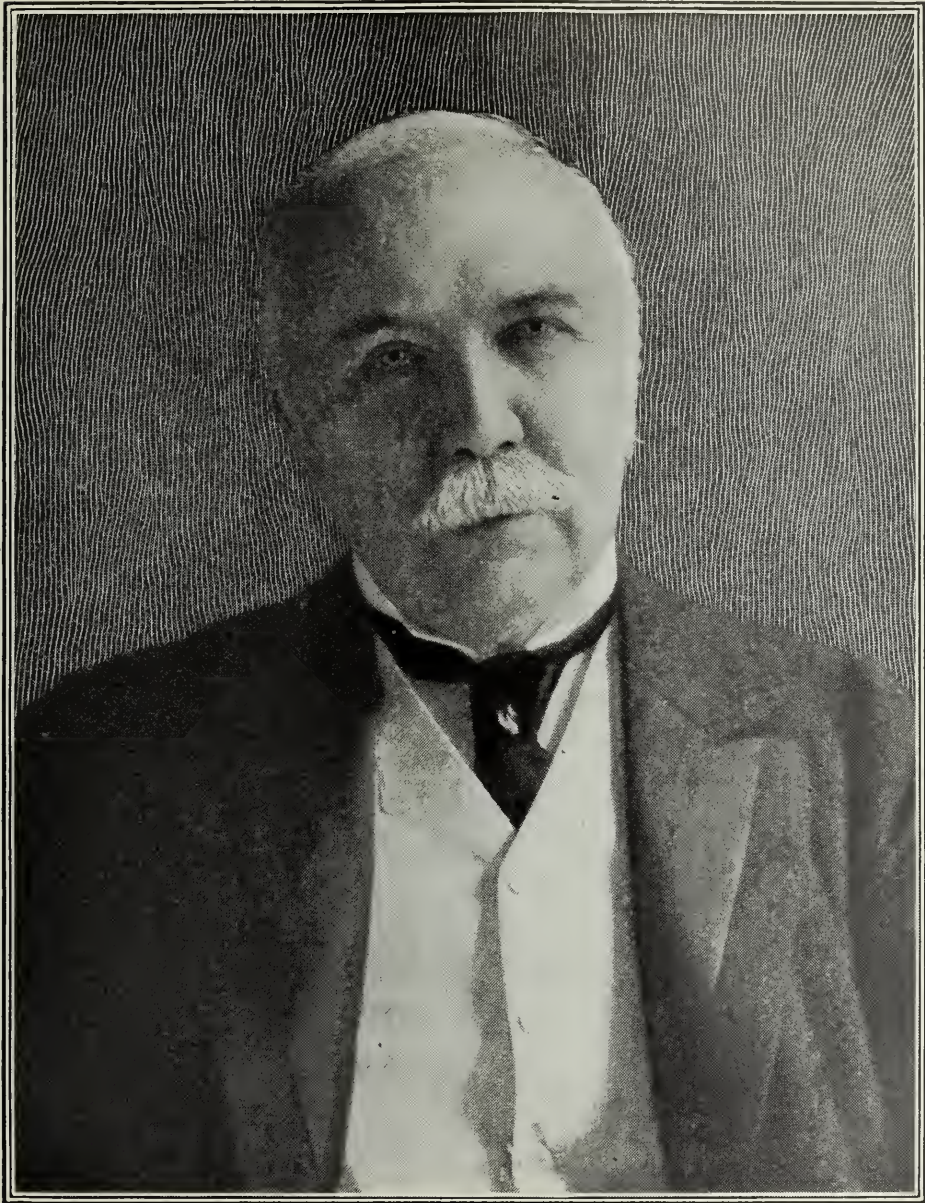
It has been said that the leader of the Liberal party is the man who leads the opposition in the House of Commons. The party believes that the premier should sit in the lower chamber.

In the case of "C.-B.," there is also a sense of personal gratitude. When Lord Rosebery flung away the leadership of the party, the burden fell upon Sir Henry's shoulders,—a burden which Earl Spencer, from his position in the House of Lords, could not bear. By universal consent, "C.-B." has done his very best, and that with no small measure of success, to keep his party together, and he has maintained a gallant, persistent fight against the enemy. Mr. Chamberlain, who is no mean judge of the qualities of a first-rate fighting man, has always declared that Sir Henry C.-B. is the only fighting leader the Liberals possess. In his opinion, there ought to be no questioning "C.-B.'s" right to the premiership. Further, the prime ministry of Sir Henry would have a very beneficial effect on the relations of the empire to South Africa. The majority of the Afrikaner electorate recognize in him the best friend and the stoutest champion they possess among the Liberals.

On the other hand, there are some very weighty reasons in favor of Earl Spencer as premier. Mr. Gladstone always believed that the next Liberal premiership after his own should be headed by Earl Spencer. There is also much to be said in favor of a peer-premier, because it is practically impossible for any man—with the possible exception of such a Hercules as Gladstone—to unite successfully the functions of premier and leader in the House of Commons. It is true that Mr. Balfour is both prime minister and leader in the House of Commons, but Mr. Balfour has permitted things to go by default, and no Liberal leader would be permitted to shirk and shuffle as Mr. Balfour has done. Earl Spencer would offend nobody. He is *persona grata* at court, and no doubt the Liberal Leaguers would find it easier to accept office under Earl Spencer than under Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. And, lastly, Earl Spencer is an Englishman, and no doubt many good Englishmen think that what with Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Balfour, and Lord Rosebery the Scotch would have no reason to complain if the Liberals, for the first time in forty years, should prefer an Englishman to a Scot as their prime minister.

QUALIFICATIONS OF EARL SPENCER.

Earl Spencer is a typical English gentleman, by heredity, by training, and by achievement



SIR HENRY CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN.

marked out for a high position. J. Poyntz Spencer, Fifth Earl, Knight of the Garter, Privy Councillor, D.C.L., LL.D., Baron Spencer, Viscount Althorp, Lord Lieutenant of Northamptonshire since 1872, and Keeper of the Privy Seal of the Duke of Cornwall since 1901, is an English grandee of the first rank. He owns about twenty-seven thousand acres of land, part in London and part in Northamptonshire. In

his seventieth year, he is the leader of the handful of Liberal peers who still survive in the House of Lords.

Earl Spencer is no orator. It is said that his speeches are dull and dreary. But his political gifts and capacity for work are unlimited. He entered the administration in 1868, under Mr. Gladstone. In that year, when only thirty-three, he was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland, hold-

ing the post until 1874, when the Gladstone ministry fell. In the second Gladstone cabinet, Earl Spencer was minister of agriculture and lord president of the council. It was in this ministry that his qualities of grit, courage, and administration were proved. The entire government of Ireland was thrown into his hands on the retirement of Mr. Forster and the assassination of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke. It was a terrible time,—the land was demoralized and in mutiny. But (in the words of Mr. Morley's "Gladstone") "the new viceroy attacked the formidable task before him with resolution, minute assiduity, and an inexhaustible store of that steady-eyed patience which is the sovereign requisite of any man who, whether with coercion or without, takes in hand the government of Ireland." Earl Spencer was threatened with assassination and subjected to endless insult, but for three terrible years he stood his ground and never lost his temper or nerve. In 1892, Mr. Gladstone sent Earl Spencer to the admiralty. This, although a good appointment, led indirectly to Mr. Gladstone's retirement, when Earl Spencer insisted upon strengthening the navy, and, although his naval programme was approved by a majority of the cabinet, nothing could reconcile Mr. Gladstone to what appeared to him a monstrous and unnecessary expenditure of public money in provocative armaments. Mr. Gladstone's large-mindedness, however, was illustrated by the fact, that notwithstanding his disapproval and the success of the programme, upon his retirement he submitted Earl Spencer's name to the Queen as his successor in the premiership. When Lord Rosebery became premier, Earl Spencer cheerfully continued to serve on the admiralty, and at the Liberal *débâcle* the "Red Earl" never swerved. He remained at his post, and England, which expects every man to do his duty, has never been disappointed in Earl Spencer.

"C. B." AND HIS FINE RECORD.

Even if Earl Spencer should become premier, Sir Henry Campbell Bannerman will be one of the most important members of the new cabinet. "C. B." is a year younger than Earl Spencer. He was originally plain Henry Campbell, but when his maternal uncle, Henry Bannerman, died, he assumed the second name, and, quite late in his career,—in 1895, and twenty-seven years after he first entered the House of Commons,—the baronetcy came.

"C. B." has led the House of Commons since February, 1899. He stepped into the breach when other men deserted it, and has done his duty manfully and well under circumstances of great difficulty. He is a very cautious man,—a

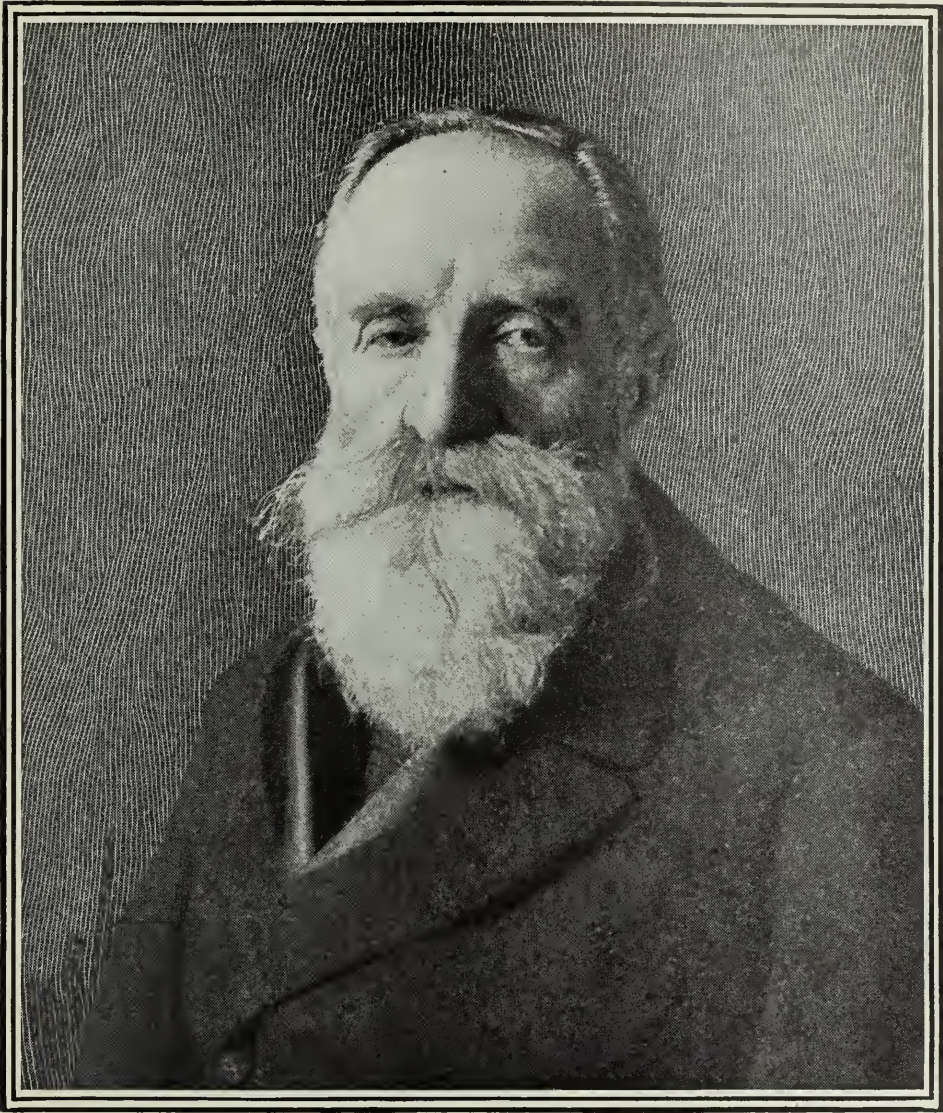
canny Scot. He refrained all through the war from praising the Boers, fearing lest one word of eulogy might lead them to prolong the war. He took, also, every opportunity to assert himself with Mr. Morley in repudiating any intention of restoring the independence of the South African republics. "I have publicly stated that the annexation must, in my opinion, be upheld." But this was to be only on condition that the new subjects were to be admitted to all the rights and privileges of British self-governing colonists. "C. B." is a shrewd man, full of *bonhomie*, and possessing no small fund of natural eloquence.

He does not write articles or books. He makes speeches, and uncommonly good speeches they are. Good-tempered, genial, humorous, and incisive, he has never had justice done him. In mere forensic tourney, Mr. Asquith may be his superior. But there is no blood, or heart, or soul, in Mr. Asquith's speeches. Cold himself, he never excites a generous warmth of passion or enthusiasm among his hearers. Sir Henry is much more human. If it cannot be said of him that he can "wield at will the fierce democracy," he has undoubtedly a great faculty of effective public speech, effective alike in Parliament and on the platform.

That both these leaders are, heart and soul, in favor of the Anglo-American *entente cordiale* goes without saying. They do not favor the policy so dear to the British Jingo mind of converting the Dominion of Canada into an ironclad fighting unit in the armed forces of the empire. All the schemes for fostering the growth of militarism in Canada are by them detested and abhorred. Moreover, whether Lord Spencer be premier or Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Mr. Bryce will be a prominent member of the cabinet, and Mr. Bryce is as sympathetic an American as if he had been born in New England.

WINSTON CHURCHILL IN THE COMMONS.

After the premier, Mr. Winston Churchill will, perhaps, be the leader in the Commons. While the matrimonial alliances between American women and British politicians have not often resulted in large or brilliant families, there is one brilliant exception. Miss Jerome, who married Randolph Churchill, has not a large family, but her son, Winston, has done much to gratify British-American intermarriages. For Winston Churchill, who is an American on his mother's side, is the most conspicuous and most promising of the younger politicians in Great Britain. Whether he will ever lead the House of Commons is an open question. But if he does, he will owe it quite as much to his American mother as to his aristocrat father.



EARL SPENCER.

Miss Jennie Jerome, who became Lady Randolph Churchill, and who is now Mrs. Cornwallis-West, is by universal admission one of the cleverest and most influential women in Britain. She is credited with having suggested to her husband the formation of the Primrose League, the most successful of all modern political organizations in England. She is only one of its vice-presidents, but she was its inspiring voice. Many of its most successful features were Yankee dodges which proved mightily successful when transplanted to British soil. She was a power in English society during her husband's

lifetime. She has been still more conspicuous and influential since his death. She can organize, intrigue, edit, and train. She no longer edits the sumptuous *Anglo-Saxon Review*, but she contributes to periodical literature and devotes herself to the task of promoting the fortunes of her son. "Winston," an irate Tory recently remarked,—“there's nothing in Winston. But he's got some of the cleverest women in England at his back. That's the real secret of his success.” That is not the whole truth, for “Winston” has proved his capacity in regions where his mother's care could not stand him in

any stead. But he undoubtedly owes much to the American strain which comes from her. He has inherited a full measure of American snap. He is a hustler of the first class. He is as pushing as a New England canvasser, and his "American ways" are often referred to with intense disgust by the rivals whom he has passed in the race. "I never see him," said a conservative M.P., the other day, "but I think of a Chicago newsboy." He certainly means to make things hum. He is constantly on the alert. In the House and in the country, he is never silent.

"THE CENTER OF THE BRITISH POLITICAL ARENA."

To-day, Winston Churchill is the center of the British political arena. He is the most conspicuous, and in many respects the ablest, of British rising statesmen. He has gone from the Unionist to the Liberal benches in the House of Commons, and it is safe to predict that in the near future he will be Liberal leader in the House. Speaking of his career, and particularly of his military adventures, Lord Dufferin once remarked, "On every occasion he has shown that chivalrous courage which becomes a high-minded gentleman, and, what is equally important, that capacity, that skill, and that resource that bear testimony to his intellectual ability."

Mr. Winston Churchill is audacity incarnate. He will dare, and never cease to dare. In this he is the true son of his father. Both the Churchills entered Parliament at the same age. To be an M.P. at twenty-five and a prospective party leader at thirty is a lot which has fallen to them, and to them only, in our generation.

Winston Churchill's grandfather was the seventh Duke of Marlborough, at one time lord lieutenant of Ireland in a Tory administration. The present Churchill was born in 1874. Educated at Eton and Cambridge, Winston finished at Sandhurst, with honors, in 1894. The next year he was appointed lieutenant in the Fourth Hussars. Soon, however, he obtained leave to visit Cuba, which was then in the throes of her ten years' war with Spain. His father had been correspondent for the *Daily Graphic* in South Africa; the son was special correspondent for the same journal in Cuba. He saw service under Martinez Campos, and was decorated for his bravery. No sooner had he reached home than his regiment was ordered to India. All through the frontier war in Malakand he fought with the Thirty-first Punjab Infantry and wrote for the *Daily Telegraph*. For his valor he was again decorated. When he returned to London he immediately joined the force of General Kitchener for the reconquest of Khartum, all the time acting as corre-

spondent for the *Morning Post*. His stay with Kitchener was full of adventure, and he was in the march from Atbara to Khartum, and in the battle of Omdurman, which he described as an eye-witness. In his book, "The River War," he told the story of the conquest of the Sudan, and in his dispatches to the *Morning Post* he criticised the work of his commander-in-chief so daringly and so truly that his political reputation was made. He, however, soon concluded that he could be more useful out of the service.

It was not until the Boer war, however, that Winston Churchill rose to the first rank of war correspondents. He was the luckiest and smartest, and certainly the most picturesque, personality of all the newspaper writers during that conflict. He was taken prisoner in the early part of the war, escaped, and told all about it in his news letters home. His correspondence marked him as a man of distinction,—a man who was not merely a keen observer and a brilliant writer, but who had the political instinct in his blood. At first he was certain that the Boers, considering their courage and the strength of their religious conviction, would surely win, and it was some time, he says, before he could believe in a British triumph. In March, 1900, he published, in the *Morning Post*, his famous appeal for dealing with the Boers in a reasonable spirit of conciliation.

A GREAT FUTURE PREDICTED FOR HIM.

Mr. Churchill entered Parliament as a Tory Democrat, and a Tory Democrat he remains to this day, although he sits on the Liberal benches. Toryism, however, as interpreted by the Churchills, is often almost indistinguishable from Radicalism as interpreted by men like John Burns who have the historical insight and a keen sympathy with the traditional glories of their country. He gave Parliament a taste of his quality in his scathing analysis of Mr. Brodrick's new army scheme, in May, 1901, and was the only Unionist who voted against it. Of his speech on that occasion, Mr. Massingham, whose "Pictures in Parliament" are perhaps the best contemporary chronicle of proceedings at Westminster, said:

Its threads were not, of course, woven with the skill that comes of long practice, and here and there were missing stitches. But in its elevation of purpose, its broad conception of national policy, and in the direct movement of its closing sentences, I recall nothing like it since Mr. Gladstone died. I will make two criticisms upon it,—the first is, that it is the speech that should long ago have been delivered from our own benches; the second is, that in the years to come its author should be prime minister,—I hope Liberal prime minister,—of England.



MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL.

Always a Conservative, Mr. Churchill is still a free-trader, and in this fact is to be found the cause of his desertion of the Unionist ranks. He could not remain a Jingo and a militarist, so he becomes a supporter of the Liberals. His first serious administrative speeches were made against financial expenditure and the policy of protection. His first field for retrenchment is in the army, he upholds, but he is unalterably opposed to the attempt to convert England to a military power.

There are two other questions upon which he differs from the old Conservative forces,—he has Radical ideas on the Irish question and on education; he is against the National Education Act. It may be said that he is a born demagogue. Perhaps he is; but this young man, demagogue though he may be, before he is thirty, has already won the ear and aroused the enthusiasm of the great majority of his countrymen.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE SPANISH PUBLICATIONS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

DURING the past decade there has been remarkable progress in Spanish periodical literature. Spanish journalism was late in taking its place among the cosmopolitan forces of Europe, but one Spanish journal, the *Gaceta de Madrid* (Madrid Gazette), founded in 1661, the first organ of the government, has survived the vicissitudes of two centuries and a half. It is to-day the official organ of the government.

There are a few dignified and serious monthly magazines published in Spain, one of which, *España Moderna* (Modern Spain), occupies the same position in the estimation of Spaniards as the *Revue des Deux Mondes* does in France, or any of the heavier quarterlies or fortnightlies in England. *España Moderna* is edited by J. Lázaro, a well-known literary man. It consists of literary, political, and scientific review articles, largely contributed by university professors, statesmen, and politicians, with a regular literary chronicle and a review of periodicals. Considerable attention is given to Spanish-American conditions and writers. This review is in its sixteenth year. Another serious review of less pretensions than *España Moderna* is the *Revista*

Contemporánea, owned and edited by José de Cardenas, a member of the Senate. The *Revista Contemporánea* is in its thirtieth year. Then there is, in Madrid, *Nuestro Tiempo* (Our Time), a monthly of general character. In the second city of the kingdom, Barcelona, which is the chief center of commerce, there is a very elegantly printed monthly entitled *Mercurio* (Mercury). It compares favorably with the best commercial monthlies of the world. In Barcelona, also, there is published a popular illustrated monthly magazine, entitled *Hojas Sélectas* (Selected Leaves).

The leading weekly of Spain is the *Ilustracion Española y Americana* (Spanish and American Illustrated Weekly), which compares favorably with illustrated weeklies in France, Germany, and England. It calls itself a review of literature, art, and news. The same house issues a beautiful annual almanac, very artistically printed and illustrated, and also a ladies' weekly fashion journal, the *Moda Elegante* (Fashions for the Ladies). The *Nuevo Mundo* (New World) is another illustrated weekly of the capital, but not so well printed as the *Ilustracion*. It gives

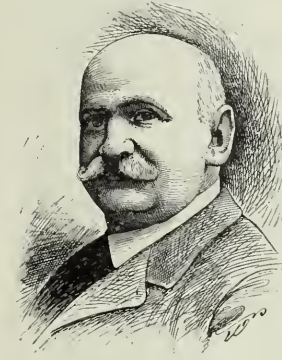
much attention to the theater and music. The third notable general weekly of Madrid is *Blanco y Negro* (White and Black), which aims to be to the Spanish capital what *Black and White* is to London. It does some excellent work in color-printing. There are a number of cartoon weeklies in Madrid, notable among these being *Don Quixote*, perhaps the cleverest; the *Gédéon* (Gideon), and the *Gata Negro* (Black Cat). In Barcelona there is a famous cartoon journal, *Barcelona Comica* (Barcelona Funny Paper).

Madrid's most representative and informational daily is the *Época* (Epoch), which is the organ of the Liberal-Conservative party. It is more than fifty years old, and is now owned and edited by the Marqués de Valdeiglesias. It is the paper of fashionable society. The *Gaceta* is the official government organ, as has been said. The *Heraldo* (Herald) is, perhaps, the most enterprising, clever, and best edited of Madrid dailies. It resembles a Paris newspaper. The *Imparcial* (Impartial) is a very influential and perhaps the best-established daily of the capital. In its general hold upon the conservative classes, it resembles the New York *Herald*. It has a proved circulation of 140,000, and is edited by Señor Gasset, who was until recently minister of agriculture and public works. Some years ago, when the special Monday literary supplement of the *Imparcial*, known as the *Lunes* (Monday), was in the height of its success, it was conducted by a famous literary Spaniard, Fernandez Florez, who wrote under the pseudonym of "Fernan Flor." A difference with the management resulted in this writer leaving the *Imparcial*, and founding what is now one of the most famous Spanish dailies, the *Liberal*. This daily is published simultaneously in five cities,—Madrid, Barcelona, Murcia, Seville, and Bilbao. It is owned by a stock company, which has the finest newspaper building in Madrid. In fact, the *Liberal* is the only Spanish daily which has a building all to itself. It is Republican-Conservative in policy. The *Correspondencia de España* (Correspondence of Spain) is the oldest of the newspapers of the capital. It is bright and gossipy, and is affectionately and familiarly known as "the night-cap of the Madrileños,"—because every respectable citizen of the Spanish capital reads the *Correspondencia* before going to bed; in much the same way, perhaps, as Mr. Gladstone's "breakfast" was said to have been a cup of coffee and the *Times*. The *Correo* (Mail), also of the capital, is a very influential journal. Its former editor, Ferreras (who died a year or so ago), was considered the foremost journalist of Madrid. He had a genius for phraseology, and one of his sarcastic remarks was known to

overthrow a ministry. In the capital, also, there is a religious daily, the *Siglo Futuro* (Future Century), which is the organ of the Ultramontane party, and of great influence. It usually supports the Carlists. Its editor, Señor Noce-

dal, is a Deputy to the Cortes. There is also a Socialist party paper published in Madrid under the title of *Los Dominicales* (Sunday Reading).

The most influential provincial journals are published in Barcelona. Chief among these are the *Diario* (Daily Newspaper), which is over a century old, and still appears, as did all the early European newspapers, in the form of a book of sixty, eighty, or even one hundred pages. In Valencia there is the *Mercantil Valenciano* (Valencia Merchant), a well-edited, influen-



SEÑOR D. JUAN PÉREZ DE GUZMÁN.

(Señor de Guzman was, until a year or so ago, political editor of the *Época*. He is now a contributing editor of the *Ilustración, Española y Americana*, and the *España Moderna*, and is also editor of the year books of the *Gaceta* of Madrid and one of the best-known Spanish journalists.)

tial sheet; and in Cadiz the *Diario de Cadiz*, a newsy and interesting publication.

It is interesting to note the fact that the *Noticias* (News), the Spanish newspaper published in New York City, which is over thirty years old, is now supplied by the Government to the West Point Academy as part of the instruction in Spanish to the cadets.

THE PORTUGUESE PERIODICAL PRESS.

The Portuguese can boast of an illustrious past in intellectual effort, and the educated classes to-day are as much devoted to literature as those in any other European country. The present state of education in the kingdom, however, is very low, and the general poverty of the people is such that periodical publishing does not flourish. Of course, by far the greater number of periodicals appear in the capital, Lisbon, although a few important ones are published in the second city of the kingdom, Oporto.

Among the fortnightly and monthly periodicals and reviews, perhaps the most important is the *Gazeta dos Caminhos de Ferro* (Railway-Gazette), published in Lisbon by Senhor L. de

Mendonça e Costa. Perhaps the most influential and important of the fortnightlies is the *Arte e Natureza* (Art and Nature), published in Oporto. This is a very fine publication typographically, illustrated from excellent photographs, and giving much attention to Portuguese scenery. Among the weeklies are the *Ilustração Portuguesa* (Portugal Illustrated) and *Occidente* (Occident), both Lisbon illustrated weeklies. Then there is the *Parodia* (Parody) and the *Supplemento de Seculo* (Supplement to the Seculo), comic journals, illustrated by famous cartoonists. There is another popular illustrated cartoon weekly published in the capital, known as the *Pimpão*. The two news weeklies are the *Correio do Europa* (European Post) and *Mala da Europa* (European Mail), illustrated, and intended chiefly for circulation in Brazil.

Perhaps the most influential and best known of Portuguese dailies is *O Commercio do Porto* (The Oporto Commercial). It may be interesting to note, in passing, that the Portuguese article is O, and that the town we know as Oporto is simply the Portuguese, The Port (O Porto). The *Commercio do Porto* is a morning journal, made up on the same general plans as the French and Spanish dailies. It is a serious and well-edited commercial and general news periodical, not particularly well printed, but its service of commercial news from all over the world is regarded as reliable. Altogether there are eight dailies in Oporto, which is the chief commercial town of the empire. After the *Commercio*, the most important Oporto dailies are the *Primeiro de Janeiro* (First of January), with a large circulation in the north of the kingdom, and the *Jornal de Noticias* (News Journal), which resembles the *Primeiro* somewhat. In Lisbon there are eighteen daily journals, and ninety periodicals published at longer intervals. The *Seculo*

(Century), has the largest circulation of any paper in the kingdom. It is well informed, and has reliable foreign telegraphic and home news. While it is generally thought to have a tendency to exaggeration, it is regarded as of great influence. The *Seculo* is twenty-four years old, and it has a weekly edition, under the same title, published for the Portuguese colonies in Brazil. This concern also publishes the *Supplemento do Seculo* and the *Ilustração Portuguesa* already mentioned. The *Novidades* (News) is an evening daily of Lisbon. Its contents are generally political in character, and its news service is comprehensive. The *Novidades* is twenty-one years old, and has considerable influence. The



SENHOR ALFREDO DA CEMHA.

(Senhor da Cemha is a well-known poet and journalist, and one of the editors of the *Diario de Noticias* of Lisbon.)

Popular is another influential and successful daily of the capital. It makes a specialty of financial news, and its editor and owner, Senhor Marianno de Carvalho, is an ex-minister of finance. The *Diario de Noticias* (Daily News) is very popular and influential.

It is the principal advertising medium in the kingdom. It is over forty years old. The *Açoriano*

Oriental (Western Azorian) is the oldest paper of the kingdom, and is at present kept up more as a tradition than for its value as a newspaper. The only labor journal, the *Lavrador* (Agriculturist), is published by the *Commercio do Porto* and distributed gratis.



THE LABOR QUESTION'S NEWER ASPECTS.

BY VICTOR S. YARROS.

SOME twelve or fifteen years ago, labor leaders and clear-sighted observers of the industrial movement had a good deal to say regarding alleged radical changes in the nature and aims of the masses of organized wage-workers. The phrase, "the new unionism," was then current and familiar, especially in Great Britain.

The changes that have taken place in the last ten years in the world of labor and capital, and in their mutual relations, are more important and graver than those comprehended by the phrase, "the new unionism." The superficial may think of the French saying to the effect that "the more it changes the more it is the same thing." Strikes, lockouts, boycotting, blacklisting, "picketing," disorder or charges of disorder (we have to reckon with a sensational press which would rather be newsy than truthful), are still with us, but this does not mean that the industrial conflict presents the same aspect to thoughtful men that it presented a decade ago.

Theoretically, it is true, American trade-unionism has not materially modified its objects and ideals. In England, a series of judicial decisions, inspired by public opinion rather than dictated by the logic of the law, has "driven labor into politics," to use the union formula. There is now a labor group in Parliament which is more influential than its numerical strength might lead one to infer, and the tendency to nominate independent labor candidates is growing more and more pronounced. In the United States, political action, save in an indirect way, is not in favor in union circles, and the "labor vote" is not regarded by practical politicians as a formidable factor.

The labor movement in America, then, has remained purely industrial. It is neither political nor consciously revolutionary. It has no quarrel with the existing order. The head of this or that organization may declare himself a Socialist (President Moyer, of the Western Federation of Miners, for example), but the most representative leaders, as well as the overwhelming majority of the members of the unions, are conservative in their thought upon social problems. "A fair day's wages for a fair day's work" is still the watchword of our labor organizations.

It is in what may be called the "middle prin-

ciples" that time and tide have effected the changes in question. Men still strike against reductions (witness the recent struggle in the cotton mills of Fall River) or for advances in wages, but such strikes are not characteristic of the period. They involve no new issues, though such issues exist. The new issues are not always raised explicitly or recognized frankly; not a few of the stubbornly fought strikes, indeed, have had other causes than those avowed by the parties.

THE ISSUE OF THE CLOSED SHOP.

Of the "new" issues, that which has received the maximum of attention and been productive of the greatest bitterness and ill-will is, undoubtedly, the closed shop *versus* the open one. The *thing* is not new; the controversy over it is, however, a recent development. In many industries, closed-shop contracts have lately been entered into or renewed as a matter of course. The publishers of the daily newspapers maintain "closed shops" as a rule, and it is notorious that the builders and contractors of New York have actually, on expediency grounds, defended against vigorous assault this much-denounced arrangement. It is apparent, however, that most of the employers' associations organized in late years have determined to make systematic war on the closed shop. As the dispute is great and momentous, it requires unprejudiced and dispassionate treatment.

To begin with, as Miss Jane Addams, head of Hull House, has pointed out, the term, if not positively unfair, is unfortunate. It is an appeal to sentiment, not to right reason. The closed shop is the union shop or the contract shop, for it is bottomed on a contract between the employer and the union authorized to speak for his employees. If any closed shop rests, not on a voluntary agreement prompted by mutual advantage, but on duress, threats, or force, the intelligent student will readily distinguish the end from the means adopted to secure it. Freed from all accidental and gratuitous complications, what is the closed-shop issue?

ADVANTAGES TO THE EMPLOYER.

It has two sides,—one legal, the other economic and practical. The latter is simple. A well-organized union offers to supply all the labor that an employer needs in a certain line. It

proposes a contract covering wages, hours, etc., and prescribing a certain form of discipline. It is based on the principle of collective bargaining and, as a necessary corollary, collective responsibility. The union is supposed to guarantee efficient and good work on the part of the employees. It cannot assume responsibility for outsiders, having no control over them. It asserts that a shop cannot be half union and half non-union, and therefore it asks the employer who is willing to recognize the union at all (and, with it, the principle of "collective bargaining") to agree to employ none but union labor. The union shop, in other words, is to be closed to non-union workmen, not only in the interest of the contracting employees, but also in the interest of the "party of the second part," the employer.

Of course, if the employer can see no advantage in the proposed arrangement, there is nothing further to be said on the practical side. It is assumed that he is what the classical economist calls "an economic man," who is governed in business dealings neither by sympathies nor by antipathies, but by self-interest. Where the union shop does not insure better work, more orderly and harmonious conditions, friendlier relations and increased profit, it has no *raison d'être*. If, then, as a matter of fact, the closed shop offers employers no inducements, its days are numbered.

IS THE CLOSED SHOP "UN-AMERICAN?"

But the determined opposition to the closed shop of late manifested is not attributable to considerations of this kind. Professedly, the opposition is legal, moral, social. The objections alleged are not connected with profit and loss. They are of a "higher order." The various employers' associations have taken the position that the union shop is a bad, vicious, un-American institution, an institution repugnant to our political system and constitutional ideals. This was the argument employed by President Parry, of the national association of manufacturers; this was the reason assigned by the association of clothing manufacturers for repudiating the closed shop (without, however, affecting existing conditions in the industry) and risking a great strike,—which, by the way, has been ordered, unsuccessfully maintained, and finally called off. The Clothing Manufacturers' Association, in a formal declaration of principles, spoke of the closed shop as follows:

The closed shop is an un-American institution. The right of every man to sell his labor as he sees fit, and the freedom of every employer to hire such labor, are given by the laws of the land, and may not be affected

by affiliation or non-affiliation with any organization whatever.

The Citizens' Industrial Alliance of America, emphatically reiterated, in the resolutions adopted at the December convention in New York, its firm belief in the open shop, which was declared to be a corollary from the "right to work" and the principle of fair dealing and free contract. "Demanding only good faith," the resolutions ran, "it [the Alliance] discriminates against neither union nor independent [non-union] labor."

The inference from these deductions is obvious. Even if the closed shop were in every way advantageous to employers, it would be their patriotic duty to sacrifice the benefit for the sake of liberty and equality of opportunity.

THE ARGUMENT OF THE UNIONS.

But is the closed shop inconsistent with liberty and equal opportunity? The unions ridicule the suggestion, and not a few able lawyers and sociologists sympathize with them. Their argument may be indicated very briefly, thus:

The right of every man to sell his labor as he sees fit is exactly the right on which the closed shop is based. The right to work and to contract for work includes the right to refuse to work except under certain conditions, and the non-employment of certain classes of labor may very well be one of these conditions. The right of the non-union man is not infringed upon when the unionist merely refuses to work beside him, or when he asks the employer to choose between them. As to the employer, he has a right to hire any one he pleases, and he may discriminate at will against union or non-union labor. Indeed, he lays great stress upon this right, and should he desire to make an exclusive contract with a union, what is to prevent such preference?

A CHICAGO JUDGE DECIDES AGAINST THE CLOSED SHOP.

Certain courts—not of the last resort, however—have recently ruled against the legality of closed-shop contracts. The decision of the Cook County (Ill.) Appellate Court has attracted considerable attention, the employers' associations of the county having circulated it with much energy. The opinion in the case was written by a learned and respected judge, but several lawyers of note have not hesitated to pronounce it gratuitous and fallacious.

Judge Francis Adams, referring to closed-shop agreements which certain strikers sought to enforce, said: "The agreements in question, if executed, would tend to create a monopoly in favor of the members of the different unions,

to the exclusion of workmen not members of such unions, and are in this respect unlawful. Contracts tending to create a monopoly are void."

This ruling, in the opinion of able lawyers, is open to several serious objections. In the first place, it is not, and never has been, the law that *all* contracts tending to create a monopoly are unlawful. The common law distinguishes between contracts or combinations which reasonably or partially restrain trade and contracts which establish oppressive and complete monopolies. To say that all closed-shop agreements constitute unreasonable restraint of trade is clearly absurd. The question is not so much whether the shop is open as it is whether the union is. Under certain circumstances, a closed-shop agreement may actually create a monopoly; in many cases no monopoly results, and even the alleged "tendency" to monopoly is merely theoretical.

Furthermore, any contract "tends" to create a monopoly. Indeed, partial monopoly is the object of every contract. What you give to A you cannot give to B. A manufacturer may contract to purchase all his steel from the United States Steel Corporation; that would tend to create monopoly, but who seriously contends that such a contract would be held unlawful? If you are a building contractor and agree to give all your orders for brick to a particular firm, no one will accuse you of doing something wrong, reprehensible, un-American. What is true of raw material, machinery, tools, etc., must be true of labor. A union may undertake to supply labor as a manufacturer undertakes to supply goods, and an exclusive contract with the one cannot be more objectionable than a similar agreement with the other.

A COUNTER DECISION.

Nor does this view lack high judicial countenance. Indeed, the remarkable opinion of Justice Jenks, of the Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court for the Brooklyn department, in the case of certain non-union employees of the United States Printing Company *versus* the International Stereotypers' and Electrotypers' Union, goes very far to sustain it, along with other important contentions boldly advanced by labor leaders. The case involved the questions of peaceful picketing and boycotting, of a concerted strike ordered with the view of securing the discharge of non-union men, and of the enforcement of a closed-shop contract. Modifying materially an injunction obtained in the lower court, the Appellate Division, speaking through Justice Jenks, said:

The discharges in this case are the result of the agreement between the printing company and the union. It is clear enough that the company made this agreement in order to end the strike and the boycott. Thus, the defendants secured the exclusive employment of their members, an adjustment of wages, and a determination of the working hours. If the defendants had the right to refuse to work for the printing company until their demands were met, I cannot see why they could not agree that they would work only under conditions which represented a concession of such demands. If the employer preferred to have these workmen work for him on the conditions that he should employ none but their fellows, increase their wages, and settle the hours of labor than to have them strike and organize a boycott, I cannot see why in the exercise of its right to regulate its own affairs it [the company] could not follow this course and make the agreement.

Since, the court continued, an employer may engage whomsoever he chooses, and the employee may work for whom he chooses, and if under the influence of purely economic interests a contract for the exclusive employment of union labor is entered into, how can an outsider,—say, a non-union man adversely affected by this contract,—interfere with the performance thereof? Has he a vested right in his place? Can he dictate either to the employer or to the union demanding the closed shop as a condition of accepting employment?

When courts disagree on issues so vital, how can we expect laymen to attach much weight to decisions running counter, not only to their fixed beliefs, but to their substantial interests as they see them?

"COLLECTIVE BARGAINING" AS AN ECONOMIC PRINCIPLE.

Without usurping the function of the highest courts, which in the course of time will review the whole question in all its bearings, the opinion may be hazarded that, after all, economic, not legal, considerations will decide this great controversy. What has been witnessed in the case of industrial trusts or combinations will be witnessed in the case of labor organizations.

Among enlightened employers and corporations the opposition to collective bargaining is vanishing. The reaction against unionism that has been so marked a feature of the past year or two (especially in Chicago and other Western centers) has not affected this principle,—at least, so far as the older and more conservative unions are concerned. Even Mr. Parry, in one of his addresses to the manufacturers, expressly indorsed the principle of collective bargaining, and collective bargaining may, where labor is thoroughly organized and morally if not legally "responsible," regularize and preserve the union shop.

It should be noted, as a fact of no little significance, that at the Chicago meeting of the American Economic Association and the American Political Science Association (held late in December), a spirited discussion of the "Open or Closed Shop?" question developed a very pronounced leaning on the part of our scholars and scientific inquirers toward the union attitude. Of the nine speakers, two—and both employers—attacked the union shop as industrially detrimental; one, a labor official, defended it as essential to employees without involving the least injury to employers, and six,—all professors and eminent writers on politico-economic subjects,—saw in it a necessary measure of defense and amelioration under existing industrial conditions.

THE SOLIDARITY OF UNIONISM.

In view of circumstances like these, it is not surprising that organized labor should exhibit a determination equal to that of the majority of the employers' associations in fighting to maintain the union shop. The San Francisco convention of the American Federation of Labor, while expressing in sundry ways opposition to Socialistic doctrines and reaffirming its faith in trade-unionism pure and simple, made it perfectly plain that there was no intention of taking a single step, however short, in the direction pointed to by the organized employers. Mr. Samuel Gompers was re-elected president without opposition, and all his recommendations and policies were emphatically indorsed. In the words of the New York *Sun*, "Under the leadership of Mr. Gompers, unionism will doubtless continue to stand for the union shop, for the use of the union label, and for the maintenance of the boycott."

I may add, that the Central Federated Union of New York has appointed a committee of ten to assist the open-shop crusade; that the New York cap-makers recently struck against a score of firms that had adopted the open-shop plan, and that the Carriage and Wagon Makers' International Union, numbering forty thousand men, has announced its intention of demanding the closed shop in all factories now "open."

A FRENCH ECONOMIST'S SOLUTION.

Since individualism—the principle of personal liberty and equal opportunity—has been so eloquently and freely invoked by the opponents of the closed shop, it is interesting as well as instructive to call attention here to the remarkable book of M. Yves Guyot, ex-minister of the French Republic, economist and individualist of the "Manchester" school, and clear-headed thinker. The title of the work is "Les Conflits du Tra-

vail et leur Solution," and in it the author puts forward a plan for doing away with the war between capital and labor. M. Guyot has no faith in the ordinary methods of trade-unions, and arbitration he regards as a crude and unscientific remedy, a makeshift which sagacious men of affairs are bound to repudiate.

To give M. Guyot's own solution in a few words, it consists in setting up labor exchanges, in making the existing unions contractors—sellers of labor. The employer is no longer a "master;" let him also cease to be a "patron." At present, owing to a false conception of the proper relation between capital and labor, the employer thinks that by paying wages he buys labor. Among free men wages buy, not labor, but the results of labor. Why, asks M. Guyot, should not the unions enter into contracts to sell to employers, *wholesale*, the results of a certain amount of labor? Raw material is bought wholesale, labor is bought at retail, and this being an unbusinesslike, antiquated arrangement, it naturally produces friction and trouble. Employers should contract for so much finished work, and the unions should undertake to do certain work for a definite price and divide the income. The workmen should combine in joint-stock societies to produce and deliver such and such goods. Employers would then go to union headquarters for labor, or the results of labor, as they go for raw materials and machinery to those who supply them.

M. Guyot endeavors to show that this plan would do away with strikes, restriction of outputs, lockouts, etc.; but the point of interest in this connection is that it frankly accepts the exclusive-contract idea, the union shop in a modified form. And this proposal comes from a staunch individualist who is opposed to all paternalism, all oppression, all injustice! The dictum that the open shop is the corollary of individualism and freedom is thus open to serious doubt.

OTHER PHASES OF THE LABOR PROBLEM.

But while the open-shop issue has of late overshadowed other cardinal questions, the latter have not lost their importance. Among these may be named:

The sympathetic strike.

Boycotting, in its abuse if not in its use.

Contract-breaking and general charges of lack of capacity, practical sense, and responsibility in union leaders.

Corruption and blackmail,—offenses that, to whatever extent they actually exist, are infinitely more injurious to the unions than to the employers victimized.

The employers' associations and citizens' alliances have been organized, ostensibly at any rate, to combat, not unionism, but the evils enumerated. Labor leaders retort that employers are guilty of all the practices of which they accuse the other side. There are sympathetic strikes of employers as well as of workmen; blacklisting is merely another name for boycotting, and it is defended (even by some courts) precisely as Mr. Gompers and Mr. Mitchell have defended "limited boycotting." Contract-breaking is by no means the monopoly of unions, and the labor movement is no more to be condemned on account of the ill-considered action of raw and inexperienced men than the business world is to be condemned on account of the endless litigation arising from default, violation of agreements, and sharp practice in business transactions. There is "grafting" in the unions; is there none in business and in public employment?

It is felt, however, by the truest friends of labor, that the leadership and management of the unions call for greater ability and wisdom than is often displayed. Miss Jane Addams has been warning unions of the danger of corruption, of the baleful influence of commercialism, while Dr. Graham Taylor, another leading settlement-worker in Chicago, has told labor that it has nothing to fear nearly so much "as the failure" of its representatives and officers "to appreciate how responsible they are, and will sternly be held to be, for the use they make of the power they are conceded to have."

It were a waste of space to descant upon the immorality and inexpediency of contract-breaking. The slightest intentional breach of an agreement voluntarily made is a severe blow at collective bargaining and the cause of unionism. No responsible leader excuses it, and no fair-minded citizen supposes that organized labor as a whole is chargeable with the practice of repudiation. The sympathetic strike is, however, in a different category.

Legally, it is plain, there is no distinction to be drawn between a "selfish" strike and an "altruistic" strike. Since a free man may quit work for any reason whatever, or without any reason at all, unless he has bound himself by a contract not to, it follows that a strike for the purpose of aiding some other trade or element is as legitimate as a strike for a direct personal reason. If compulsory arbitration is ever established, it will not be confined to sympathetic strikes. Yet, from a practical, "business" point of view, the demand for recognition and collective bargaining is utterly inconsistent with the reservation of the right to strike out of sympathy. What employer will deal with a union

which refuses to sign away the right to strike in sympathy with other men's employees?

It is not, to be sure, easy for the unions to give up the sympathetic strike. What, they ask, would become of their idealism, of their noble motto, "An injury to one is the concern of all?" But the real question is, whether, in the long run, labor's interests are best subserved by the unrestricted freedom of striking, or by agreements with employers containing anti-sympathetic strike clauses. Altruistic strikes will never be sanctioned by the business community, and industrialism has its own ideals and standards. Not all lawful things are expedient or advisable.

Finally, the developments of the present phase of the unionist movement have impressed labor leaders, impartial judges and lawyers, and sober-minded men generally with the need of greater certainty and coherence in the laws or interpretations of law applicable to industrial conflicts. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that nothing is settled in this branch of jurisprudence, and the decisions are confused and confusing. In some cases the old principle of conspiracy has been so applied to modern conditions as to render doubtful the legality of concerted strikes, when the purpose is to compel an employer to do what he would not do without such pressure. On such questions as peaceable picketing, boycotting, liability of organizations for unauthorized acts of officials and agents, or even members, the differences are extreme and hopeless.

Labor has been urged to acquire the status of corporate bodies, on the ground that responsibility should accompany power. As a rule, the unions shrink from incorporation, and the real reason, whether they are fully conscious of it or not, may be found in the chaotic state of the law bearing on their rights, powers, and liabilities. They apprehend continual litigation and malicious attacks upon their funds. The most law-abiding of them do not know how far they may go, and where they must stop. It is sufficient to refer, for illustrative purposes, to the Wabash injunction, so called, which restrained the officers of one of the best-managed unions from calling a strike which the men themselves had authorized and directed them to call. The order was subsequently dissolved, but it is, nevertheless, regarded in certain circles as a precedent.

Among the newer aspects of the industrial movement the legal ones yield to none in importance and gravity. There are cases now pending in the courts of Illinois, Colorado, Connecticut, and New York the disposition of which will affect in no slight degree the course and tactics of union labor.

THE STORY OF A LABOR UNION IN BUSINESS.

BY C. H. QUINN.

THE story of a rare practical experiment in coöperative labor is the history of a labor union that went into business for itself. The result is full of sociological significance. It is a valuable experiment, because it was fought out under every-day conditions, in the midst of the competition and the motives that exist everywhere in the commercial world.

Polishers' Union No. 113, of Rochester, N. Y., was organized in the spring of 1902 by the polishers employed at the Eastman kodak factory. Demands of the union were refused by Manager Frank A. Brownell. A strike followed. Mr. Brownell suggested that the men start a shop of their own. He offered to lease them the necessary plant and give them his work when their bid was as low as that of other shops.

The union decided to adopt Mr. Brownell's suggestion. Thirty-four workmen subscribed for one \$100-share each, and the total represented the capital stock. Business started well, and the coöperative concern prospered. The company was in the open field for business, and secured the Eastman work only when its bids were as low as those of its competitors. After two years and a half what is the condition of the experiment?

From thirty-four owners the thirty-four shares of stock have gradually gravitated into the hands of five of the original stockholders. But that is not the most significant phase of the matter. In the beginning the stockholders were radical union men. Now the five who own the entire stock are advocates of the open shop.

They refuse absolutely to treat with the polishers' union. When the latter urged its rules the five owners declared they would close their plant before they would be dictated to by the union. To seek the reasons for the complete change of position is like probing for the germ of a disease.

It is evident that the open shop is more profitable for the employer, else why should the ones in the experiment so change their views? Did they not demonstrate human nature? The feeling of proprietorship that began to steal upon them as the balance of power came into their hands wrought the gradual change in their minds and completely shifted their point of view.

At the end of the first eighteen months, the number of stockholders was reduced to twenty-

one. The causes of the change in ownership were many, and were such as would occur in a similar experiment the world over. When a stockholder desired to sell out he had, by a rule of the company, to offer his holding to his co-workers first. If they did not buy at his price, the board of directors would set a price. If their figure was not satisfactory, he could then offer it for sale outside, but not for less than he had offered it to the other stockholders.

If business was booming, stock brought a good premium. If there was plenty of work in sight, particularly good premiums were offered. If the future was not more than normally bright, stock would sell only at a discount. The stockholders, of course, received standard wages, besides the dividends on the stock.

Control of the coöperative company's affairs was vested, at the start, in a board of nine directors, chosen from the working stockholders, including the president, vice-president, treasurer, and secretary. All complaints were referred to a shop committee of three, whose dictum was final. The board of directors selected the shop foreman, who served until replaced by another choice of the board.

Naturally enough there were many incidents that required diplomacy, and the experimenters had a large and valuable experience in seeing things from the standpoint of an employer. There were many long conferences over the shop and business policy.

As the original coöperators sold their shares to other stockholders, it became necessary to hire men to take the places of the sellers, who left. Some who sold their stock remained at work as the employees of their former partners. Thus, there are now a former president and other ex-officers working at the bench. The men now work by the piece.

One noteworthy feature of the experiment in coöperation is the number of men who, from it, started in business for themselves. It proved a practical school of business for them. It incited many of the original stockholders to quit the shop and enter some enterprise as proprietor.

The present owners of the thirty-four shares of stock are doing a good business, and feel independent enough to fix their own scale of wages and tell the union that they will run an open shop if they want to.

THE PROGRESS CHINA IS MAKING.

BY PROFESSOR JEREMIAH W. JENKS.

(Member of the Commission on International Exchange.)

CHINA has been generally referred to until of late years as an unprogressive country, with her industries stagnant, her government asleep. Since the Boxer troubles in 1900, however, there has been a feeling that there is more energy in China, however misdirected, than had been supposed. There has been much talk, too, of railroads, telegraphs, technical schools, and other evidences of Western culture, so that many have wondered if China were not about to give us an example of an Oriental nation taking on Western habits of thought and living, such as has been given us by Japan. But there has been much misconception about these changes, and the reasons for them. We need a closer study.

CHINESE IDEALS DIFFERENT FROM OURS.

The Chinese have not been asleep. The marked intelligence, the untiring vigilance, the mental acuteness, shown even by the ordinary laundryman, or coolie, who has found his way to America would serve to show that even the lowest in the population have an active intelligence and business qualifications far surpassing those of many other peoples whom we have been disposed to rank higher in the social scale. It is, however, difficult for any one to judge others justly when their views of life, their habits of living, and their ideals are different, and we, in consequence, have largely misjudged the Chinese, thinking them backward when they are merely different; uncultured, simply because they do not care for our culture; degraded because some of their practices, being strange to us, have seemed to us wrong. We should do better, perhaps, if we were to realize that their judgments of us have been no less severe, that their contempt for us has been no less scornful than ours for them, and that, after all, their judgment has perhaps been about as nearly right as ours. From our own point of view, of course, we shall appear to ourselves to be the better, the more progressive; but we must also expect that from their point of view they will appear to themselves to be the nation most in advance.

We would hardly deny that, when we contrast ourselves with the Chinese, we are referring largely to our mechanical inventions, to

our extended commerce, to our habits of living which add to our physical comforts,—in short, to the progress that we have made in controlling natural forces. They, on the other hand, would say that all of these things are matters of secondary consequence; that they consider of far more importance than these material things peace, comfort among the people, scholarship, right living, observance of the family relations, reverence for parents and ancestors, devotion to the Emperor; and although we might call attention to the multitudes of examples of officials who, through their selfish corruption, have betrayed the welfare of their country, to ignorance of the simplest sanitary principles which has led to an appalling death-rate in their centers of population, and to their readiness to gratify their lower sensual natures in ways that would shock the moral sense of an American community, we should still have to confess that nowhere else in the world, perhaps, is there to-day so active and so universal a regard for the higher learning, as they understand it, so universal and profound a reverence for the teachers of culture and morals, and so rigid an observance on the part of the great masses of the people of their principles of religion and morals, however ill-defined and crude and false from our view-point these principles may be. But they are changing, and in our direction.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.

One of the chief objects for witty comment on the part of travelers in the interior of China is the Chinese road. Many of the great highways which have served as the arteries of inland commerce for centuries are never worked, so that the active winds, blowing away the dust raised by the cart-wheels for centuries, have made out of roads deep channels, sometimes fifteen or twenty feet deep, like huge ditches cut through the fields, and in order to escape these trenches, which at times become flowing rivers, the roads have spread over the surrounding fields as far as the owners would permit. But since the railroads have begun to show the great advantages of a more rapid interchange of goods between the different parts of the country, and since the Chinese have begun to learn some of the advantages that come from more

active governmental intervention, in many places the local officials have begun to repair the roads, and the welfare of the whole community is being kept to the fore, as against the selfish interests of individuals. Although only a beginning has been made, there is perhaps no other single fact more significant of the Western way of looking at things than that the public highways are, in some localities, beginning to be recognized as belonging to the public, and as subject to administration in the interests of the public.

The foreigners, of course, have been most prominent in advocating the building of railroads over the lines of the great highways of commerce in China. We all know the opposition which was at first raised to the introduction of the railroads, partly because they were new, partly for the reasons so long advocated in England and the United States, that they would ruin the traffic by animal power, and largely also because in many cases they were certain to disturb the ancestral graves. On the other hand, the two or three roads already built have shown their benefits so clearly, even to the great masses of the common people, who are extremely fond of traveling, packing themselves by thousands into the open third-class cars, that, with the practical sense for which the Chinese have long been distinguished, they are rapidly finding means to overcome the difficulties. The foreigners have shown themselves willing to pay for the lands used by the road. The line can, without much difficulty, ordinarily, be laid so as to avoid the tombs of the great, while the payment of a few dollars,—say, from three to five,—for the grave of a poor man is ample to convince his surviving relatives that his spirit can rest in peace equally well in some neighboring locality. Owing to the political complications which have arisen in connection with some of the foreign concessions, the Chinese are rapidly reaching the conclusion that most of the roads to be built hereafter should be constructed either solely with Chinese capital, or at least with sufficient Chinese capital to keep the control. Doubtless, in many cases the Chinese are unduly prejudiced, but they have at times been most unfairly treated. Comparatively soon, however, they will learn how to get the benefit of foreign experience for their railroads, while at the same time protecting themselves against foreign domination. This is sure: the Chinese are determined to have their country reasonably well equipped with railroads in the not-distant future; and then, beyond all question, the Chinese people will so patronize these roads, both for passengers and for freight, that all those lines which are laid out with due care will be a financial success.

Years ago the Chinese officials had recognized the advantages of instantaneous communication by telegraph, so that lines were promptly built, and now there are telegraph lines throughout China in all the provinces, even in many cities of relatively small importance. Although these lines are chiefly, possibly, for government use, they are still used commercially, and in time this may well become the chief use. In the larger cities, such as Shanghai and Tien-tsin, the telephone is in common use, not only among the foreigners, but with the abler Chinese as well, while even the long-distance telephone between Peking and Tien-tsin is in constant use by the officials. The modern post-office facilities in the larger places are good, and are cheaper than in America. Modern inventions, like the bicycle and automobile, are rapidly increasing in use, and where they are suited to Chinese habits they soon become popular. Even in the far interior, hundreds of miles from seacoast or railroad, kerosene oil from Russia or America is in frequent use, while hand mirrors and other toilet articles from Germany are displayed in many shops.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS.

Although most of the Chinese doubtless still believe that their system of education is far better from the standpoint of the higher culture than Western training, their sad experience with foreigners in warfare, and the practical evidence of the superior power of the foreigners in securing many kinds of comforts which even the Chinese recognize as beneficial, have led them to see that Western learning cannot be ignored. In many of the public examinations, therefore, questions in foreign learning are introduced; the missionary schools throughout the country are well patronized by many of the Chinese, even when they have no idea of subscribing to Christian doctrines, and good technical schools, especially military schools, are founded and supported by viceroys in different parts of China. This movement, particularly the development of technical and military schools, is bound to continue, so that within a comparatively few years China will possess many schools which can give a fair degree of training in Western learning, while thousands of the Chinese, of the wealthy and official classes, will be sent abroad to get the best training which the world affords in the various lines of knowledge which they most desire.

Some foreign countries are beginning to realize the benefits that may accrue to their commerce and to their political relations with China from this training of Chinese students. In consequence they are putting forth great efforts to

secure as many of them as possible. In this competition for students we are greatly hampered. Students can be supported in Belgium or Germany much cheaper than in the United States, while in Japan, counting transportation, from five to eight students can be trained for the cost of one in the United States. Some of the Chinese viceroys have lamented the fact that they cannot send more of their students to the United States on account of the greater cost, although, other things being equal, they prefer the American training.

EFFICIENCY OF THE ARMY.

Not only are the Chinese attempting to fit themselves for meeting foreign troops by founding military schools for the training of officers, but the viceroys are enlisting armies that are drilling under foreign instructors and under foreign-trained Chinese, so that they may be fitted, if the need should arise, to meet foreign troops on the battlefield. While Chinese troops, at the time of the China-Japan war, were the laughing-stock of the world, it should not be forgotten that the chief cause of their failure was lack of anything like competent command. Chinese troops trained under foreign officers become very efficient. There can be no question of the personal bravery of the Chinese, of their indifference to wounds and death, and of their power to endure hardships. Given trained officers in whom they have confidence, the Chinese soldiers may well become the equal of those of any of the Western nations. Even now, under some of the more progressive viceroys, a review that a decade ago would have presented the sorry spectacle of an unkempt, ill-equipped, straggling crowd, now shows trim, well-clad, well-armed, well-drilled battalions that can march as promptly and camp in as orderly a fashion as many of the foreign troops seen in China in 1900. It will not be many years before China will be able to put into the field a well-trained army that at need may well become formidable. At present one sees but the beginnings; but the results of 1896 and 1900 are not forgotten, and there can be no doubt that most of the progressive men in China are determined to have a large and good army in the not-distant future.

Of even more striking significance is the movement, recently inaugurated, toward centralizing the control of the army. Heretofore the army has been equipped and handled by the various viceroys. Now there is a central army board, which partly controls the troops of the different viceroys; and if, ten years hence, a great war should arise, practically all the drilled troops in China will be handled as a unit and

placed wherever they can be made most effective against the enemy.

UNITY OF ADMINISTRATION.

The need of centralized governmental organization in all directions is felt now more than ever before by most of the Chinese officials of the more progressive type. Many of their younger advisers and secretaries have studied abroad, and are able to outline the methods of foreign centralized administration. Moreover, the sufferings of China, within the last ten years, have shown the higher officials the need of centralized direction, such as the control of their internal affairs had never before made necessary. The trained Chinese, although they may be woefully ignorant in matters of Western learning, are by no means unintelligent, and when they see clearly the need for change in their methods in order to bring about a practical result, that change will be made. Not merely is centralization coming in matters of military administration, but their railroad and mining administrations are being made uniform and directed by a central board.

In their late treaties they have agreed to establish one uniform monetary system for the whole empire to take the place of the present inextricably confused lack of system in monetary matters, which gives to almost every separate locality in the huge empire a local money different from that found elsewhere,—a confusion which places among the people a horde of money-changers, who grow rich at the expense of trade. This unification of moneys will be of the greatest benefit.

THE BOARD OF COMMERCE.

A very noteworthy change in the attitude of the Chinese Government toward Western learning and administration is the creation lately of the Board of Commerce, which is to be the directing authority over railroads, mines, telegraphs, and other commercial and industrial developments throughout all China. The head of the government, the Prince of Ch'ing, has placed his son in the presidency, and the ambitious board is reaching out for power in all directions in a manner worthy of the most strenuous Western enterprise. Doubtless, more or less jealousy has arisen and will arise between this board and others; but a contest for work and power among different divisions of a government is not unknown elsewhere, and if that work can be kept directed toward public ends instead of private plunder, it can redound only to the good of the country; while the taking up of commercial questions so prominently by the cen-

tral government, which heretofore has practically ignored everything of the kind, except in so far as the necessary provision for the revenue of the central government was concerned, is a most hopeful sign of progress.

YOUNGER MEN AS ADMINISTRATORS.

Another sign of the modern spirit, as it has in many cases been exemplified of late years even among Western nations, and in our own country, is seen in the increasing prominence given to young men, and the important administrative positions given into their care. The Empress-Dowager, although past seventy years of age, and although she has been a conservative of the conservatives (to put the matter mildly), is, nevertheless, from the best information that one can secure, one of those ever-youthful spirits that do things,—restless, eager for power, unhesitating as to means where the desired end is clearly in view. She has, beyond doubt, recognized that if China is to hold her own against the Western powers, many of the Western methods of administration and much of the Western learning must be adopted. She has also recognized the need of energy and thoroughness in administration. It is doubtless due as much to her modernized Chinese spirit as to the naturally progressive tendencies of the Emperor that many positions formerly held by aged men, who were supposed to secure success through the wisdom of years, are now given to younger men, whose success is to be attained by energy in administration. The most important viceroalties, with one exception, are now held by vigorous men not beyond their prime. Many of the governors and provincial treasurers are young men. The leading boards in Peking, with one or two exceptions, are filled largely by men in the prime of life, many of them under fifty. In some instances the positions most prominent in honor are held by older men, while their chief councilors, who practically direct the administration, are young men. Until within a few years men of foreign training seemed to be kept rather in the background, the government feeling that they were perhaps no longer Chinese in sympathy; but now the need of people with foreign training to cope with foreigners is increasingly felt, and to-day many important secretaryships, with practically directing power so long as the holders show sufficient tact, are in the hands of men of foreign training. This is possibly the most hopeful sign of progress in the empire. Even where men without foreign training exercise the power, they are often men of the modern spirit, who are doing everything possible to train their younger men in modern lines.

PROGRESS IN THE EMPIRE.

The fact of Chinese progress in Western methods cannot be denied. The further fact, that this progress will soon be greatly intensified, is also beyond question. It is, therefore, important to inquire what are the motives of the Chinese Government in encouraging this development. The motives determine the use, hostile or friendly, to be made of the new power. Are the Chinese enamored of Western learning? Do they humbly think that they are being improved by the adoption of Western manners? Quiet conversation with friendly Chinese who have confidence in your discretion and sympathy will soon dispel any such belief. The humiliating experiences of 1895 and of 1900 showed the Chinese that in war they were no match for the Westerners. The loss of territory to France, to England, to Germany, to Russia, to Japan, within the last few years, and the aggressive threats of the representatives of most of these powers at different times, convinced them that China, as a territorial and governmental entity, would soon cease to exist if they did not make themselves able to resist foreign aggression; have convinced them, therefore, of the absolute necessity of adopting foreign learning so far as it is necessary to strengthen them for war.

Those of the Chinese who have studied abroad, and have become familiar with the foreign home and with the moral excellence of some of the Western doctrines as actually lived by some of the best of the foreign people, believe that in many individual particulars Western customs are superior to their own, but this belief is by no means general even among the higher classes, and probably, with scarcely an exception, they all believe that in very many respects the Chinese civilization, and particularly the Chinese ideals of life, are superior. The Chinese are making little effort to cultivate Western art, to study Western literature, to adopt the Western religions, to adopt even Western methods of government, except so far as these things contribute directly to their power of resistance to Western aggression. It is probably not at all unjust to conclude that the Chinese are not adopting Western methods because they recognize their essential superiority, but because they will thereby be better enabled to meet the Westerners on even terms in the contest which they believe to be inevitable for the protection of Chinese territory and of Chinese civilization. But the Chinese are not aggressive, and there is every reason to believe that nations that are willing to do justice will receive from them just treatment in return.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

AN INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF AGRICULTURE.

IN response to the invitation of the Italian Government, upon the initiative of King Victor Emmanuel, there will gather, on May 28, in Rome, delegates from a number of countries to establish an international chamber of agriculture. The King, in his admirably brief and clear letter to Premier Giolitti calling the con-

ference, gives credit for the idea to an American, Mr. David Lubin, of California, who, he says, explained the idea to him "with the warmth that comes from sincere conviction." Mr. Lubin, in explaining why he chose Italy to promulgate the idea, says: "Italy, being a nation of medium importance in international agriculture, would not arouse the jealousy of other nations in issuing the call." Furthermore, "the beauties of Italian soil and the classic glories of her history form an attraction for foreigners of whatsoever nationality, and arouse the affection and sympathy of all nations." The idea was first publicly expressed at Budapest in 1896, but was the growth of thirteen years' thought and work preceding this date. In an address

at Vienna, in March last, Mr. Lubin outlined the history of his idea and told of his efforts to secure protection for the staples of American agriculture by a bounty on exports of the same.

The invitation of the Italian Government was at once approved by a number of different organizations in the United States, among them the National Allied Agricultural Associations of America and the American Federation of Labor, these organizations together representing nearly four million wage-earners. In urging President Roosevelt to send delegates to the conference, these organizations suggested the desirability of his naming at least one real farmer and one ranchman. Evidently not moved by this appeal, the President named, as representatives of the Government, Hon. Henry White, the new ambassador to Italy, and Mr. Albert F. Woods, vegetable pathologist of the Department of Agriculture. Early in April, the general committee decided that each country might be represented, in addition to the government delegates, by delegates from agricultural associations.

SOME ITALIAN COMMENT.

All of the Italian reviews which comment at all on the coming congress are warm in their praise of the King for his effort in behalf of agriculturists. The *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) contents itself with presenting the official documents, without comment. The editor of the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), however, Deputy Maggiorino Ferraris, waxes eloquent in praise of the King and the project, which is quite in line with many articles he has published during the past five years. In the *Italia Moderna* (Rome) there are two articles on the subject,—one by Signor A. Agresti, warmly supporting the plan, and another by Signor Antonio Monzilli, caustically criticising the whole scheme as ill-advised and inadequate to combat the evils from which Italian agriculture suffers.

The idea is perhaps best stated in the paragraph of the King's letter following the introduction, in which he mentions the need of more solidarity among agriculturists. He says:

For this reason, an international institution, absolutely unpolitical in its aims, which would have before it the conditions of agriculture in the different countries of the world; which would notify periodically the



KING VICTOR EMMANUEL III.

ference, gives credit for the idea to an American, Mr. David Lubin, of California, who, he says, explained the idea to him "with the warmth that comes from sincere conviction." Mr. Lubin, in explaining why he chose Italy to promulgate the idea, says: "Italy, being a nation of medium importance in international agriculture, would not arouse the jealousy of other nations in issuing the call." Furthermore, "the beauties of Italian soil and the classic glories of her history form an attraction for foreigners of whatsoever nationality, and arouse the affection and sympathy of all nations." The idea was first publicly expressed at Budapest in 1896, but was the growth of thirteen years' thought and work preceding this date. In an address

quantity and the quality of the crops in hand, so as to facilitate the production of such crops and render less costly and more rapid the trade in same and facilitate the attainment of a more favorable settlement of prices, would be most highly beneficial. This institution, acting in unison with the various national associations already constituted for similar purposes, would also furnish reliable information as to the demand and supply of agricultural labor in various parts of the world, so as to provide emigrants with a safe and useful guide; it would promote those agreements necessary for collective defense against diseases of plants and domestic animals which cannot be successfully fought by means of partial action; and, lastly, it would exercise a timely influence on the development of societies for rural coöperation, for agricultural insurance, and for agrarian credit.

FUNCTIONS OF SUCH A CHAMBER.

Discussing these concrete functions, Deputy Ferraris, in his article in the *Nuova Antologia*, says: "Celebrated above all is the United States Department of Agriculture, to whose publications, as to those of the decennial agricultural census, the whole world is debtor for a rich treasure of information and observations." As Germany conferred vast benefits by suggesting the Universal Postal Union, so Italy will do by her initiative in uniting all the national institutions for the furtherance of agriculture. This first function, he states, might develop in the following directions:

1. Statistical, in gathering information as to prices, production, transportation, and commerce of agricultural products.
2. Economic, as concerns property conditions, agricultural and mortgage credit, coöperation, tariffs, and transportation.
3. Technical, respecting the progress of scientific agriculture, agricultural chemistry, and agricultural machinery.
4. Legislative, concerning agrarian legislation in the various countries.
5. Social, as regards emigration, wages, conditions of living, hygiene, and provident and beneficent institutions for peasants and agricultural laborers.
6. Commercial, as a bureau of information for producers and consumers of the whole world.

Both Deputy Ferraris and Signor Agresti (in his article in the *Italia Moderna*) argue as to the need of agriculturists organizing to defend themselves against the associated workmen on the one hand and the monopolizing capitalists on the other, though, as the latter writer urges, this organization should not be an aggressive, hostile act, but rather a movement to raise up the most numerous class of laborers from the oppression and misery in which they now live.

To be fruitful, the struggle against secular habits, against now decrepit social forms, cannot and should not be monopolized by a single class, either that of the capitalists or that of the industrial proletariat, but

should be the common work of men who all seek by their individual means to harmonize the collective interests so as to render all equally dear and equally beneficial to all.

Signor Agresti says, further: "It is certain that a bourse, established by the governments in the interests of agricultural producers, from which would be sent, directly to the seats of the associated organizations, the information specially interesting the producers, would be the most powerful and energetic defense against the trusts, the monopolies, and the artificial manipulation of prices."

"AGRICULTURE MUST ORGANIZE."

The dignified daily of Rome, the *Tribuna*, in commenting on this project, says:

Agriculture must organize. Not only must this be done for a locality, but for all localities. And all of these organizations must be united in a federation which shall guide and direct, for without this central body the isolated unions would be powerless. This, however, is not the whole of the matter, for the price of agricultural products is not alone determined by local and national conditions, but also and preëminently by international conditions. And it is exactly this international field which regulates and fixes the prices of farming products, that to-day is taken care of by commerce and finance to the exclusion of the rightful party in interest,—namely, the farmer.

Periodicals in other countries comment appreciatively on the idea. The London *Standard* considers that "a chamber of commerce, such as the King of Italy suggests, cannot but render more general, and put at the disposition of all agriculturists in every country, that economical and commercial knowledge which is particularly necessary to render their occupation flourishing and profitable." The *Humanité*, of Paris, thinks that "the idea is excellent. By means of the multiplication of international organs we shall prepare, not only the peace of the world, but also the liberation of the workman." The *Berliner Tageblatt* believes that "the institution will be for the comparative study of agriculture what the international office of longitude of Paris is for the development of the metric system." Mr. Nugent Harris, secretary of the society of English Agriculturists, says (in the London *Daily News*): "The International Institute will be the crown of the work we are accomplishing in England. That which our general society does here, the project of the King of Italy will do for the whole world."

It was reserved for an article by an Italian (the paper of Signor Monzilli in the *Italia Moderna* already referred to) to severely criticise the whole scheme. Mr. Lubin, says Signor Monzilli, argues only from conditions in the

United States. All through the ages, he continues, Europe has been familiar with organizations of workmen and merchants, while agriculture has been content to dwell apart, selling its products and satisfied with the aid lent by industrial labor and commerce in making up and disposing of these products. Certainly, the unprecedented proportions of modern industrial organizations have acted upon agriculturists, but not in the way Mr. Lubin claims,—at least, not in Europe, where railroad rates are controlled by the state. Signor Monzilli thinks the action of the trusts in raising prices is against the interests of consumers, surely, but for the benefit of the producers, though naturally in less degree than for the trusts themselves.

"In reality, a trust is not possible without the aid of the producers," he declares. He further says that trusts such as Mr. Lubin describes cannot exist in Europe, whose varied products, participating in the world's markets, so far as he knows, do not feel the influence of the trusts.

Moreover, to put an end to the "chaos and anarchy" that Mr. Lubin thinks exist, he would fight by an organization identical with that of industry. We should have, then, great trusts of agricultural producers which should hold high the prices of products to assure to the agriculturists the greater profits that now, as he asserts, go only to the pockets of the trust members. For the consumers, the situation would remain unchanged.

In short, Signor Monzilli deems that action against the trusts should be in the interest of the consumers, and that it should be begun by

a great industrial and commercial nation like England.

WOULD THE IDEA BE FEASIBLE?

This writer lays agricultural poverty in the older countries largely to the enormously increased production, not only of new fields more favorably situated, but also of the older lands, and the growing cheapness and ease of transportation. Add to this the greater fiscal burdens of European agriculture, the greater expense of cultivating the soil, the greater cost of the means of subsistence, and the rise in the standard of living of the producers, and, according to this writer, the bad state of agriculture is fully accounted for. He adds:

These causes can certainly not be removed by the international organization conceived by Mr. Lubin. The struggle will continue intense. Every country will seek to adopt all the means it deems proper to produce more and at less cost, in order to overcome the competition of the others, and, as in the past, every country will have recourse to tariff to make up for the greater cost of its own products compared with those of foreign countries.

Moreover, he thinks the lack of organization and solidarity of the agriculturists must be greatly exaggerated, when just now they are imposing their will on European governments. He cites France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and even Switzerland, as recent scenes of triumph for the agrarians in forcing new tariffs and new laws. Italy, indeed, has done less in this line, but, he asks, is it necessary to call an international congress to take note of her weakness in this respect?

BRITISH AGRICULTURE,—GERMANY'S EXAMPLE.

AMERICA may yet profit from the experience of older countries in the husbanding of natural resources.

Mr. O. E. Eltzbacher contributes to the *Contemporary Review* a very interesting and suggestive paper on the agricultural prosperity of Germany. Germany became prosperous by imitating England; now England must go to school to Germany.

HOW ENGLAND LED THE WAY.

Mr. Eltzbacher says:

On the model of British agriculture the present prosperity of the agriculture of Germany and France was founded, incredible as it may seem if we compare the agricultural position of those countries with ours at the present day. Coöperation for agricultural purposes first sprang up in this country, but, owing to the indifference of the state, coöperation among farmers has

not spread far in Great Britain. In Germany there is, on an average, one coöperative society for every three hundred individual holdings. Great Britain was the pioneer, not only in empiric methods of cultivation and in the introduction of improved machinery, but also in making scientific experiments in matters agricultural, which proved of incalculable help to Germany. The greatest chemists were, and are still, Frenchmen and Englishmen.

WHAT MUST BE DONE NOW.

The sturdy English race of former times is becoming almost extinct, and is being replaced by a puny, stunted, sickly, sterile, narrow-chested, weak-boned, short-sighted, and rotten-toothed race. What Great Britain requires for the salvation of her agriculture is, in the first place, the gradual creation of a substantial peasant class, who work with their own hands on freehold agricultural properties of moderate size. If we wish to possess again flourishing rural industries, we must begin at the base, and must first of all abolish the present

system of land tenure and replace it by a system of freehold properties. We must begin by giving to our agriculture a stable, safe, and permanent basis.

More money must be spent on agricultural education.

The Prussian ministry of agriculture spends yearly about two hundred thousand pounds on agricultural education in all its branches, and the sum total spent by all the German governments and local authorities in this direction must amount to about five hundred thousand pounds.

Coöperative societies must be multiplied, and markets created to eliminate the middleman.

The German housewife goes to the market for her supply. In this country she has to go to the shops, unless the shopman "calls for orders," and as the turnover of the average greengrocer is very small, and as the goods are easily perishable, the shopman has to charge two, three, or four times the price which the producer receives.

ABOVE ALL, CHEAPER RAILWAY RATES!

In the light of American agitation for lower railroad rates, Mr. Eltzbacher's complaint against the English railroads is suggestive.

While the German peasants travel fourth-class at about a farthing a mile, and are allowed to take into the carriages, which are specially built for that purpose, huge baskets full of produce which are carried free of charge, British railway charges are so high, even for carrying large quantities of farm produce, that every night long strings of carts may be seen carrying agri-

cultural produce from the country into London and other big towns. Only in that country which was the pioneer in railway transport the railways are allowed to extort from the countrymen freight charges which even now make the medieval form of transport the cheaper one. In that country which, after Belgium, possesses the densest railway net in the world droves of cattle and flocks of sheep may be seen walking from Scotland to London, while in Germany cattle transport by road is almost unknown. In our congested towns, millions of poor are crying for cheap food, and in our deserted and reduced country districts hundreds of thousands of impoverished farmers are crying for town prices for their vegetables, their meat, their fruit, etc. Yet the bitter cry of country and town remains unheard. Consumers and producers cannot meet because our railway companies stand between the two and forbid it by exacting a ruinous toll in the form of railway rates which are without a parallel in the world.

Mr. Eltzbacher concludes his paper by saying that he has shown why Germany, which has a poor soil, an unfavorable climate, an unfortunate geographical position and structure, and a somewhat dull-minded country population, possesses a powerful, flourishing, and expanding agriculture, while Great Britain, which has the most fruitful soil in northern Europe, a mild and equable climate, a most favorable geographical position and structure, an enterprising and energetic population, and a great agricultural past, has rural industries which have been decaying for three decades. But the ills from which she suffers are curable, and that is the hope of it.

FRANCE AND THE MILLIONS SHE HAS LOANED TO RUSSIA.

A STRONG, earnest protest against any more Russian loans from France appears in *La Revue*, under the title "How to Save Our Nine Millions" (9,000,000,000 francs, or \$1,800,000,000). The writer, who signs himself "A Friend of the Alliance," declares that France is in the position of one who allows her *fiancé*, before the solemn act of marriage, to take possession of her dowry. Before receiving satisfactory proof of the real sentiments of her august ally, France has imprudently loaned her all her money. How much does the loan amount to? It would be difficult to say precisely, for in her capacity of generous lover, unable to reckon the amount, France has given whatever Russia has asked. Here France seems to have lost all notion of foresight. From the financial point of view, she is still in the honeymoon, and there has been absolutely no restraint put on the emigration of the French public fortune. France, moreover, in addition to making large advances to Russia, has saved and maintained the credit of her ally.

For Russia! For Russia! Always for Russia. There is a war of madness,—France furnishes the money. Russia loses her fleet, and then is defeated in a number of great battles; the stupidity of her generals and the shameful corruption of her administration is known to the whole world,—France furnishes the money. The world begins to lose all hope in the final result of this terrible disaster,—still France furnishes the money. An internal revolution breaks out; the Russian Government finds itself at war with its own laboring classes, with its intellectuals, with its *noblesse*; political assassinations portend the overturn of the empire and the triumph of revolution; bombs bursting on all sides make known in dark, sinister tones the break-up of the Russian Empire,—and France still furnishes the money.

In October, 1904, Russia's debt to France was said to amount to twelve thousand million francs, but in 1897 it was estimated to have reached eleven thousand millions, and certain economists have gone so far as to put the amount at fourteen or fifteen thousand million of francs. The writer, however, is willing to take as the debt the minimum of nine thousand million francs

(about one thousand eight hundred million dollars), which is the sum acknowledged by the official representatives of the Russian treasury at the beginning of 1904.

Her immense sacrifices of money, this writer continues, have given France the right to speak plainly to her ally. What, then, are the contingencies which France has to fear? And what are the duties which she owes to her ally?

The public debt of Russia, according to the writer, surpasses the public debts of Prussia and all the German states put together. It has risen from 4,423,000,000 rubles in 1889 to 6,644,000,000 rubles in 1903, during fourteen years of peace. There are other liabilities besides, such as the railway guaranties of the treasury, etc.



M. KOKOVTSSEV.

(Russian minister of finance.)

It must be borne in mind that all the money borrowed from France has been spent on useless armaments or unproductive industries. When we reflect on the sacrifices of every kind which the war will necessitate, it is easy to understand that the material position of the Russian Empire will be defective for many a year.

The Russian people recognize the folly of continuing the war with Japan, and Russia can only look to France for more money; but in making further loans France will not only risk losing these, but the previous loans as well. Why does the Russian Government not have the moral courage shown by Italy after her defeat by Menelik of Abyssinia? She admitted the defeat, stopped the useless destruction of men and

property, and thus won the respect of the entire civilized world.

Another risk is the varying value of the ruble. Again, the State Bank of Russia, unlike those of France, England or Germany, is not independent of the government. There is, indeed, little serious financial control in Russia. The writer quotes official figures which were published to show that while the Russian expenditure increased in 1904, the receipts had gone up in like proportion; but the writer maintains that on closer examination of this budget it was found that the sum borrowed from France in 1904 figured in the receipts.

Apart from material interests, France must not forget her moral interests. Seeing that the division between the Russian Government and the Russian people is so great, France ought not to aid the bureaucracy which oppresses and ruins the people. What right has France to speak of friendship or sympathy if by her loans she is contributing to the continuance of the war and the maintenance of the autocracy?

France and Japan's Resources.

In the following number of *La Revue*, the same writer discusses "The French Millions and the Finances of Japan." Affairs are progressing rapidly toward peace, says this writer, and the French people can render no greater, more valuable, service to their allies, the Russian people, than in encouraging them in every way possible to put an end to their mad war. Peace once concluded, and real liberty once accorded to the citizens of Russia, there can be no manner of doubt whatever that as many millions as may be necessary for the rational evolution of Russia's destiny will be furnished by France. The republic will loan in unlimited amounts for the works of peace, but not another centime should she advance for cannon and stores which are destined to fall into the hands of the Japanese.

A close analysis follows of the economic resources of Japan, which, this writer confesses, are much greater than France or the rest of Europe had supposed. The resources of Japan, says "A Friend of the Alliance," are such that those who are counseling a prosecution of the war by Russia are really not friends of the Russian people, but are working for Japan. His analysis of the economic and industrial capacity of the Japanese people shows that even in war time their production and finances have stood the tests and increased. All this, he points out, has impressed the rest of the world, and, while Russia finds it difficult to secure further financial assistance, Japan can borrow on excellent terms even in Germany.

THE BATTLE OF MUKDEN.

IT is now generally conceded that the battle of Mukden (February 20 to March 15) was one of the greatest, if not the greatest, in history. The plan on the following page shows the main positions of the Japanese and Russian forces at the opening and middle stages of the contest. During the last days of February, the center of the Russian army rested on the Sha-ho. Its right wing, commanded by General Kaulbars, was distant from its left wing, commanded by General Linevitch, present commander-in-chief, more than one hundred and twenty miles. By the seizure of a pass on his right wing, the Japanese drew Kuropatkin's attention to his left. This they followed up by a great flanking movement, under General Kuroki, commanding the Japanese right. While the Russians were thus kept busy on their left flank, General Nogi, with the veterans of Port Arthur, commanding the Japanese left, made a great turning movement to Sin-Min-Tun, and fell upon the Russian right, forcing it back parallel to the railway. Kuropatkin, believing that the main Japanese army was now on his flanks, withdrew the larger portion of his forces from the front on the Sha-ho. Oku and Nodzu then drove a wedge through the weakened Russian center, and, despite all the efforts of Linevitch, Kaulbars, and Rennenkampff, forced the Russians into a disastrous retreat. According to the revised figures of the number of men engaged and the casualties in this battle, Kuropatkin had 350,000 men, Oyama 350,000 to 400,000, and the respective losses were (in killed, wounded, and prisoners): Kuropatkin, 107,000; Oyama, 57,000.

While political battles,—that is, battles forced on a commander by rational considerations,—have been the rule rather than the exception in this war, the battle of Mukden does not come under that heading. It is rather, says Col. C. E. Beresford, of the British army (writing in the *National Review*), an example of a chief abandoning the initiative to an adversary who has chosen his own time and place for attack. In this case, Marshal Oyama carefully considered the character of his opponent, the value, number, and position of his troops. He kept the Russians in ignorance of his own force and dispositions, and knew how to profit by the favorable climatic moment. It was when the intense cold was over, but the rivers Sha and Hun in front of him could still be crossed on the ice, that he began to deliver his blow. In brief, this was what happened: Oyama, with his immediate command under Nodzu, held the Russian left and center, while Kuroki and Nogi

turned Kuropatkin's flanks and Oku split the front of their army facing on the Sha-ho. Although the Russian and Japanese losses together are officially given as 163,000, they probably amount to fully 250,000 killed, wounded, missing, and prisoners. The results, for the world in general, says Colonel Beresford, in conclusion, are even more considerable than those of Metz or Sedan.

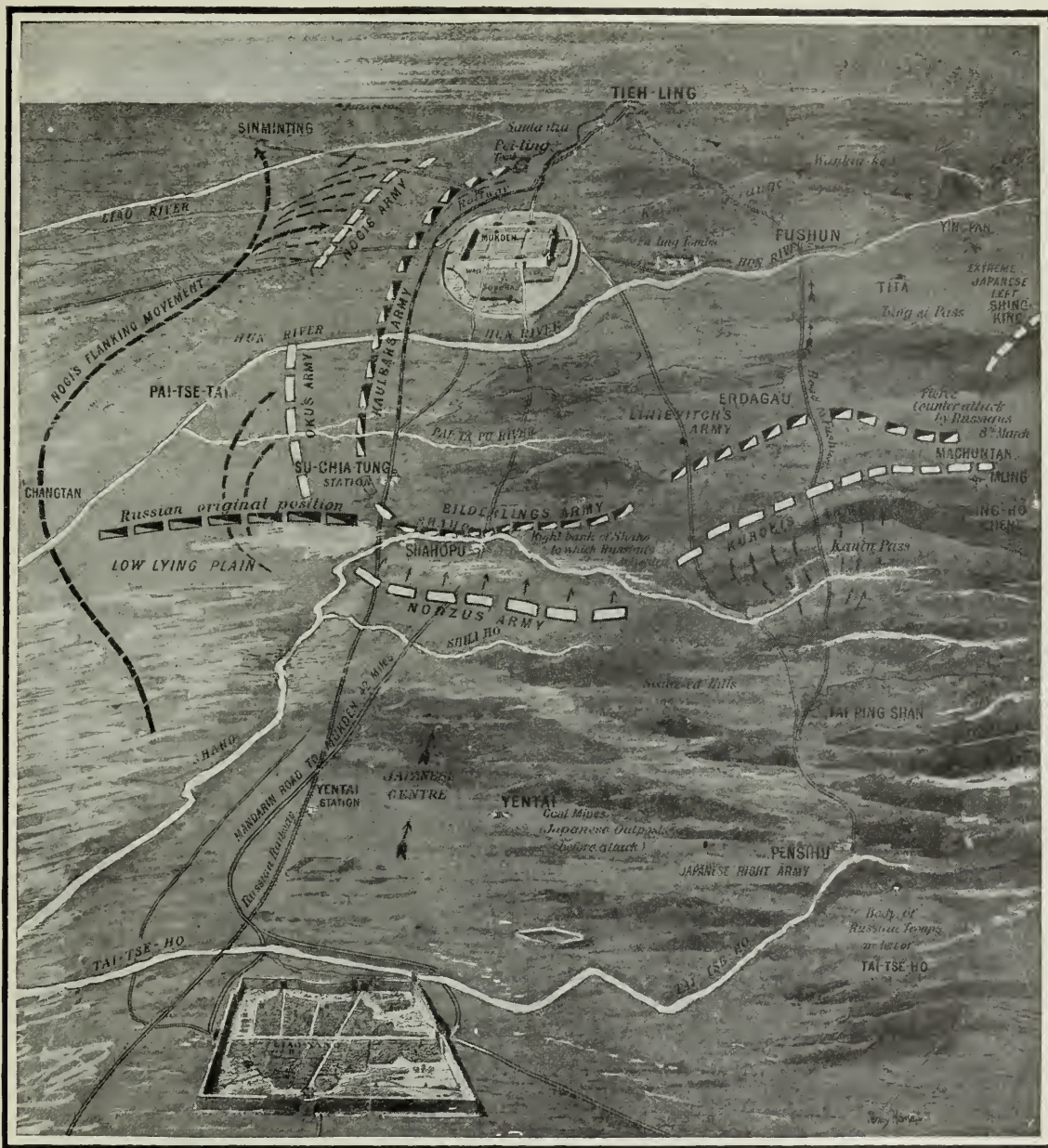
Every arm-chair critic, every disappointed or mediocre commander, will hastily throw all the blame on Kuropatkin. I have endeavored to show that the reports he received during the battle were misleading. He has had, since the commencement of the campaign, an enemy to deal with more serious even than the Japanese. An enemy that has conquered us all,—the crass stupidity of human nature! If Russia is wise, she will make peace. She has no other commander who can reverse the situation. Kuropatkin warned her that war with Japan was very dangerous. If she takes him, M. Witte, and Prince Hilkooff as counselors, she may yet be saved from ruin.

The editor of the *National*, in his comment on the significance of the battle, says:

Europe finds itself obliged to revise its estimate of Japanese military capacity. Hitherto, though eloquent tributes have been paid to the daring and devotion of Japanese troops, and to the unflinching moral courage with which they have been handled by their officers, it was suggested by Western wiseacres that Japanese genius was of that comparatively humdrum order which consists in the infinite capacity for taking pains. Though they might occasionally shine in minor tactics, they were incapable of grappling with the higher problems of strategy. . . . Once more the carping critics of Field Marshal Oyama's strategic powers have been splendidly answered. It would be difficult to match, from the most brilliant military annals of the past, any plan more daring and simple in design, and showing such constructive capacity in its execution, than his scheme for the double envelopment of the prodigious army in front of him, under a renowned commander, whose generalship had been even more eloquently extolled than the Japanese leadership had been depreciated. As the battle of Mukden ended in the rout and disorganization of the Russian host, with the loss of approximately 200,000 men,—80,000 more than capitulated at Sedan,—and an incalculable amount of material, the supersession of General Kuropatkin by General Linevitch, and the conversion of every serious person in Russia, with the possible exception of the Czar, to the imperious necessity of making peace. . . . It may fairly be regarded as one of the decisive battles of the world.

As a result of this great battle, continues this writer, Japan is now completely master of the situation on land as well as on the sea. Her record of fifteen months has been a marvelous one.

She has not sustained one single reverse on either element during a tremendous struggle of fifteen



A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE BATTLE OF MUKDEN.

months, and, according to the most recent Russian figures, she has already disposed of a Russian army of 750,000 men. Nor is there visible on the horizon any factor which could seriously compromise her predominance, unless it be suggested that Admiral Rozhdestvenski's barnacled battleships are capable of challenging Japan's command of the sea. Moreover, as in this world nothing succeeds like success, the victor has at last secured access to the money markets of the world, and is plentifully supplied with the sinews of war.

The very financiers who only the other day declined to accommodate her except on usurious terms are now tumbling over one another in their anxiety to hail the Rising Sun. There could scarcely be more significant evidence of the respective positions of the belligerents than the recent refusal of financial France to float another Russian loan and the frantic desire of the German Emperor, who has been the most vocal of all Japan's European enemies, that German banks should participate in financing the "yellow peril."

RUSSIAN WOMEN AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

IN the student troubles in Russia, and especially in the university "strikes" against the autocracy, the dispatches have stated, a remarkably prominent part was played by the women students, the so-called "koursistki." They were extremely bitter and aggressive, it seems, and they used their influence with the male students in favor of radical action.



GENERAL GLAZOV.

(Russian minister of education.)

Considerable light is thrown on this attitude of the *koursistki* by an article in the *Russkaye Bogatstvo*, the St. Petersburg radical magazine, on the struggle of the Russian women for higher education—a struggle that is by no means ended, and in which for about thirty years the government, as represented by the ministries of education and of the interior, persistently opposed them, both openly and secretly. The writer, a woman, A. Loutchinsky, traces the development of the "courses" (hence the word *koursistka*, one who attends the courses) and provisions or institutions for the higher education of her sex along general and professional lines. She shows that the imperial government has done nothing for, and a great deal against, such education, and that whatever Russian women have accomplished in this direction has been achieved in spite of the government. The story is a strange one, and that it is not over-drawn may be inferred from the fact that it passed the censor, since the review in which it

appears is subject to the "previous," or preliminary, censorship.

In the fifties of the last century, the St. Petersburg University opened its doors to women. There was great rejoicing in the educated circles, but it was soon turned to grief. The university was closed by the government for political reasons. A "free university" was then established under distinguished auspices, but it shared the fate of the state institution. When the latter was reopened, women were excluded therefrom by express provision of its charter. There was not a single place in Russia where a woman might pursue the higher branches of science and culture. And this condition, thanks to the government's prohibitions and obstructions, lasted twenty years. In 1878, after much effort and pleading, the government authorized the establishment of new courses for women of a literary, philological, and scientific character. The ministry of the interior generously offered quarters for the lectures in its own building, which greatly surprised the organizers. Indeed, the minister attended several of the lectures *incognito*, as it were, pleasantly remarking to a friend that his own education had been neglected and that he was anxious to learn something of physiology and anatomy.

Soon, however, the "courses" had to be transferred to another building. A period of nomadic existence began, the government meantime prohibiting public appeals and subscriptions in behalf of the courses and instructing the provincial governors to veto resolutions of *zemstvos* appropriating money for the same. Funds, therefore, had to be collected privately, but so dear has been the cause of higher educa-



REFORMS IN RUSSIA!

Making a beginning in Moscow.—From *Gvelot* (Paris).

tion to intellectual Russia that, notwithstanding all obstacles and official resistance, there has never been any lack of financial resources.

In 1876, the ministry of education had invited the provincial boards of education to consider the question of providing for women's courses in all provincial universities, such courses to be rigidly supervised and regulated, and the completion of the studies to confer no title, degree, or rights whatsoever on the "graduates." Affirmative decisions were reached everywhere, and two years later the courses were opened. But in 1886 reaction was again dominant in the capital, and all the women's courses were, without a word of warning, ordered suspended. This suspension, however, was never made quite complete. An uncertain condition ensued, lasting about three years. Then the courses were reopened and reorganized, and two full departments were created—an historico-philological and a physico-mathematical.

The reactionaries raged and foamed at the mouth; they warned the government that the courses would prove hotbeds of revolution and heterodoxy and "immorality." But public opinion was not to be easily disregarded. Even the ministers had to defend higher education of women against the furious assaults of the zealots and Bourbons. The work has gone on ever since, private funds supporting the courses all these years. About fifteen months ago, the government made an important concession. It issued a decree placing women physicians graduated from the St. Petersburg Woman's Medical Institute on a footing of equality with men so far as degrees and the title of doctor of medicine are concerned. Other concessions have been proposed or made, and to-day the higher education of women in Russia is regarded as firmly established. Governmental opposition is no longer feared, though the *koursistki* are politically distinctly hostile to the autocracy.

IS RUSSIA A FEMININE NATION?

AN experience of many years in studying the question has led the writer of an article in the *Monthly Review*, Dr. Rappoport, to sum up the Russian character as essentially feminine. When it is added that the doctor is clearly not one of those who believe in the intellectual (or other) equality of man and woman, the full trend of his article may be better realized. Nevertheless, he qualifies a none too favorable estimate by saying:

The Russian seems to be in a state of becoming and crystallization. Being a young people, there is as yet no fixity, no permanent, fundamental trait, in the Russian. The inequality and inconstancy, the vagueness and chaos, are fundamental traits of the national soul and character which neither time nor historical events ever obliterate. The Russian nation has a fixed character and is perfectly constant in its inconstancy. If it were permitted to ascribe sex to races as well as to individuals, I would say that psychologically the Russians are a feminine race.

Woman, according to Dr. Rappoport, is highly imitative and assimilative; much more adaptable than man, more submissive to customs and prejudices, more constant in her sentiments, and more conservative in opinion. She is misonoistic,—*i.e.*, opposed to everything new, revolutionary, and progressive. Just so, he tells us, is the Russian.

He is outwardly imitative and assimilative, but fundamentally misonoistic and conservative; he is inert, indolent, indifferent, insensible, and submissive. Fatalism and gregariousness; absence of individualism

and personality, of initiative and individual genius, a lack of originality, of a sense of personal responsibility and independence of judgment, constitute the fundamental psychological traits of the Russian. Nearly all the defects, and even the apparent qualities, of the Russian are the result of that small quantity of self-sufficiency and self-reliance which he possesses, of his weakness of character, and his continual search for somebody upon whom he can cast his responsibilities. The Russian is thus elastic and changeable in his humor. He is at times melancholy, and at times of exuberant gaiety. Although he is hospitable, sociable, and familiar, one cannot rely upon his promise. His will-power being weak, he is impressionable and enthusiastic; this enthusiasm, however, which travelers have so often noticed, is very superficial and soon cools down. Concentration of the energetic faculties and active opposition are traits generally foreign to the Russian.

His very insensibility and resignation are only additional results of his weak submissiveness. He is resigned because he is passive, and he is passive because he has not strength of character, not "grit" enough to be impassive. His very indifference to death is only another sign of his weakness. In any other country, Kuropatkin's continued defeats and the unjust government would have brought about a military and general revolution. The Russian, however, merely says, "Nitshevo" (Never mind!).

Yet another trait of the Russian is his religiosity. "Paris never goes to bed, and Moscow never ceases to pray." Yet this very religiosity has nothing to do with real religion. "Christianity has not yet penetrated the Russian masses."

Russian authors themselves go so far as to deny the Russian religious sentiment. In spite of external devotion, of pilgrimages, holy images, miracle-working, crowds flocking to churches, candles given to patron saints, holy bones of saints dug up and worshiped by Czar and peasant, there is no religious faith in Russia. External devotion does not necessarily suppose real religious sentiment.

The very smallness of Russian statistics of criminality, which are considerably less than those of many countries in western Europe, are

not allowed by Dr. Rappoport to be due to any superior moral sense, but merely to "that lack of self-sufficiency and self-reliance, to the absence of personal responsibility and energy," already referred to,—to femininity, in fact, implying no necessary moral superiority whatever. "The Russian, like a woman, is not less inclined to commit crimes, but lacks even the backbone necessary to do so." Weakness,—eternal weakness!

A REAL REFORM OF THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP.

IT now seems as though the first fruits of the Czar Nicholas' recent manifesto promulgating reforms would be a real modification of the present press regulations for the entire empire. As early as February 10, almost immediately after the imperial authorization, the commission presided over by Dr. Theodore Kobeko held a meeting and went through the preliminary deliberations. Dr. Kobeko recently gave out, in an interview reported in the *Novoye Vremya*, some data about the intentions of the commission. Representatives of all the publications of the empire that wish to participate, he declared, will be invited to do so. Representatives of all the St. Petersburg and Moscow dailies, as well as those from some of the better-known provincial journals, will also be invited, and will have the right of a "consulting vote."

The first two questions which the commission will discuss will be the advisability of exempting the provincial press from the censorship, in the same way as the journals of the capital are now exempted; and, secondly, what coercive measures—administrative or judicial—are desirable. Dr. Kobeko himself advocates entire freedom of the press. He believes that such exemption would greatly improve the provincial periodicals; and he holds that punishment, when necessary, should be inflicted only after judicial procedure, in the regular way, through the courts. He gave out as his opinion that before the end of the present year the new regulations might be expected to be enforced. In the course of a conversation with a representative of the *Russ*, Dr. Kobeko expressed his opinion that there ought to be a certain kind of censorship over all printed matter, but that this should be administered with impartiality in all cases.

Other members of the commission, among them Senators A. L. Borovikov, V. K. Sluchevski, and M. M. Staciulevitch, have expressed similar views. They all agree that the freedom of the press in Russia must be made the founda-

tion of all future legislation. The privilege of discussing freely questions that may arise must not be taken away from the daily press, they declare. One great reason, said Senator Sluchevski, recently, for the abnormality in Russian journalism is the inconsistency of a few regulations by which not only the press, but even outside persons, suffer.

The government, in endeavoring to protect the honor of private and official persons against attacks by the press, has created prohibitions to speak altogether about certain persons, events, and so forth, although such prohibitions may have nothing to do with the order and peace of the nation, which it is the duty of the government to guard. . . . From my own experience, I can testify that things have now assumed a different aspect.

Senator Staciulevitch believes that there will be no disagreement from the general opinion that entire freedom of the press is not only desirable, but necessary. He advocates the summoning of representatives from all classes of periodical literature to participate in the discussions. As to the necessity of the removal of the censorship, Senator Staciulevitch says:

A certain Russian journal has compared the fate of the Russian literary worker with that of a horsethief, and has asked which is the better. At first, such a comparison seems preposterous, but, upon going more deeply into the subject, I have discovered that the condition of the horsethief is by far the preferable one. No one can inflict punishment upon him at the place of his crime, and he is generally brought to court and granted a trial. The literary worker, however, is punished without even the semblance of a trial. Most assuredly, the press must be responsible for its actions, but this responsibility should be exacted in a legal way.

Every day, requests for permission to send representatives to the conference reach St. Petersburg from the provincial press. The society of "Lovers of Russian Letters" in Moscow, at its February meeting, passed the following resolution:

It is absolutely necessary, for the interests of Russian literature and enlightenment, that the restrictive and punitive methods of censorship be done away with; it is necessary to grant full liberty to the press, which should be subject only to court trial for its transgressions and violations.

The editors of Polish periodicals in Warsaw sent a telegram to the presiding officer of the

conference, also advocating the freedom of the press and the abolition of the censorship, and requesting the privilege of participating in the conference. It is believed that their request will be granted. Editors in Kief, Odessa, and Saratov have made the same request. The communication from the last-named city also declared for the inviolability of the person of the journalist.

WHAT THE ZEMSTVO HAS ACTUALLY DONE FOR THE RUSSIAN MASSES.

THE hand of the Russian censor reaches out even to Scandinavia, it would seem. Several months ago, the title-page of the high-class Swedish monthly, *Nordisk Revy* (Northern Review), of Stockholm, contained a statement that the publication would be discontinued. Differences with the Swedish Government, evidently influenced by Russia, are the reason for this. In the last number there is an elaborate study of the Russian zemstvo as an agency which has actually accomplished much good for the Russian people. The writer, who signs himself "D.," takes his figures from official sources, and makes a clear case for the ability of the Russian people to govern themselves. Thanks to forty years' activity of the zemstvos, he declares, Russia has been gradually prepared for a constitution. The zemstvo is a real solid foundation for popular government, with great adaptability for development. In spite of many encroachments upon their rights, the zemstvos are more than ever convinced of the importance of their task.

Outlining the history of the zemstvo as an institution (the main facts of which were given in an article in this REVIEW for January, last), this writer comes to a discussion of the actual results of zemstvo activity. The questions which the zemstvo has to decide to-day concern public education, sanitation, hospital and charity work, road and bridge building, the regulation of navigation on rivers and lakes, the erection and administration of local prisons, agriculture, local postal affairs, and the most just distribution of the taxes imposed by the general government. Despite its difficulties and the obstacles which the central government is constantly interposing, says this writer, the zemstvo has demonstrated beyond a doubt that it really cares for the Russian masses.

THE ZEMSTVO AND PUBLIC EDUCATION.

Almost all of the public schools of the empire are administered by the zemstvos. It is the

duty of the school board chiefly to inspect the schools, to employ and discharge teachers, and to close schools which have a "dangerous tendency." In 1830, before the introduction of local self-government as exercised by the zemstvos, there existed in the entire empire (omitting Poland) 416 high schools and 718 lower-grade public schools. Twenty-five years later, thanks to the activity of the zemstvos, these figures had been increased to 439 and 1,212. In 1856, in the thirty-four zemstvo governments, there were 29,420, with 1,800,900 pupils, or 1 to every 34 inhabitants, while in the other thirteen governments there were less than one-third of the number of schools and pupils, or 1 to every 65 inhabitants. In 1895, the item of public education in the zemstvo budget amounted to 9,327,000 rubles (\$4,663,500), or a little over 14 per cent. of the entire budget.

THE ZEMSTVO AND THE PUBLIC HEALTH.

The greater part of the activities of the local self-governing bodies in Russia is taken up with the care of the public health and sanitation. While it was difficult for the bureaucracy to encroach upon the field of the zemstvo in this particular, there was still the ignorance and superstition of the people to be fought against. The success of the zemstvo in improving the public health cannot be overestimated. The hospitals in the zemstvo governments were left entirely to the care of this institution. In these governments, which had a population of sixty millions, before the zemstvo law came into effect, there were only 351 hospitals, with 11,581 beds, of which more than one thousand were insane patients. All of these, without exception, were situated in the cities; there was not one single hospital in the country districts, and the condition of all of them baffled description. The majority of the patients were either soldiers or political prisoners. In the country districts, the only medical aid given was by experienced drug-

gists. For the use of the country peasants, there were but two hundred sick-beds throughout the country. These were for the use of the government serfs. Those who were in slavery to the private landlords had no medical aid. The zemstvos immediately organized the entire system, establishing one method for the city and another for the country districts. By 1890, the zemstvos had built 6 new hospitals in the cities, increasing the number of beds to 17,900, while in the country districts 711 new hospitals were founded, with an aggregate capacity of more than nine thousand, and with traveling physicians in frequent attendance. There were over eighteen hundred of these physicians, and nearly seven thousand nurses. In 1893, the zemstvos maintained thirty-four asylums for the insane, with a capacity of over nine thousand.

ROADS AND OTHER PUBLIC WORKS.

By an imperial ukase of 1868, the zemstvo of one of the governments was privileged to assume the maintenance of all roads within its borders hitherto in the care of the state. The trial proved so successful that very soon other governments were permitted also to look after their own roads

and lay out a good many new ones. In 1895, the zemstvos expended 3,800,000 rubles (\$1,900,000) for the maintenance of roads.

The Russian zemstvos also took charge of many other public functions which are maintained by private enterprise in other countries. They purchase, for example, tools and the products of agriculture for the peasants. In many cities, also, they are in the business of bookselling—when the imperial censor will allow them. Fire insurance is also an important object of their activity; they act as insurance companies for the peasants.

This institution (the zemstvo), says the writer, in conclusion, has done much for self-government in Russia, much more than has the central government. It has been able to succeed despite the ignorance and inability of Russian officials. Moreover, the employees of the zemstvo differ entirely from the typical *chinovnik*, or Russian official, in that they are zealous and honest in their labors for the welfare of their country. Corruption is unknown among them. They are satisfied with modest positions and salaries, and have scarcely ever been convicted of "graft," like the average governmental official.

THE AINUS, THE "HAIRY PEOPLE" OF JAPAN.

WHEN the ruling classes of the present Japanese people conquered the country, they found on Yezo, the most northern island of the empire, a peculiar people called the Ainus, commonly supposed to be the earliest inhabitants of the whole group, and already known then to the Chinese as the "hairy men." The remnant of this people to-day is found only in the northern part of Japan, and numbers, perhaps, fifty thousand souls. The Japanese generally look down upon the Ainus as an inferior people, and recently, when Prof. Frederick Starr, of the University of Chicago, went to Japan for the purpose of engaging an Ainu family to exhibit at the St. Louis world's fair (he has given his impressions in a little book noted in this REVIEW for October, 1904), the Japanese authorities permitted him to carry out his project only on the promise that he would let the visitors to the fair know that the Ainus are not Japanese, but merely a people subject to the Mikado.

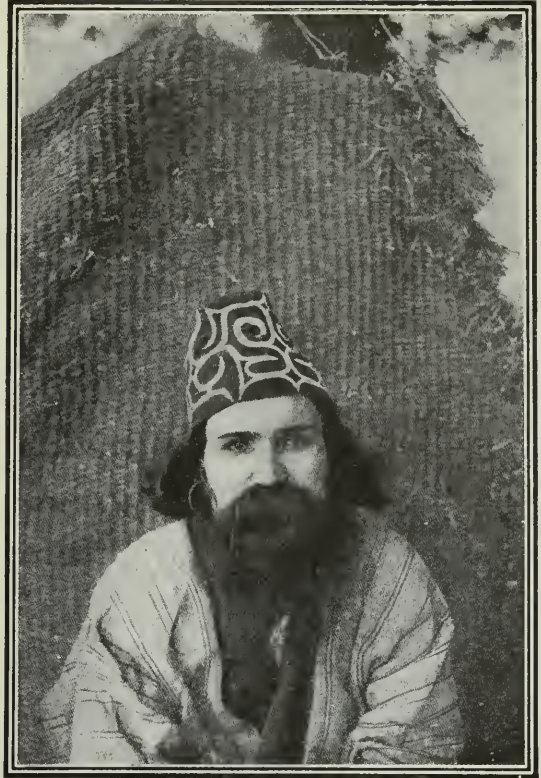
ARE THE AINUS A WHITE RACE?

Some interesting data about the Ainus is presented in a copiously illustrated article in a recent number of the *Open Court*. The writer of



AINUS MAKING MATS.

the article (the editor of the *Open Court*), in noting the belief of scientists that the Ainus are a white race and nearer kin to Europeans than to Asiatics, expresses the opinion that they came to Japan from the continent of Asia,—perhaps from Siberia. In this connection, he points out the resemblance in features between the Russian peasant type and the Ainus. These people, he goes on to say, are, like the Russian peasants, a most inoffensive and peaceable folk. They are not nomadic, but live chiefly by hunting and fishing, and their principal accomplishments are weaving and wood-carving. In disposition they are good-natured, and so amenable that the Japanese Government, which, it must be confessed, is very considerate with them, has never had any trouble in ruling them. In physical appearance they are mild and attractive. One of those seen by Professor Starr had an almost Christlike expression in his eye, and, “so



TYPICAL OLD AINU MAN.



OLD AINU MAN WITH INAO.

far as exterior is concerned, he would certainly be a welcome candidate for the chief rôle at Oberammergau." The women, on the other hand, are noticeably different, and seem to be more of the Mongolian type.

CURIOUS RELIGIOUS OBSERVANCES.

The Ainus are naturally devout, but their religion is a somewhat vague one. Many of its chief forms are expressed through their wood-carving. One of the characteristic carvings is that of the *inao*, a stick with a sort of mop-like mass of shavings at one end.

The shavings are frequently left hanging from the top of the sacred willow-stick, called *inao*, and this gives it something of the appearance of a mop. A large *inao* is kept constantly in the northeast corner of the house, whence it is never removed. It is called "the old man," and the Ainus dislike to speak on the subject, and regard it with great reverence. Other *inaos* are set up at places which they wish to consecrate,—at springs, at storehouses, or wherever they expect divine protection. These odd symbols seem to serve as guardians, and are supposed to be endowed with supernatural power. A sacred hedge, called *nusa*, is grown on the east side of Ainu dwellings, and Professor Starr advises foreigners never to meddle with either *inao* or *nusa*.

One of the peculiar characteristics of the Ainu is that they celebrate festivals in honor of animals, the most important of these being the bear. This animal seems to be regarded as an incarnation of the Deity, who assumes this visible form in order to furnish the Ainu with food and clothing. The Rev. John Batchelor,

missionary for many years in Yezo, declares that when a bear cub is captured by these people it is cared for with much ceremony and reverence. At a special feast, it is almost worshiped, and a prayer is addressed to it. Afterward the bear is led out to be killed, and, amid much dancing and feasting, its entire body is apportioned to various uses.

THE RACE PROBLEM IN JAMAICA.

IF Mr. Rudyard Kipling was the first, he certainly was not the last, British writer to exhort the American nation to take up the "white man's burden." In the current number of the *International Quarterly*, Mr. Sydney Olivier, of the British colonial office, who has had much experience in the administration of the British West Indies, and who served for five years as colonial secretary of Jamaica, contributes a suggestive paper on the relations of the white, negro, and mixed populations of Jamaica. The aim of his article is evidently to show by the object-lesson method the changes which might profitably be adopted in the political relations of the races in our own Southern States. He declares that since the establishment of crown government in Jamaica the black population, as a class of the body politic, have had no acute grievance. The government of the island has been administered with a full regard to the rights and interests of the blacks, but with firm repression of any disorderly tendencies on their part.

While this writer admits that the civilization and morality of the Jamaica negro may not be high, he contends that he is on a much higher level than was his grandfather, the plantation slave, and his great-grandfather, the African savage. The negro in Jamaica, says Mr. Olivier, has thus far been raised, and a freedom of civic mixture between the races has been made tolerable by the continuous application of the theory of humanity and equality.

Equality in the essential sense of an endowment in the Infinite; a share, however obscure and undeveloped it may appear, in the inheritance of what we call Soul. Evangelical Christianity, most democratic of doctrines, and missionary education inspired and sustained by a personal conviction and recognition that, whatever the superficial distinctions, there is fundamental identity, and an equal claim of the black with the white to share, according to personal capacity and development, in all the inheritance of humanity,—these forces together have created the conditions most favorable to the uplift of the negro. Emancipation, education, identical justice, perfect equality in the law courts and in the constitution, whatever the law or the constitution might be, take away the sting of race difference;

and if there is race inferiority it is not burdened with an artificial handicap.

Mr. Olivier does not ignore the difficulties in the political aspect of the situation, nor does he venture to recommend any means for their solution. He admits that the recently emancipated slave is not qualified for political self-government in electoral institutions. He even goes so far as to say that the Jamaica negro of to-day, after two generations of emancipation, is not qualified for such self-government. A democratic representative constitution, based on manhood suffrage, would not be for the advantage of any class in any British West Indies community. He claims, however, for the British colonial system of administration that when property franchises and education tests are applied it is with absolute fairness between white and black. His own experience leads him to the conviction that no solution of color difference can be found except by resolutely turning the back to the color line and the race-differentiation theory. In the case of Jamaica, the religious formulas of the men who laid the foundations for the peaceful development of the mixed community there were democratic and humanitarian. No more than this, he insists, is required in regard to the temperamental attitude, but if the race-differentiation formula be held to, it will doubtless in time bring about civil war.

An important difference between the history of the negro race in Jamaica and in the United States is to be found in the political conditions under which the African stock has developed during the past forty years in the two countries. Emancipation was a generation earlier in the West Indies than in the United States, and the political conditions into which the emancipated negroes passed were very different. In Jamaica, they did not receive, in fact or in name, direct political power. This was limited by a substantial property tax. There was no great political revolution, and there was not created a new class of citizens permitted to enjoy the franchise without being qualified for its responsible or efficient exercise.

SPAIN'S HOMAGE TO ECHEGARAY.

IN view of the fact that the Nobel Prize for literature has been awarded to the famous Spanish dramatist, José Echegaray, the Madrid illustrated weeklies *Blanco y Negro* and *Nuevo Mundo* each devote practically an entire number to Echegaray and give a great deal of interesting information concerning him and his work. The Nobel Prize, founded by the late Alfred Nobel, may be awarded only to the authors of "contemporary works of surpassing merit and productive of the greatest good to humanity." Echegaray, as the heir to the great and characteristic traditions of the Spanish drama, was thought worthy of the prize by the Swedish Academy, and it was presented to him by Baron Wedel, the Swedish minister at Madrid.

Echegaray is a man of most remarkable versatility. Besides being an eminent and world-renowned dramatist, he is an able mathematician and engineer. He was a member of the cabinet during the short life of the Spanish Republic, and is a poet and orator of no mean gifts. His dramatic works are many in number, almost all being tragedies. There is great diversity of opinion concerning the merits of these works, but they have certainly placed Echegaray well

in the foremost rank of contemporary playwrights.

Blanco y Negro publishes a number of short opinions from well-known Spaniards concerning Echegaray, and *Nuevo Mundo* gives some more detailed criticisms, some being reproductions of critical reviews of the first performances of Echegaray's dramas. Arrayed on the side of Echegaray is a host of able thinkers, backed by that rather indiscriminating but important factor in matters theatrical, the public. One of the dramatist's admirers calls him "the foremost brain in Spain;" another opines that "he belongs, not to Spain, but to the world." On the other hand, one hostile critic points out that Echegaray, the mathematician, is always at the elbow of Echegaray, the dramatist. Another remarks that he is ever an extremist,—that all his jealous characters are *Othellos*, all his lovers *Romeos*, and all his misers *Shylocks*. Menéndez Pelayo, one of Spain's best critics, declares that Echegaray's plays are filled with beings not of this world and are impelled by a most impious fatalism, while, finally, a facetious writer observes that the effect of an Echegaray drama is like that of a violent blow on the head. It cer-



KING ALFONSO, IN THE HALL OF THE SENATE, PRESENTING THE HOMAGE OF THE SPANISH NATION TO ECHEGARAY.

tainly causes one to see stars, but these stars are unreal and not worth the blow.

Echegaray certainly, however, received an unprecedented ovation on the occasion of the bestowal of the Nobel Prize. Acclaimed by an immense multitude, he stood with bared head before one of Madrid's great buildings and thanked his countrymen for the homage paid him. In the Madrid Ateneo, a literary celebration took place, over which the King presided in person. Eulogistic speeches were read by the famous Spanish novelists, Juan Valera and Perez Galdós, and Menéndez Pelayo himself, Echegaray's most uncomplimentary critic, stated that "for thirty years Echegaray has been the dictator, arbiter, and idol of the multitude a position impossible to attain without the strength of genius, which triumphs in literature as everywhere."

After describing the celebration in detail, *Blanco y Negro* and *Nuevo Mundo* publish a number of interesting articles concerning Echegaray. One of these tells of the most famous actors and actresses who have interpreted his plays, among whom are María Guerrero and Díaz de Mendoza, well known in the Spanish-speaking portions of the new world. Photographs are reproduced showing Echegaray at every age and at every important period of his varied career. A list of questions submitted to him by *Blanco y Negro* gave Echegaray a chance to show a good deal of genial wit in his answers. When asked, for instance, how he would prefer to die, he replied: "Not at all." To show his versatility, *Nuevo Mundo* publishes a prose tale, a dialogue from the drama "El Gran Galeoto," a scientific article, a political speech, a mathematical paper, and two poems, all by Echegaray.

REGENERATION IN ANIMALS.

WITHIN the range of the animal and plant kingdoms there are many instances of most remarkable measures having been adopted for overcoming the great stress of conditions which must be met in a struggle for existence where some slight failure may mean death and success often depends upon the development of some unexpected, latent characteristic in the animal or plant.

Among the most interesting of these adaptations is the power some animals possess of maintaining their corporeal entity under difficulties by replacing parts of the body that may be lost by accident. This power of renewal, existing, in some cases, even to the extent of producing a new head when, as frequently happens in these lower walks of life, the animal has been deprived of that organ by belligerent companions or through some unavoidable contingency.

Seven original articles on regeneration in various animals are presented in the last number of the *Archiv für Entwicklungsmechanik der Organismen* (Leipzig), edited by the noted experimental biologist, Wilhelm Roux.

In order to study the power of regeneration in the crawfish, a large number of specimens were deprived of one leg and left for a couple of months to see if the appendage would be replaced. In a few of the crawfish, the appendage did not grow again; in others, a new one grew, perfect in form, but smaller, and several regenerated a perfectly normal leg, having the usual number of joints, with pincers at the end, as

well as the gill which is attached to the leg in the crawfish.

Snails, also, are able to replace lost parts to a certain degree. The soft tentacles on the head which may be extended or drawn in, and carry organs of special sense, are regenerated, with their sense organs, in a short time after being cut off.

Experiments made on various kinds of amphibian larvæ gave evidence against the theory held by Weismann and others that the regenerative power of an organ depends on its relative importance, and its exposure to injury or danger of being lost, and showed that neither one plays any rôle in the renewal of the organ, but that the important factors are the degree of differentiation of the organ, whether the animal has reached maturity or not, and whether it belongs to a highly specialized type. On the whole, the regenerative power seems to depend on the general degree of development. In the amphibia, the power of renewing an organ is lost at the time of changing from the larval to the adult form.

Since it has been found that the parts in the region of the bill, in birds, can be renewed after injury, the question arose as to whether there would be a corresponding renewal of organs having the same functions in the reptiles, which are very closely related to the birds.

Lizards of both sexes and of different ages were used in these experiments, the result of which showed that neither sex nor age is of importance in this case.

Certain bones were removed from the jaw, and it seemed to make a difference with the results obtained as to which bone was removed.

The bone that was removed is protected by a bony shield, normally, but after regeneration this shield was replaced by several small plates

of bone. This was interpreted as being a reversion to an ancestral type in which the armature of the head originated as numerous very small plates, which later on in the development of the race fused into the more substantial shields.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD SPEAKER IN ENGLAND?

THE observations of Mr. Winston Churchill, the young English statesman, are always worthy of attention, but of especial interest are his views on the qualifications of the successful parliamentarian and political speaker in modern England. These views are expressed at some length in the form of an interview reported by Mr. Herbert Vivian in the *Pall Mall Magazine* for April. Mr. Vivian calls his paper a Johnsonian appreciation. Why, it does not clearly appear, although he concludes it with the following extraordinary sentence: "My only regret about him (Churchill) is that Disraeli did not live to be his Boswell." He prefixes to his paper the following quotation:

Sir, I love the acquaintance of young people; because, in the first place, I don't like to think myself growing old. In the next place, young acquaintances must last longest, if they do last; and then, sir, young men have more virtue than old men; they have more generous sentiments in every respect. I love the young dogs of this age; they have more wit and humor and knowledge of life than we had.—DR. JOHNSON.

Mr. Vivian is a prodigious admirer of the member for Oldham. He declares that "it is no exaggeration to say that since Mr. Gladstone, perhaps even since Mr. Pitt, there has been no more thorough parliamentarian." He went to see him in order to seek his advice and help in order to make his way into Parliament as an independent candidate who hoped to support his policy. Mr. Churchill gave him some very sound advice about the art of public speaking and the way to get the ear of the House of Commons. He told Mr. Vivian:

The House of Commons is the great leveler. To win its heart may not require the highest attainments or the noblest enthusiasms, but it pricks every bubble, it shatters every sham. The way to get on there is not to be a great orator, who has at his command those glowing periods which the populace can never resist. Indeed, the most successful demagogues have often proved the most abject failures when they rose to address Mr. Speaker. The only short-cut to the ear of the House is sober common sense, a business-like way of saying the right thing at the right moment, and a resolute avoidance of claptrap or gush. There is nothing the House likes so much as to be amused. So long

as you give it something fresh and unusual, it is always satisfied.

LEARNING HOW TO MAKE POLITICAL SPEECHES.

He then went on to give Mr. Vivian the best of advice as to how to learn to speak. He said:

Get among the people as much as you can; they are in themselves a liberal education. You will find them kinder, more generous, more natural, more tolerant, and, on the whole, far quicker in their powers of observation than those who lead a lazy life. You must expect a certain amount of rough-and-tumble, not only in their manners, but in their ideas. Yet when you come to understand them you cannot help liking them, and you cannot help trusting them. Make a great number of speeches. Never mind if only a score of persons are present. Treat each of them as though he were a missionary to whom you were delivering a message which he should go forth and preach. You have no idea how large a number may be affected by the impressions you convey to a few. Also, if you are a good observer, you will learn as much by your speeches as you can hope to teach. Watch men's faces, and endeavor to realize how much and how little they understand, what amuses and interests them, what moves them to enthusiasm, and what leaves them listless or unmoved. Little meetings are the best practice of all, for they are the most difficult to wake up. Besides which, each affords you an entirely different audience, so that you may permit yourself to repeat the same speech over and over again, modifying and improving it as you go along. Do not deliver ambitious orations, full of epigrams, redolent of midnight oil, when twenty or thirty are gathered together without any reporters. Above all, do nothing rash. If you have unpopular opinions on topics of no immediate importance, nothing is gained and a great deal may be lost by thrusting your private judgment down unwilling throats. Be perfectly frank, but talk to people about what they want to know. After all, there are certain great issues before the country, and your business is to unite as many voters as possible on those issues. Your opponents will be quick enough to start any questions which are likely to provoke discord. Remember that you cannot afford to throw away a single vote.

But we must not exaggerate the importance of our ephemeral utterances. When I first began to make speeches, I was in a fever lest some one should haul me over the coals for a verbal or trivial contradiction. Then I soon found that the greater part of a speech goes in at one ear and comes out at the other. You can always silence a questioner, though it be only by a bad joke. Life would be too short if we had to set so rigid a watch upon our lips as all that.

ITALIAN POLITICAL PARTIES TO-DAY.

IN the *Riforma Sociale* (Turin-Rome), Dr. Alessandro Schiavi makes a careful analysis of the last Italian elections, with numerous tables and diagrams covering every phase of their statistics. From this it is learned that a larger number of citizens voted in proportion to the population than in 1900, the last time there was a chance to vote, but the figures also show what an infinitely small proportion of the Italian population actually elects the Parliament. The total population, on July 1, 1904, was 33,346,514, of which number 8,711,512 were males of age, 4,891,530 of whom could read. The number of electors registered on November 6, 1904, was 2,541,327, and the number voting was 1,593,886. Thus, while only 7.62 per cent. of the population had a right to vote, only 62.72 of these electors took advantage of their rights. While the number of electors, according to literacy, decreases as we travel from north to south, the proportion of voters to electors increases in going from Venice down to the heel of Italy. This is because of the greater difference in the south between the educated voting class and the illiterate mass of the population, the smaller body of voters being more easily got to the polls and interested in the elections, and also having little of the laboring element in it.

Of the successful candidates, 418 belong to the three Conservative parties, being divided into Ministerial Conservatives, 339; Opposition Conservatives, 76, and Catholics, 3. The "popular parties" elected 90, of which 37 are Radicals, 24 Republicans, and 29 Socialists, the Conservatives gaining and the popular parties losing six members as compared with 1900. The Con-

servatives have, thus, 65.34 per cent. of the votes.

Analyzing the votes of the popular parties, it is found that the Socialists lose four Deputies and are checked in their steady increase in Parliament since 1892, while the Radicals gain three and the Republicans lose five seats. The Socialists, however, obtained more than two-thirds of the votes cast for the three popular parties, having 326,016 votes in all, a gain of 161,070 over that of 1900. Comparing the vote of 1904 with that of 1900, the Radicals have gained 42 per cent., the Republicans have lost 5 per cent., and the Socialists have gained 97 per cent. The Socialist gain has manifested itself quite differently from that of 1900. Then it was largely in the north and center; now it is in the south and the islands. This, Dr. Schiavi thinks, is due either to the greater susceptibility of the rural and southern population to active propaganda, or to the lack of the middle class that in 1900 supported the laborers in the struggle against reactionaries, but has now cooled in enthusiasm. Where the propaganda phase has ceased, the Socialists have this time often fought a bitter fight with the richer element, thus awakening the Conservatives and alienating the middle classes. The atmosphere of hostility in which the campaign was waged, while lending clearness and sincerity, and enabling a more exact judgment of the party strength, has lessened the prestige and the attractive force of the Socialist party. In connection with the analysis of the Socialist vote of Italy, Dr. Schiavi reproduces the table of the world's Socialist vote of the last two elections, from a Socialistic periodical, which we give below:

Country.	Year.	Votes.	Year.	Votes.	Elected		Total membership of Chamber.	Socialistic votes per 100 members.	
					previous election.	last election.	
Argentina.....	1903	5,000	..	1	out of 86	..	1.1
Australia.....	1900	27,607	1903	66,926	..	3
Austria.....	1897	750,000	1901	780,000	..	10	..	363	3.6
Belgium.....	1902	467,000	1904	463,767	34	28	..	166	2
Bulgaria.....	1900	21,000	1903	9,000	7	56	1.2
Canada.....	1903	8,025	..	16
Denmark.....	1901	42,972	1903	53,479	14	102	13.7
Finland.....	1904	1	15.6
France.....	1898	790,000	1902	805,000	50	48	..	584	8.5
Germany.....	1896	2,107,076	1903	3,010,472	57	81	..	397	14.4
Great Britain.....	1895	55,000	1900	100,000	..	1	..	670	0.1
Ireland.....	1902	1,063
Italy.....	1900	164,946	1904	326,016	33	29	..	508	6
Luxemburg.....	1903	5
Norway.....	1900	7,440	1903	30,000	..	4	..	114	3.6
Holland.....	1897	13,500	1902	38,279	3	7	..	100	3
Servia.....	1895	50,000	1903	60,000
Spain.....	1901	25,400	1903	29,000
United States.....	1902	223,903	1904	500,000*
Sweden.....	1900	..	1902	10,000	..	1
Switzerland.....	1899	56,000	1903	63,000	4	4	..	145	2.7
Hungary.....	1900	800

* According to official figures, the American Socialist and Socialist-Labor vote combined in 1904 was 434,374.

PÈRE LACOMBE, PRIEST AND HERO.

ONE of the old-time pioneer explorers, bravurers of the wilderness of our great West, and venerated advance agents of the Christian religion, Père Lacombe, perhaps the last of the French explorer-priests, is the subject of a character sketch (in *Outing*) by Miss Agnes C. Laut. Père Lacombe, who has been a distinguished, unique figure for the past three-quarters of a century in the annals of the great Northwest of the United States and Canada, has just retired to a little home among the foothills of the Rocky Mountains. Few makers of history, says Miss Laut, have, "by the mere lifting of a hand, been able to prevent massacres that might have wiped out the frontier of half a continent."

Few leaders have rallied half a hundred men to victory against a thousand through pitchy darkness, in the confusion of what was worse than darkness,—panic. And not every hero of victory can be the hero of defeat,—a hero, for instance, to the extent of standing siege by scourge, with three thousand dying and dead of the plague, men fleeing from camp pursued by a phantom death, wolves skulking past the wind-blown tent-flaps unmolested, none remaining to bury the dead but the one man whose hands are over-busy with the dying.

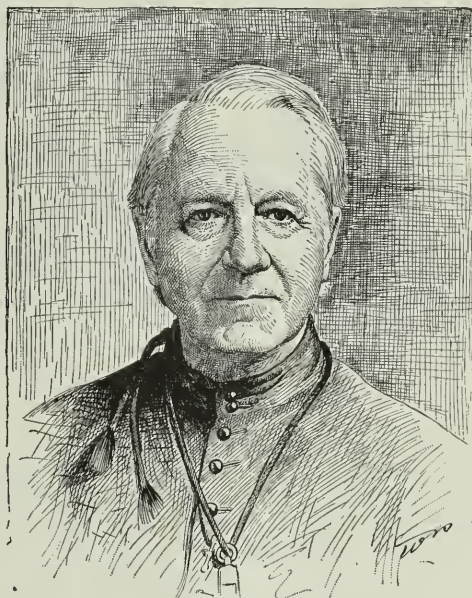
Father Lacombe is a priest, but to call him a priest would be misleading.

In these days of sentimental religion, with the abolition of the devil and a pious turning up of the whites of one's eyes to an attenuated Deity, priesthood is sometimes associated with a sort of anæmic goodness,—the man who sits in a cushioned study-chair. But Father Lacombe's goodness is of the red-blood type, that knows how to deal with men who think in terms of the clinched fist.

Miss Laut recounts, in her usual spirited style, Father Lacombe's work among the Blackfeet Indians during a plague of smallpox. She tells about the terrible experience suffered by the venerable father during the winters of '68, '69, and '70, when the Blackfeet were attacked by their allied enemies,—the Cree, Assiniboine, and Sautaux Indians. It was a terrible battle, and in it the brave priest was wounded while attempting to advance, holding the cross, to bring about a parley with the enemy. One illustration of the sweetness and vigor of the old man's character is given by Miss Laut. We quote it in her words:

Once, on such a journey southward over interminable snows, Father Lacombe had camped with his guide on the edge of a small woods. Both men were dead tired. Their snowshoes dragged heavily. Supper over, they spread their snow-logged garments to dry before the fire, prepared beds of spruce branches, and sat listening to that strange, unearthly silence of the snow-padded plains. The dogs crouched round asleep. The

night grew black as ink, foreboding storm. An uncanny muteness fell over the two. They knew they were eighty miles from a living soul; and the cold was terrific. There was no sound but the crackle of the fire, and an occasional splinter of frost-split trees outside. Suddenly the guide pricked up his ears, with dilated eyes intent. Faint, more like a breath of storm than a voice, came a muffled wail. Then, silence again, of very death. The men looked at each other, but didn't say anything. It was the kind of silence where you can hear your breath. Half an hour passed. There is no



PÈRE LACOMBE.

use pretending. The ozone of northern latitudes at midnight, eighty miles from a living soul, can prick your nerves and send tickles down your spine. You become aware that solitude is positively palpable. It's like a ghost-hand touching you out of Nowhere. You feel as if your own nothingness got drowned in an Infinite Almightiness. And it came again, out of the frost-muffled woods—the long, sighing wail.

"Alex, do you hear?"

"Yes," but he didn't want to.

"What is that?"

"Hare seized by owl."

"You think—that?"

"Yes," but he thought it weakly.

"Your hare has a human voice, Alex."

But Alex, who was visibly chattering, became voluble. Of course, it was a hare. He'd often remarked the resem— But the words died in a gulp of fright, and the guide got himself to bed in haste with the blanket robe over his head.

"Alex, your hare has a long life, *bien?* Listen! Do you hear? Get up! Some one has need of us! I'm going to see."

In vain Alex explained to the priest that the voice would only lead him to death in the woods, that it

came from the body of some brave buried among the branches of the trees in there, who was calling for the things his relatives had forgotten to place with the corpse.

"Then, I'll go alone," said Lacombe, "but you keep your gun ready; and if there is danger, I'll call you!"

And, surely, says the narrator, from a prudent point of view it was rash to follow a vague voice into unknown woods blanketed black with the thickness of intense frost. What was terrifying was that the groans seemed nearer than his own hands and feet—yet he could find nothing! Suddenly, he was aware of the warmth of cinders under his moccasins; and stooping, felt a voice in his very face. A human form lay wrapped in a buffalo robe across the dying camp fire.

"Speak! What are you?" he demanded.

"A woman with her child—lost. I could tramp no longer—my feet are frozen."

Calling the guide, the two men carried woman and infant to their tepee. She was little more than a child herself, and had evidently been outrageously beaten. Both feet required amputation. The priest learned that she had been cast off by her Cree husband, and had

gone forth from the camp to kill both herself and the child; but at the sound of its cry, her courage failed her. She could not do the act, and marched on and on, day after day, till the frozen feet could march no farther. Then, wrapping the child in her warmest clothing, she had gathered it close in her arms, spread the buffalo robe over herself, and lain down to die. But to this Hagar of the wilderness came also a visitant of mercy. When Father Lacombe awakened in the morning, he found that the guide had plied the woman with restoratives all night, wrapped her in robes, and placed her on the dog sleigh. The guide then hitched himself with the dogs to pull. Father Lacombe fastened the steering-pole behind to push; and so they took her to the mission house, hundreds of miles distant. On the way they came up with the Cree husband who had abandoned her. The man was dumfounded at the apparition.

"What!" he blustered. "I don't want this wife! You'd have done much better to have minded your own business and left her alone where she was, to die."

For just a second, the Man in Father Lacombe got the better of the Priest. I think if that Cree had waited he would have received all he needed.

"You miserable beast!" thundered Lacombe. "You don't think as much of your child as a dog of its pups! Get into that tent this minute and hide your dishonorable head, or—I will find some one to take care of her!"

MUNICIPAL PURCHASE OF PUBLIC UTILITIES.

THE municipal election in Chicago, last month, a full account of which appears elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, served to focus public attention on the question of municipal ownership; but, as the article on page 554 clearly demonstrates, the adoption of the policy of municipal ownership itself leaves important and difficult problems still to be solved. Two of these are discussed with some fullness in the April number of the *Arena* by Wolstan R. Brown. These are: first, the method of purchasing, on a basis fair to the present innocent holders and just to the citizens of the municipalities who may purchase these public corporations; second, the management of these corporations after they have become the property of the municipality. Mr. Brown's method would be to purchase the street-railroad, gas, and electric-light properties on a basis that would pay to the present holders the exact value of such properties as ascertained, say on the first day of January, 1905. To the objection that this method would mean the purchase by the community of watered securities from which certain individuals have reaped enormous profits Mr. Brown replies that this is the only fair means of acquiring public corporations that is feasible. Mr. Brown proceeds to describe his method of absorbing these properties in such a way that in

the end they will cost the citizens of the municipalities which buy them nothing at all.

We will suppose that the securities of the electric-light, gas, and street-railroad corporations of a certain town are valued at \$1,000,000, and that they are paying 5 per cent. on that amount of money borrowed,—that is, \$50,000 a year interest. These properties are purchased at that price by the municipality, and its bonds or guaranty are issued in place of the securities made by the corporations, and the rate of interest is reduced to 3 per cent., or \$30,000 a year, leaving \$20,000 a year saved at once by the purchase and ownership under the municipality. This sum of money compounded for twenty-five years would amount to \$1,000,000. In other words, the transfer from private ownership to public ownership has created a saving that in twenty-five years would pay for the entire cost of these properties. I feel quite certain that long before that period the economies in the management and the increase in business will warrant a reduction in the price of public service, both for gas, electric light, and street railroads.

Mr. Brown further proposes to establish a Municipal League, having branches in each city of the United States, with a head office either at Washington or some convenient point that may be chosen, where once a year a representation from each municipality may meet for general business, and where, every day, reports from the management of each municipality shall be forwarded, so that the average cost of management would be definitely known.

ANOTHER "SOLUTION" OF THE RAILROAD QUESTION.

THE discussion of the railroad-rate problem has continued with unabated interest since the adjournment of Congress. Since the passage by the House of Representatives of the bill empowering the Interstate Commerce Commission to revise rates upon complaint, subject to review by a court of transportation, various alternative schemes have been proposed by those who feel that the assumptions of the measure were too radical, or that such a system of rate-regulation fails to offer a reasonable or scientific solution of the real problem. Even before the passage of the rate bill by the House, Senator Francis G. Newlands, of Nevada, had introduced into the Senate a joint resolution providing for the appointment of a special commission to form and report to Congress a national incorporation act, with the view to the unification and simplification of the railroad administration of the country. In the April number of the *North American Review*, Senator Newlands explains at some length the objects of his resolution, and states his reasons for thinking that his plan has superior advantages over that embodied in the legislation of the House of Representatives. The purposes which Senator Newlands seeks to accomplish are best stated in his own words:



SENATOR FRANCIS G. NEWLANDS.

1. The requirement that all railroads engaging in interstate commerce shall incorporate under a national law in accordance with certain conditions not only permitting, but favoring, the consolidation of railroads.

2. The valuation of all such railroads by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and a capitalization not exceeding such valuation.

3. The revision by the Interstate Commerce Commission of all rates, so applied as to yield an annual return of not less than 4 per cent. on such valuation.

4. The exemption of railroad property, including stocks and bonds, from all taxes except a tax on gross receipts, such tax to begin at 3 per cent. and increase at the rate of one-fifth of one per cent. each year, until it reaches the maximum of 5 per cent. This tax to be collected by the Government, then distributed among the States and Territories on some equitable basis.

5. The creation of a pension fund for employees disqualified, either by injury or by age, from active service, by setting aside in the treasury a percentage of the gross receipts of the railroads.

6. The arbitration of all disputes between such railroad corporations and their employees as to compensation, hours of labor, and protection to life and limb.

NATIONAL INCORPORATION.

At the beginning of his discussion, Senator Newlands makes it clear that the railroad, whether in the hands of the Government or of a private corporation, is a natural monopoly;

that the trend of consolidation is the outcome of economic forces which are not to be controlled or appreciably impeded by legislation. He shows that the present system is complicated and expensive; that the bond and stock issues that the corporations now maintain, many of them unnecessarily, are confusing and perplexing alike to the investor, to the tax assessor, and to the rate-regulating commission. Senator Newlands contends that there should be a unity of ownership, recognized by the law, of such railroads as are now linked together in interstate commerce regardless of State lines. State legislation cannot accomplish this. Hence, the railroad corporations should be national, the creation of the Government, whose jurisdiction is as broad as interstate commerce itself. The power to create such corporations was exercised by the national government in the case of the Union Pacific and the Northern Pacific companies. Senator Newlands would provide that the amount of stock and bonds issued for consolidation under the national law should be approved by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and that they should not exceed the actual value of the railroads consolidated. He believes also that future overcapitalization might be effectually prevented by requiring the commission's approval of all issues of bonds and stocks for the

purchase of connecting or intersecting lines, for the betterment of existing roads, and for the construction of new ones.

TO SIMPLIFY TAXATION.

Senator Newlands' plan has a distinct advantage in the matter of taxation. Railroads are now taxed under forty-five different systems embraced in the laws of as many States. There is no uniformity in this taxation. In some States, the roads are taxed upon gross receipts; in others, on the valuation of track, and real and personal property; while in others, franchises are included. The laws of many States also permit taxation of bonds and stocks in the hands of holders, thus producing a form of double taxation. Senator Newlands criticises this present system as crude and chaotic, and argues that since the amount of taxes paid is one of the vital factors in determining the net earnings of the property, there can be no scientific basis for fixing dividends while such a system prevails. His own method would be to exempt all railroad property, including bonds and stocks, from all taxation, except a tax on gross receipts to be collected by the national authorities and distributed among the States in proportion to mileage or volume of business. Thus, stockholders and bondholders would be relieved of double taxation, and would secure absolute uniformity in railroad taxation throughout the land. It appears that the total taxation of all the roads during the past year amounted to about fifty-eight million dollars, estimated to be equal to about 3 per cent. on the gross receipts. Senator Newlands would take this percentage as a starting-point, and would provide that taxes should be gradually increased at the

rate of one-fifth of one per cent. per annum until they reach a maximum of 5 per cent. on the gross receipts. With the present earnings, this would yield about eighty million dollars per annum; but, since earnings are rapidly increasing, the States would ultimately receive, under this arrangement, much more than their present revenue, without the expense of collecting it.

ADDED SECURITY FOR THE RAILROADS.

Another advantage that Senator Newlands thinks would arise from the adoption of this policy would be the elimination of the railroad as a factor in politics. He declares that the uncertainty and the insecurity of the situation in which the railroads find themselves placed to-day compel them to go into politics. Railroad property is between the upper and the nether millstones—the rate-regulating power and the taxing power. Hence, the railroads take part in the election of officials whose duties are likely to trench in any degree upon the taxing or rate-regulating power.

Senator Newlands argues that since rate-regulation means the limitation of dividends upon railroad investments,—in a sense an invasion of property rights,—there should be a concession of compensating advantages. That is to say, when the public limits the dividends upon a given investment, the public ought to secure these dividends. This is what would result, he claims, from the operation of his proposed plan. Virtually, the nation would guarantee a certain rate of interest upon the investment. This policy, in the opinion of Senator Newlands, would give the country nearly all the benefits of government ownership of railroads, with none of its dangers.

ARE MEN TOO OLD AT FORTY?

THE remarks by Dr. Osler on the comparative uselessness of old men, from which we quoted in our April number, have produced no little stir in England. Mr. Andrew Lang, writing in *Longmans* "At the Sign of the Ship," says he hopes that "America will not revive the alleged savage habit of putting old gentlemen up trees, singing 'the fruit is ripe!' shaking the tree, and clubbing the aged one when he tumbles down." He ventures, however, to question the soundness of the dictum. Even in America, men do good work in literature, science, and art after forty.—Mark Twain, for instance. In the old world, says Mr. Lang,

I fancy that Titian, at seventy, had nothing to fear

from the competition of any of our young portrait painters. Mr. Watts, in his day, was probably the best of our painters long after he was seventy. In poetry, Sophocles wrote the "Edipus Coloneus" in extreme old age, and it has for many centuries outlived the forgotten works of the younger dramatists who were carrying off the prizes in the dramatic competitions. Tennyson, when about eighty, wrote "Crossing the Bar;" and Pindar, when as old, wrote, I am informed, a deathless lyric, which, alas! I have never perused. Milton can have been no chicken when he finished "Paradise Lost." In fiction, Scott commenced novelist after he was forty, and could have gone on delightfully as long as he had health. He knew too much of books and life to write himself out. There is a lady novelist among us who, though the remark is ungallant, certainly is not under forty, and who seems to improve in her art and advance in public favor as years roll on.

As to science, Helmholtz, I understand, took it up when "you would look at him often before you took him for a chicken." Mr. Darwin was not under forty when he wrote the "Origin of Species." Mr. Huxley never fell off, and Lord Kelvin disproves the dictum of the American philosopher. In history, Carlyle had well passed the fatal age when he gave birth to his "Frederick the Great," one of the most delightful books in the world. Horace Walpole never fell off as a letter-writer, though he did fall in love very late in the

day; and John Knox (who also fell in love) was far over forty when he wrote his entertaining "History of the Reformation." Mr. Froude's writing, to the last, was exactly as good as ever; and so one could go on with instances to prove that there is more blood in the old man than our American philosopher thinks. Still, for novels and poetry, I do prefer the young ones, and for journalism of the up-to-date kind they must be excellent, older men being guilty of good taste and averse from frivolous stupidities.

APPRENTICESHIP IN AMERICA.

ONE of the questions that must have occurred to every one who has given any thought to modern industrial problems relates to the sources from which American skilled workers are to be drawn in the future. A related question is, How are these workers to be trained? In the April number of *Cassier's Magazine*, Mr. Frank T. Carlton briefly discusses "The Apprenticeship Question in America." He points out that the introduction of minute division of labor, the extreme specialization of classes of labor, and the growth of the large shop as contrasted with the small general shop have greatly reduced the opportunities for acquiring the thorough knowledge of a trade. Up to recent times, the skilled workers employed in American industrial establishments have been drawn, as a rule, from two sources,—the small shop, and immigration from Europe. But the small shop is now rapidly disappearing, while the character of our immigration is quite as rapidly changing, so that skilled workers can no longer be supplied in such numbers from England, Germany, and Sweden.

About eight years ago, an investigation was made of 116 industrial establishments in the United States,—engine works, tool factories, electrical shops, and railway repair shops. Out of a total of 116, it was found that 85, or about 73 per cent., took apprentices. In 1902, another investigator found that about 65 per cent. took apprentices. Railway shops are invariably in favor of a thoroughgoing apprentice system. The usual rule is one apprentice for every shop, and one extra apprentice for every additional five journeymen after the first five. The customary term of apprenticeship is four years. The company usually agrees that the apprentice shall be advanced from machine to machine, or from job to job, as fast as practicable or desirable.

As Mr. Carlton very clearly shows, apprenticeship is desirable chiefly for two reasons,—to furnish an adequate supply of skilled men, and to maintain and improve the character and efficiency of workmen. If, however, less than

three-fourths of the important establishments employing machinists take apprentices, it is not probable that a sufficient supply of skilled men will be furnished to satisfy future requirements.

Mr. Carlton proposes, as a remedy for the situation in America, a combination of school and shop training. In some shops, a foreman of apprentices is employed, whose duty it is to see that the boys are shifted from one machine, or one department, to another at the proper time. School training is given in night schools which try to round out and complete the shop instruction. An apprentice system such as several well-known firms have already established, coupled with public instruction in the evenings or on Saturday afternoons, is believed by many to be superior to the trade school. A suitable ratio between apprentices and journeymen may be roughly calculated by comparing the number of males in the United States of apprentice age,—that is, from sixteen to nineteen years,—with the total number of males of journeyman age of twenty to thirty years, inclusive. The ratio thus indicated is approximately 1 to 5, but, if allowance be made for a probable growth in the industry, it seems to Mr. Carlton that a ratio of 1 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ would not be excessive and would not lead to an over-supply of apprentices.

A LESSON FROM JAPAN.

An American writing from Japan calls attention to the fact that Japan has no apprenticeship system. "No one ever learns a trade, or even in the course of time comes to thoroughly understand the work of his trade in all its branches. The demand for skilled or even half-skilled labor is always in excess of the supply. For instance, it took about two years to build a stone bridge of only one arch over a shallow creek only sixty-five feet wide, in Shimbashie, Tokio, and about the same time to build a similar bridge at Nihoubashi, Tokio, over a creek only a few feet wider." It can hardly be doubted that the lack of skilled men, and of opportunity to train such men, will prove a great handicap to Japan.

SOCIALISM AND UNIVERSAL PEACE.

IN an article on "Italian Socialism and the Armed Nation," in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), Signor A. Mosso discusses various theories and propositions referring to the Italian army. He says that after talking with the chiefs of Italian socialism he concludes that they have no clear and practical plan to supply the lack of a standing army. They simply state that natural social evolution tends toward collectivism, and that through this must inevitably come universal peace. Since they argue largely from biological, evolutionary premises, it is fair to ask them if national race characteristics are to disappear or to become more marked. Recent conflicts do

cialism is the least so, and the proletariat, dazzled by rapid and colossal commercial gain, does not long for an economic régime that shall close the path of fortune-seeking.

Signor Mosso shows that the German Socialists maintain an entirely different attitude toward the army from that of the Italians. Herr Bebel recently declared in the *Reichstag*, "We Socialists are the true patriots, and Germany will find no better defenders and soldiers than we in a defensive war." Whole battalions and regiments of the German army are composed of Socialists, especially in Saxony, and yet there are never such disorders as sometimes occur

among Italian conscripts, even though discipline is stricter and the officers mostly nobles. In Germany, socialism cannot be revolutionary, because that would repress expansion, which is the life of the German people. "In Italy, the Socialists try to show the uselessness of the army and the damage it works to the nation by saying that bayonets and cannon serve only to prop the throne, and should this fall, the military fabric, which has cost so



"Now, if any one accuses us of wishing to break the peace, we will be able to stop the calumny."—From *Le Rire* (Paris).

not indicate the disappearance of race hatreds. The lessons of history and of present experience are contrary to the hope of universal peace, this writer thinks. He continues:

Economic facts are taking such a preponderating place that their action becomes a disturbing cause more impelling to war than were thirst for riches and eagerness for conquest in the military society of the times of absolutism. The history of the future will, unfortunately, perhaps, be woven with battles more bloody than those of past centuries. It will be no longer the struggle of social classes for the satisfaction of their interests, but it will be a more terrible struggle of peoples with the same intent of economic interest. In *Lepek* those who fear the future; but there is he hopes reasonable in this timidity.

leged savage hat even Marx admits that nations trees, singing "onomically into those which have tree, and clubbinal means of subsistence and those down." He vents by means of labor. The latter soundness of the directive, exhausting the soil by do good work in liter who are less advanced. So-forry.—Mark Twain, demy in individualism, and world, says Mr. Lang, evelopment in the modern

I fancy that Titian, at sev^d and the United States, the most powerful, so

many millions, would dissolve rapidly."

Against the socialistic urging to have Italy lead in disarmament the writer quotes the French Socialist Millerand. "Up to the time, to-day unknown, when governments will agree to diminish simultaneously the weight of military institutions, the partial disarmament of one nation would be worse than madness. It would be a crime against that ideal which the Socialists are the first to acclaim in the image of France."

Signor Mosso points out that Italy, the youngest nation, must pass through the same phases as Germany and France. Anti-militarism began in France in 1866, after the battle of Sadowa; in Italy, in 1898, with Guglielmo Ferrero's book, "Militarism," which had little effect, and whose statements were knocked all awry by our Spanish-American War, which he predicted would not occur. Signor Mosso witnessed the Dewey parade at New York, and cites this and President Roosevelt's book, "The Strenuous Life," now accessible in Italian, as evidence that the United States is preparing for the conquest of the world. "Roosevelt would reprove the Italian people for losing the bellicose spirit."

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

THAT much-debated question, How far is the Christian Church responsible for the solution of social problems? forms the theme of an article contributed to the current number of the *International Quarterly* by Dr. Washington Gladden, the moderator of the National Council of Congregational Churches, whose recent protest against the acceptance of the Rockefeller gift by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions precipitated much discussion last month.

In this paper, Dr. Gladden is chiefly concerned with the attitude of the Church toward the general problem of poverty. He thinks that there should be a closer and more sympathetic relation between the churches and the public institutions, but that in the work of outdoor relief the churches should find their greatest opportunity. That is to say, the work of caring for the poor in their homes should be done by the churches, allied with and under the direction of the Associated Charities, the aim of which is to give aid in such a way as to strengthen and not undermine the manhood of those receiving it.

In a few cities attempts have been made to bring the churches together, using the office of the Associated Charities as the clearing-house of the churches engaged in charitable work. Dr. Gladden admits that for the accomplishment of this there would be necessary, on the part of many churches, "a considerable change in their conceptions of their business in the world, and a revolution in their sentimental and slipshod methods of dispensing charity." He thinks, however, that the adoption of such methods by the churches would be a more recognizable imitation of Christ than much of the work in which they are now employed. It would give the churches an access to the poorest classes and an influence over them which they ought to covet, even though the assumption of such tasks should have no immediate tendency to swell the membership rolls or increase the income.

Dr. Gladden fully recognizes the truth that while the relief of destitution is important, and the Church should share in this work, it is not wise to rely on any form of relief measures for a solution of the problem. The immediate causes of poverty must be sought out and attacked. As a summary of these causes, Dr. Gladden adopts a statement of necessary reforms given by Robert Hunter in his recent book on "Poverty."

They would make all tenements and factories sanitary; they would regulate the hours of work, especially

for women and children; they would regulate and thoroughly supervise dangerous trades; they would institute all necessary measures to stamp out unnecessary disease and to prevent unnecessary death; they would prohibit entirely child labor; they would institute all necessary educational and recreational institutions, to replace the social and educational losses of the home and the domestic workshop; they would perfect, as far as possible, legislation and institutions to make industry pay the necessary and legitimate cost of producing and maintaining efficient laborers; they would institute, on the lines of foreign experience, measures to compensate labor for enforced seasons of idleness due to sickness, old age, lack of work, or other causes beyond the control of the workman; they would prevent parasitism on the part of either the consumer or the producer, and charge up the full costs of labor to the beneficiary, instead of compelling the worker at certain times to enforce his demand for maintenance through the tax rate and by becoming a pauper; they would restrict the power of employer and of shipowner to stimulate for purely selfish ends an excessive immigration, and in this way to beat down wages and to increase unemployment.

THE CHURCH MUST EDUCATE THE PUBLIC.

Commenting on this reform programme, Dr. Gladden says:

There may be items in it at which the judicious would hesitate; but it points out some of the most efficient causes of poverty, and some of the indispensable remedies. It is idle to think of meeting the demands of humanity by any imaginable system of relief while these mills of cruelty and greed are grinding out their fearful grist of destitution and helplessness.

More people are killed in a year in this country by railway accidents than were killed on both sides in the three years of the Boer war. Thousands of families thus bereaved are reduced to poverty; and a large share of these accidents are preventable.

Tuberculosis slays every year 150,000 people in the United States, and its annual cost to the nation is estimated at \$330,000,000. The amount of poverty caused by this terrible destruction of human life is vast, and a very large part of this is preventable.

The ruin of health in unsanitary tenements is another great cause of poverty; and the community has the power to prevent this evil.

It is the business of the Church to educate the community upon all these subjects. She has no more urgent business. She must not stand and look on while such tremendous forces are at work destroying the bodies and the souls of men. She is here in the world to save men, and she needs a larger understanding of what that means. She must learn to read her commission in the light of the twentieth century and in the terms of modern social life. Where else shall we look for an authoritative and commanding interpretation of the ethics of the new industry and of the existing social order?

If the Church cannot do this work, she has no business in this world. If she unfits herself for it by taking bribes of tainted money she ought to perish with her money, and she will.

THE UNITED STATES AS A PACIFIC POWER.

IN the *Deutsche Rundschau*, Mr. E. Fitger gives a well-written retrospective and prospective survey of the situation in the far East, in its broad outlines. The objective point of the article is a characterization of the balance of power on the Pacific as it is likely to exist after the close of the present war, whether in the event of a Japanese or of a Russian victory. As to the prospects of either of these conclusions, the writer holds the scales even, hardly going beyond the obvious fact that if the Baltic fleet were to inflict a decisive defeat upon the Japanese navy the result would be fatal to the hopes of the island power, while in the opposite and more probable event Russia would have to fall back upon land operations exclusively, with the outcome doubtful. This point, however, is touched upon only after a comprehensive though concise survey of the history of the situation, as affected by all the movements bearing on it from the acquisition of California by the United States, in 1848, and the Russian move to Vladivostok, in 1860, down to the Boxer agitation of 1900 and the consequent Russian encroachment in Manchuria, the direct parent of the present war.

The feature of most salient interest in the article is the estimate with which it closes of the parts that are to be played in the domination of the Pacific by the three powers which, after the close of the war, are to be the ruling factors upon that ocean. After setting forth the terms—as they are currently understood—which either of the two belligerents would be likely to exact from the other as the prize of victory, the writer terminates his paper with the following conclusion, which, as we have stated, is evidently the objective point of his article :

The development of Great Britain and the United States looms up as the constant factor in the relations of the Pacific, that of Russia or Japan as an uncertain one. Of those two powers, Great Britain is at present, undoubtedly, the better equipped, while the United States may go on steadily developing its strength and the British, preoccupied with so many other interests, be unable to keep pace with it. In his recent administrative report, the American Secretary of the Navy calls special attention, and justly so, to the fact that no navy in the past year (1903-04) floated so many new men-of-war as did the American. The abundance of American pecuniary resources, and the fact that it is not requisite to maintain a large army in the United States, favor the growth of the navy. England, so irritable at the far smaller augmentation of the German fleet, submits to the increase of American naval power without any parley; evidently, she has reconciled herself because she is powerless to oppose it. Should the American navy continue its increase, it will, at the time the Panama Canal is opened, be the most formidable power in the Pacific Ocean. Even Japan, though she should be vic-

torious, crippled as she would be by the war, will not be able to compete with America. How pronounced is the inclination of the United States,—that is, of the present predominant Republican party, which has become overwhelmingly powerful through the Presidential election of November 8, 1904,—to play a leading rôle in the political concerns of the Pacific is evidenced by the speech which President Roosevelt delivered at Watsonville, Cal., in the beginning of May, 1903. Although this speech announced the end of English predominance, the English press remained silent.

Ever since the beginning of the Russian development of power in the Pacific, the writer continues, the British colonies of Australia have looked with concern at the appearance of foreign cruisers in their harbors and at the danger to which the British flag might thereby be exposed. Pursuant, therefore, to a recent conference held by delegates with the cabinet at Westminster, it was agreed that in consideration of a contribution by Australia of £122,000 sterling the British admiralty should engage to permanently furnish the squadron there with five swift cruisers and five torpedo boats. At various points, among others the important Torres Strait, the colonies were to provide the fortifications and their garrisons, while the mother country would furnish the armament. The danger from Russia, we are told further, can recur only from a victory over Japan.

Should Russia, on the other hand, be the vanquished party, the rise of Japanese power must be reckoned with as a possible menace. It has been more than once pointed out that so rich a possession as the Sunda Islands in hands as weak as those of Holland might well prove a temptation to the Japanese. Many voices, and English ones among the number, have given emphatic expression to the opinion that a brilliant victory on the part of Japan could not be in the interest of England and the rest of Europe from a military, a political, or an economic standpoint. A Japanese protectorate of China would, they say, be a great evil. Even should that evil be counterbalanced by the desire of having a constant and powerful adversary of Russia in eastern Asia, the former consideration will nevertheless assume greater moment. The greater Japan's growth as a dominating power, the more complete her predominance, the more will antagonisms arise between Japan on the one side and England and the United States on the other.

One thing, at any rate, appears to evolve itself clearly, says this writer, in conclusion,—the United States, Great Britain, and, as a third power, Japan or Russia, will constitute the three nations among which the Pacific equilibrium is to be established, the United States, it would seem, having the best chance of future predominance. Germany and France must remain far behind, because they are materially hampered by European policies.

THE PRESENT TEMPER OF THE JAPANESE PEOPLE TOWARD THE WAR.

“AT what happy date will come the end of the present war? And what is the outlook of the campaign? These are the questions which are absorbing our interest. Clearly it has been stated in the great imperial rescript declaring the war,—that the hostilities shall not cease till the object shall have been attained.” So opens the article by Ichiro Yamada in the *Taiyo* on the attitude and temper of the Japanese people at present toward the struggle. He criticises in no gentle manner the advocates of two rather prevalent views, both of which are extreme. One of them is to force the situation to a peace conclusion, putting but little emphasis on the peace terms Japan should dictate to Russia, and the other is to prolong the war as long as Russia sees fit to hold out against Japan; and as for the military operations, Japan should push her forces to a certain geographical point, say Baikal or Harbin, and there take leisurely defensive measures, and so convince Russia that she is no match for Japan even at that favorite Fabian game of hers when she is dealing with a foe some six thousand miles from her home base. Mr. Yamada continues:

Now that we have started upon this war, and while the state of war continues, it goes without saying that we ought to have a well-defined determination to carry it to such time and to such end the importance of attaining the which has driven us to this extreme measure. At the same time, we should by no means be found laggards in considering the means of bringing it to a close as early as possible. We ought, therefore, to have at one and the same time an unflinching patience and persistent endurance to prosecute the war, on the one hand, and a live, alert, and aggressive initiative to bring about the satisfactory end. To the fine calculating conservatism must be wedded daring audacity if we would accomplish the end in view.

Mr. Yamada summarizes what he considers to be the wishes and attitude of the larger public of Japan under the following headings:

1. As to the military operations, we ought with grace to put our entire faith in the ability of the specialists who are at the helm of affairs at the front. At the same time, one can hardly disguise the regret felt by men at home and our friends abroad that the battle of Liao-Yang, great as unquestionably was the victory, was at the same time rather barren of fruits of a decisive nature. The battle has passed into history; there is no need of the waste of words upon it. As for the operations of the future, may we not wish that our commanders would not think too timidly as to the waste of men and munitions, that while they would carry on

their siege and enveloping operations with their wonted care and minuteness they would at the same time be savage in the fierceness with which they would pursue the enemy after the action, and that the result of it all would be the rooting out of the hostile force?

2. In the world of diplomacy, our diplomatists have been weighed in the balance and found wanting more than once. It is our opinion that this unbroken record of diplomatic failures and humiliations for our country is not necessarily because of the lack of ability on the part of our diplomatists. Decidedly, they have all erred on the side of being ultra-conservative. Thinking so much of the future good-will of our friends of the West, or of our neighbors in the far East, they seem to have been over-timid in their dealings. With the conclusion of the war,—aye, even now,—the supreme opportunity for the diplomatists of Nippon is with them of striking out upon a new and bolder path. Let them, by what they do at this critical day of the life of our nation and of our diplomatic career, command the respect of our friends, England and America; to them is also given a splendid chance to treat with France and Germany in a way that would not make for either the laughter or the comfort of Russia. Let them remember that the nation looks to them to force our enemy into the cheerless state of standing alone. It is high time, also, to revise the ultra and almost absurdly gentlemanly diplomacy of the past toward Korea and China.

3. To our financiers is given a work quite as delicate and difficult as the military and diplomatic sides of the situation. The increase of the internal taxes is a very small factor in the solution of the war expenditure. In the handling of our finance, the sobriety and daring of our government would, if possible, be more severely taxed than in the diplomatic and the military operations. The Baltic squadron was haunted with the nightmare of the presence of our torpedo boats in the waters of the North Sea; it has been credited in rather serious circles in Russia and Europe that our government was furnishing the funds for the strikers at St. Petersburg. So absurd are these imputations that they hardly call for serious refutation. At the same time, the mere fact that these wild rumors succeed in finding a more or less wide currency speaks well for the enterprise of the Japanese financiers and tacticians. We sincerely pray that they may justify the reputation with a soberer yet quite as daring an enterprise in the future.

The writer concludes by declaring that “the way before Japan stretches far; it calls for persistent patience and long endurance,”—so ran the imperial rescript.

Let us not misinterpret it; let us not understand by it that it is the imperial pleasure for us to assume a passive attitude and thereby prolong the struggle through weary years as best we may and wait for the decision of nature and the natural adjustment of things. Let us be as aggressive in bringing about peace as we are determined to be in prosecuting the war, and thereby answer even in a measure to the august pleasure of our sovereign prince.

WHY GERMANY SHOULD HAVE A GREAT NAVY.

IN an exhaustive review of the history of German naval activity during the entire life of the present German Empire, a Norwegian writer, who does not sign his name (in a paper in the *Kringsjaa*, of Christiania), finds fault with German diplomats and the German press for letting the rest of the world know the secrets of German statecraft, much to the detriment of German world-influence. He reminds us that the first German naval bill was passed in 1898, calling for nineteen battleships and forty cruisers. Two years later, the second naval bill was presented, providing for thirty-eight battleships and fifty cruisers. The policy of the empire was obviously directed toward the acquisition of colonies, and the eyes of its statesmen were at first turned toward Brazil, almost the whole industry of which had been capitalized by German bankers. At this point, however, declares the writer, the Germans began to talk too much and too openly. This resulted in the launching of an imperialistic policy in the United States and a vigorous re-statement of the Monroe Doctrine. Then the Germans turned their attention to South Africa, and it was "their intention to establish in that part of the world a great Teutonic empire in conjunction with the two Boer republics." Again they made the same mistake,—their newspapers and magazines began to publish statements about this intention, declaring that nothing could hinder the success of the enterprise. All this led to the Boer war.

Still another result of Germany's aggressive naval programme, this Norwegian writer believes, is the cordial understanding now existing

between England and France. Germany is still weak compared with these two powers, but "comforts herself with the thought that her latest ships are better than those of the other powers, and, furthermore, that the training of her sailors is superior to that of any other state." The superiority of the British navy, however, remains a great danger to Germany.

England's aggressive policy is well known. By degrees, the English have destroyed all rival fleets,—the Spanish, the Dutch, the French, and the Danish. In 1807, their ships appeared outside of Copenhagen and compelled the Danes to surrender their whole navy,—eighteen ships of the line and fifteen frigates. By the recent understanding with France, England is enabled to withdraw some of her best ships from the Mediterranean for the purpose of strengthening the North Sea squadron, and the English press is jubilant. The British fleet could, in case of war, blockade the entire German coast, and, thanks to wireless telegraphy, need not risk a battle. Germany knows that the food-supply of Norway may be cut, and that the strong coast fortifications of Copenhagen will no longer save that city from long-range artillery. That she realizes the peril of her situation is evident from the fact that a new naval bill, fixing the fighting strength of the empire at forty-eight battleships and seventy cruisers, to be ready in 1914, has been presented and doubtless will be passed.

Is it any wonder, this writer asks, in conclusion, that Germany is looking for allies? In Berlin, "they have entirely forgotten the high American tariff wall against German industry, and we hear nothing but pleasant words about the American people and President Roosevelt. There is, indeed, no longer any need for worry in Washington."

JOHN MORLEY ON DEMOCRACY.

"THESE meditative musings of a reviewer" is the happy phrase by which Mr. Morley describes the charming discursive essay which he has contributed to the *Nineteenth Century* on Mr. John A. Hobson's "International Trade." This time he has made the book a starting-point for his leisurely saunter around his library, and we have as the result a philosophic discourse upon many themes, illustrated by many extracts from many books. It is as entertaining, suggestive, almost as bewildering, as one of Emerson's essays.

THE ESSENTIAL FAITH OF LIBERALISM.

After some preliminary disquisition upon democracy and liberalism, Mr. Morley says:

If we were asked what is the animating faith, not

only of political liberalism all over the civilized world to-day, but also of hosts of men and women who could not tell us of what school they are, the answer would be that what guides, inspires, and sustains modern democracy is conviction of upward and onward progress in the destinies of mankind. It is startling to think how new is this conviction,—to how many of the world's master-minds what to us is the most familiar and most fortifying of all great commonplaces was unknown. Scouring a library, you come across a little handful of fugitive and dubious sentences in writers of ancient and medieval time. Bacon's saying, also to be found a long time earlier in Esdras, about antiquity of time being the world's youth, was, as everybody knows, a pregnant hint, but it hardly announced the gospel of progress as now held by most English-speaking persons. Modern belief in human progress had no place among ideals even in the eighteenth century, if we take Voltaire, Montesquieu, Diderot, for their exponents; and

Rousseau actually thought the history of civilization a record of the fall of man. Turgot, followed by his faithful disciple Condorcet, first brought into full light as a governing law of human things the idea of social progress, moral progress, progress in manners and institutions. It was events, as is their wont, that ripened the abstract doctrine into an active moral force.

Define it as we may, faith in progress has been the mainspring of liberalism in all its schools and branches. To think of progress as a certainty of social destiny, as the benignant outcome of some eternal cosmic law, has been indeed a leading liberal superstition,—the most splendid and animated of superstitions, if we will, yet a superstition after all. It often deepens into a kind of fatalism, radiant, confident, and infinitely hopeful, yet fatalism still, and, like fatalism in all its other forms, fraught with inevitable peril, first to the effective sense of individual responsibility, and then to the successful working of principles and institutions of which that responsibility is the vital sap.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

This general belief in progress found its first commanding expression in the American Declaration of Independence. Mr. Morley says :

It is circumstance that inspires, selects, and molds the thought. The commanding novelty in 1776 was the transformation of general thought into a particular polity; of theoretic constructions into a working system. Republic became a consecrated and symbolic ensign, carried with torches and flags among the nations. Today, it is hard to imagine any rational standard that would not make the American revolution,—an insurrection of thirteen little colonies with a population of three millions scattered among savages in a distant wilderness,—a mightier event in many of its aspects and its effects upon the great wide future of the world than the volcanic convulsion in France in 1789 and onward.

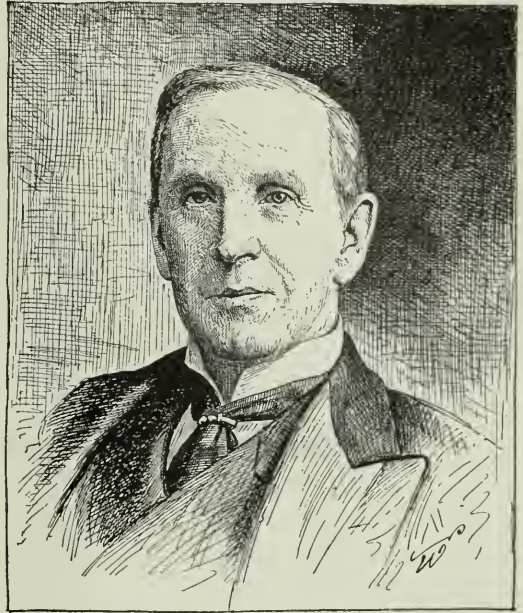
THE RIGHTS OF MAN.

English liberalism begot the American Declaration of Independence, and the American Declaration of Independence begot, in its turn, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man.

When the declaration of the Rights of Man sprang into flame, it became the beacon-light of Continental liberalism in Europe. No set of propositions framed by human ingenuity and zeal have ever let loose more swollen floods of sophism, fallacy, cant, and rant than all this. Yet, let us not mistake. The American and French declarations held saving doctrine, vital truths, and quickening fundamentals. Party names fade, forms of words grow hollow, the letter kills; what was true in the spirit lived on, for the world's circumstance needed and demanded it.

SOCIALISM.

Mr. Morley has much to say upon the socialistic movement which succeeded to the enthusiasm for nationality, as that, in its turn, had superseded the earlier enthusiasm for equality. He says :



THE RT. HON. JOHN MORLEY.

Socialism, like the other great single names for complex things with which we have been dealing, stands for a wide diversity of doctrine and purpose. But the best definition seems to be that "in general it has for its end the destruction of inequalities in social condition by an economic transformation." The gradual smoothing of revolutionary socialism into what has been called electoral or parliamentary socialism may have chilled the old high ardor of an earlier apostolate. Yet the central aim and principle abide,—subordination of individual energy and freedom, not merely to social ends, but to more or less rigorous social direction. This marks a vast difference, and is the dividing line.

The liberal and democratic elements are gradually left out or thrust into obscurity, the free spontaneous moral forces are pooh-poohed, and all the interest is concentrated on the machinery by which life is to be organized. Everything is to fall into the hands of an expert, who will sit in an office and direct the course of the world. A harder, more unsympathetic, more mechanical, conception of society has seldom been devised.

SACRIFICE THE LAW OF SOCIETY.

But we must find space for this passage, with which to conclude our notice of an article which every one should read and ponder :

Selfish and interested individualism has been truly called non-historic. Sacrifice has been the law,—sacrifice for creeds, for churches, for dynasties, for kings, for adored teachers, for native land. In England and America to-day, the kind of devotion that once inspired followers of Stuarts, Bourbons, Bonapartes, marks a nobler and a deeper passion for the self-governing commonwealth.

THE NEW AWAKENING TO OUTDOOR LIFE.

THE American people are beginning to have enough of the nerve-wearing tension of city life, and are returning to their senses and to the country, to find there a breathing-place if not an abiding-place. "All but the absolutely indifferent can be made to realize that outdoor air and activity, intimacy with nature, and acquaintanceship with birds and animals and fish are essential to physical and mental strength," writes the Hon. Grover Cleveland in the first number of the *Country Calendar*. Mr. Cleveland, as all the world knows, has attained distinction as a sportsman as well as in the Presidential chair, but it is not often that he confesses himself in print as he has done in the May number of the *Country Calendar* in an article on "The Mission of Sport and Outdoor Life." The ex-President has been variously honored and blamed and pitied for his stanch devotion to hunting and fishing as recreations, according to the temperament or training of the critic, but he frankly admits that, so far as his attachment to outdoor sports may be considered a fault, he is, in relation "to this especial predicament of guilt, utterly incorrigible and shameless,"—we trust he may still plead guilty to this dire offense.

Quite a different variety of sport from ex-President Cleveland, though certainly not lacking in adventure, is given in Mr. Finley's "Golden Eagles." The photographs represent an acrobatic as well as a photographic feat, with the photographer photographed in his perilous tree-top perch over the lofty eerie, camera leveled, waiting for the infant golden eagles to "look pleasant."

Another phase of out-of-door enjoyment is touched upon in Mr. John Burroughs' "In May," which, like all Mr. Burroughs' writing, is instinct with the sincerity, the freshness, the charm, of one who in his love for mother earth is no "carpet knight," but has given her lifelong devotion. Mr. Dallas Lore Sharp, a younger lover of woods and fields, in whom the note of sincerity is felt, writes more in detail of the sights and sounds which make up the spell of May-time in "woods and meadows"—the rare spring flowers and where to find them—which no one who cares for his soul's welfare should miss.

But the sheer blessedness of the outdoor life is only one part of the return to the country. After the prodigal had partaken of the fatted calf, he probably went to work. Farming in these days is assuming a far more scientific aspect than ever before, and the progress of

agriculture is vitally concerned with the great problems before the country of forestry, of irrigation; farming is becoming a science, and an exact science, rather than a trade. To no class of workers is the Government giving more constant, valuable assistance than that given to the farmer through the Department of Agriculture. "If the department boasted a motto," writes the Hon. James Wilson, "I think it should be, 'We help.' At least, we particularly mean to help the man who works in the field with his coat off." The Department of Agriculture has grown in size and strength, and "is now a great institution for research, for the training of men, and for the diffusion of knowledge, such as the world has not heretofore seen. Two thousand scientists are working with hearty enthusiasm to solve the many pressing problems that almost daily arise in the work of the farmer. When an agricultural crisis, involving a great region, arises, such as the appearance of the boll weevil in Texas, there is no agency in the country which can adequately handle it except the Department of Agriculture," which forthwith goes to the rescue, with the result that the farmers, by following the Government's advice, can now get a crop of cotton in spite of all the boll weevils of Texas.

Somewhat in line with the Secretary of Agriculture's paper is a clear-headed and able article by Professor Bailey on "The Quest of Nitrogen."

No experimenter in plant life has been more in the public eye of late than Mr. Luther Burbank; therefore, when W. S. Harwood, Burbank's neighbor and chosen spokesman (Aaron, as it were, to the "wizard's" Moses), discourses on how the amateur may follow in Burbank's footsteps the most languid of dilettantes stops to listen.

"Pick out some plant which you like," says Mr. Burbank, "but which you wish different in some particular. Perhaps it does not altogether suit you in color; perhaps it is not so deep and intense as you would like to have it. Select out of the entire lot of flowers before you, going over them all with the utmost care (even if there are hundreds of them), the one which approaches nearest to your ideal. Then isolate this plant and select its seeds. Plant them, and select, from all the plants that result, only the best. Plant again and again from successive seed harvests, each time selecting the plants which are coming nearest your ideal. If you have done your work faithfully, the new generations should show decided leanings toward this ideal."

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

Art and Archaeology.—There is an optimistic article in *Munsey's* on a new era for the Metropolitan Museum of Art, of New York City, by Arthur Hoerber. With J. Pierpont Morgan as president of the institution, with Sir Purdon Clark as director, and with the Rogers bequest as an endowment fund, the prospects of the Metropolitan at present are decidedly bright.—Mr. Hoerber also contributes to the *Century* an article entitled "The Prize of Rome," which has especial timeliness and value just now in view of the incorporation and substantial encouragement of the American Academy at Rome, which has been rechartered by the Congress of the United States and endowed with a fund of \$600,000 by wealthy Americans.—In the *World's Work*, Mr. Charles H. Caffin throws light on the commercial side of art-development in New York through his description of the art-auction business as conducted in the metropolis.—In *Harper's*, M. Jacques de Morgan, the general delegate in Persia of the French ministry of public instruction, gives the results of the latest excavations at Susa.—A novel field of art-study is exploited in the account of "Art in the Solomon Islands," by C. Prætorius, in the *International Studio* for April.

Travel Sketches.—In the *Booklovers Magazine* there is a good illustrated description of the fiords of Norway, by Albert S. Bolles. The same magazine presents "Another View of Guam" by Seaton Schroeder.—*Scribner's*, this month, has three descriptive articles dealing with widely separated regions. Mr. Frank E. Schoonover, in his second article on the Canadian wilderness in winter, describes the life of the Indians during the season of intensest cold. Mr. T. R. Sullivan describes a visit to the Tuscan farm which the elder Salvini owns and manages. Mr. Edwin B. Child, the artist, discourses on somewhat more familiar scenes in his article entitled "The Marble Mountains," in which he describes the marble quarries of Vermont and the people who have developed that industry.—A little-known people, who live among the eastern foothills of the Bolivian Andes, is described in *Harper's* by Mr. Charles Johnson Post, who visited them in November of last year. These people—the Leccos, as they call themselves—differ altogether from the barbaric tribes in their vicinity, and resemble in a marked way the Malay type with which we have become familiar in the far East.—An article in *Munsey's* by A. Henry Savage-Landor embodies the observations of that well-known traveler in the Philippines. After spending most of a year in exploring the islands, Mr. Savage-Landor feels prepared to answer the question "Are the Philippines Worth Keeping" emphatically in the affirmative.

Nature and Outdoor Life.—In the May magazines there are several capital articles descriptive of various phases of animal life, and the customary accounts of fishing and hunting adventures. In *Outing*, Edwyn

Sandys writes on "Fishing for Fun," and William C. Harris offers "A Few Fishing Hints." L. W. Brownell contributes some suggestions on "Photographing Birds' Nests," and there are some interesting incidents grouped under the heading "Strange Things About Animals."—"Hans, the Wonderful Horse of Berlin," is described in *McClure's* by E. C. Heyn.—Dr. Henry C. McCook continues his entertaining series of insect studies in *Harper's* with a chapter on the "Huntress Wasps."—In *Munsey's Magazine*, Mr. Herbert N. Casson unfolds "New Wonders of Ant Life."—"The Protective Mimicry of Insects" is the title of a fresh and entertaining bit of nature-interpretation by Mr. W. B. Kaempffert in the *Booklovers Magazine*.—In the *Century*, Prof. W. J. Holland, director of the Carnegie Museum at Pittsburg, describes the newly discovered inland white bear of northwestern British Columbia.—Mr. J. M. Boraston writes in the *Cosmopolitan* on "Hunting with the Camera," a subject treated in the April REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Mr. H. K. Job.—An attractive treatment of a great variety of outdoor topics is to be found in the pages of the new magazine, the *Country Calendar*, which is described elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Much interesting material, relating especially to domestic animals, poultry, and the country home, is embodied in the various departments of this periodical, such as "Stable and Kennel," "The Country Beautiful," and "Garden and Orchard."

Literary Topics.—A rather unusual article for *McClure's* is contributed by Prof. William James on the late Thomas Davidson—"a knight-errant of the intellectual life." When Professor Davidson died, five years ago, he was classed by obituary writers in England among the twelve most learned men of his time. Davidson was a Scotch-American student of philosophy who was known on both sides of the Atlantic through his contributions to learned periodicals and his personal influence as a teacher.—There is an entertaining article in the *Bookman*, by Arthur Goodrich, dealing with London's literary clubs. In the same magazine, Albert Schinz describes the Goncourt Academy of France.—Several sketches of Hans Christian Andersen appeared in the April magazines, but one written by Emili Roess was held over for the May number of *Munsey's*.—The Schiller anniversary is commemorated in the *Atlantic* by two articles—"Schiller's Message to Modern Life," by Kuno Francke, and "Schiller's Ideal of Liberty," by William Roscoe Thayer. The *Atlantic* has also an article by Paul Elmer Moore apropos of the centenary of Sainte-Beuve.

Economics and Politics.—In the *South Atlantic Quarterly* there is a well-considered article on "The Overproduction of Cotton and a Possible Remedy," by

Dr. Ulrich B. Phillips. In brief, Dr. Phillips proposes that the State governments of the cotton belt protect the industry by taxing the product. This would increase the output and raise the price.—In the *Arca* for April, Mrs. Clara B. Colby describes the results of municipal ownership of public utilities in the city of Glasgow, where baths, lodging-houses, street railways, water, gas, and municipal playgrounds are all owned and operated by the city. Mr. W. R. Brown's plea for municipal ownership and league organization in the same magazine has been quoted in another department of this REVIEW.—In the current number of the *Forum*, Baron Kaneko, formerly minister of agriculture and commerce in Japan, writes on America's economic future in the far East.—The economic quarterlies all have articles of current interest. H. Parker Willis treats, in the *Journal of Political Economy* (University of Chicago), of the economic situation in the Philippines. This writer holds that after the construction of the railroads there will still remain to be settled the difficult land and labor questions, and that nothing short of full concession of the demands for Chinese coolie labor and for large plantations will make "business good" in the islands.—There is a clear-cut presentation of "The Social Problems of the American Farmer" by Kenyon L. Butterfield in the *American Journal of Sociology* (Chicago).—Prof. Francis Walker contributes to the *Political Science Quarterly* (Columbia) a study of the monopolistic combinations of Europe.—In the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Mr. Horace E. Deming writes on "Municipal Nomination Reform," Mr. Hoyt King on "The Reform Movement in Chicago," and Mr. John A. Fairlie on "The Recent Extension of Municipal Functions in the United States." There are also papers by Andrew W. Crawford on "The Development of Park Systems in American Cities," by Lawrence Veiller on "The Housing Problem in American Cities," and by Miss Lillian D. Wald on "The Medical Inspection of Public Schools." Dr. Leo S. Rowe writes on "The Reorganization of Local Government in Cuba."

Theological Discussion.—In most of the journals devoted to theology considerable attention is paid to the modern evangelism in its various aspects. In the current number of the *Bibliotheca Sacra*, for example, Dr. Charles H. Richards sets forth what he regards as certain needed factors in the "new evangelism." He points out that the theological and sentimental side of religion has been overemphasized, to the neglect of the practical side.—The *Homiletic Review* maintains an editorial department in which very practical problems in religion and theology are freely discussed. In the April number there is comment on "the clergyman in politics." Besides the editorial articles, there are contributions published from time to time which deal directly with the most urgent phases of modern problems before the Church. In the April number, President Alfred T. Perry, of Marietta College, Ohio, presents some important statistics on the decline in the number of students for the ministry. This question is approached from a different point of view by Mr. Everett T. Tomlinson in the May number of the *World's Work*, in which he exposes the evil results of what he terms "Coddling Theological

Students."—The *Bibliotheca Sacra* for April contains an editorial note on the controversy over the acceptance of the Rockefeller gift by the American Board. The editor not only defends the action of the board in accepting the gift, but declares that the head of the Standard Oil Company is "a most conspicuous target of misdirected and unjust public opinion."—The articles that we have thus far mentioned would indicate the trend of our theological reviews away from doctrinal disputations toward the discussion of ethical considerations and concrete facts in modern life. This is doubtless true of the theological journals as a class when compared with their predecessors of a generation ago. Space is still found, however, for an immense amount of abstract discussion on doctrinal topics. To recite a few titles at random from the contents of current numbers, we have in the *Princeton Theological Review* a paper on "The Incarnation and Other Worlds," by Alfred H. Kellogg; in the *Baptist Review and Expositor*, which represents the Southern Baptist Church, "The Nature of Religion," by Prof. Francis R. Beattie; in the *Methodist Quarterly Review* (published for the Methodist Episcopal Church South) "A Modern Statement of the Doctrine of the Holy Spirit," by Dr. C. M. Bishop; in the *Lutheran Quarterly*, "The Old Lutheran Doctrine of Free Will," by Prof. J. W. Richard, and in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* "The Consciousness of Christ, the Key of Christianity," by Dwight M. Pratt. These reviews all publish a large amount of other material which we lack space to mention even by title. They contain not only philosophical, but literary, historical, and biographical articles, many of which are of unusual merit.

Science Notes.—A paper in *Munssey's Magazine* by Eugene Wood describes "The Richness of Coal Tar," showing how the chemists have learned to extract from what was once a worthless by-product of the gas works a great variety of drugs, dyes, acids, oils, perfumes, and other useful things.—There is an important paper in *Harper's* by E. Walter Maunder, F.R.A.S., on "Magnetic Storms and the Sun." The coincidence between intense magnetic storms and the occurrence of large spots on the sun has long been a matter of comment. Professor Maunder has concluded, after a long series of observations, that the sun's action in these storms is not a magnetic radiation at all, but that in some way "a stream proceeding from the sun and overtaking the earth effects a release of terrestrial magnetic energy, as a spark may set free the disruptive forces in a store of gunpowder." Solar action, in other words, does not supply the storm's magnetic forces, but it gives those forces the opportunity to reveal themselves. Prof. Ernest W. Brown, writing on "Sunspots and Weather" in the *Popular Science Monthly* for April, demolishes prevalent misconceptions regarding the relation of sunspots to terrestrial storms. It is sometimes argued that "cold waves" result from the partial screening off of the sun's heat due to the presence of the spots, but Professor Brown shows that the spots are more probably evidences of increased activity, and that therefore they should indicate a greater rather than a less output of solar heat. But at all events, the effect of these changes on the earth's climatic conditions is as yet unknown.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Political Parties in Russia.—The very general opinion that there are no organized political parties in Russia is corrected by the elder Suvorin in his "Little Letters" which are appearing in the *Novoye Vremya*, edited by his son. This opinion owes its origin, no doubt, to the fact that as Russia has no constitution there are no normal conditions favorable to the creation and organization of political parties. Mr. Suvorin, however, reminds us that Russia has had political parties since the beginning of the seventeenth century. They have held different political views, all the way from advocacy of the unlimited monarchy to a republic. There have been strong organizations favoring a constitutional monarchy such as the former Polish aristocratic republic, or as Sweden. The Social Democrats have been very strong, and their talented leader, Bolotnikov, fought real battles with the Czar's regiments. All these political parties existed in the seventeenth century. In the following century there was a Constitutional party which distinguished itself by its "Committee of Public Welfare" at the beginning of the reign of Alexander I., and by Speransky's activity during the revolution of the Dekabrists. The Social Democratic and the Revolutionary party are strong to-day. The Revolutionists are not numerous, but they are well organized and energetic, and have a fine publicity propaganda service. They aim to set aside even the Liberal parties, and to destroy the existing order root and branch. Mr. Suvorin complains of the inactivity of the Moderate parties, and even of the government, in the face of the present serious situation. He illustrates this inactivity by the following dialogue, without naming the speakers: "The workingmen are on strike." "We cannot help that. God bless them. That's the manufacturers' business." "The teachers and students at the university are on strike." "This is of no account. Caesar, Voltaire, Peter the Great, Catherine the Great, etc., did not attend any lectures and never graduated." "The college students are on strike." "And for what is there a government? Why do not they act? Why do they let these things go on? They did not permit anything before, and now they permit everything. So we have the consequences." "But the revolution is near." "What revolution? Nothing but a scandal. We have not enough police, so we have disorders. That's all." "To what party do you belong?" "At present, to my own. I shall send my son to school to Berlin, sell my property, and leave for any country where there are no bomb-throwers." "This means emigration. What shall do those who have no means to emigrate?" "That is their business. They have to take care of themselves in all this chaos."

Is Russia Ready for a Constitution?—One of the most notable articles on this subject appeared recently in the legal periodical *Pravo* (Right), edited by Gessen, a prominent Liberal who has taken an active part in the agitation of the last several months. It discussed the question of constitutional government for Russia and its effect on autocracy and bureaucracy. "Popular government directly limits the powers of kings, but fundamentally every constitution is directed not so much against monarchical rule as against the domination of the bureaucracy. We are of the opinion that if it were really possible to substitute for the con-

stitutional formula one specifically and exclusively directed against the latter, and having no tendency to restrict kingly authority, such a formula might be acceptable. But there is no such formula, and none can be framed, since bureaucracy always acts in the name of the monarch. And even if one could be framed, it could not possibly acquire any practical importance beside the constitutional principle, which is so popular, so prevalent, and so scientifically elaborated. Hence, the demand for a constitution proper is everywhere alike a logical and an historical necessity. . . . Against the granting of a constitution the objection is often made that 'the people' are not ready for it, and that even the existence of widespread discontent cannot be regarded as evidence of a national demand for parliamentary government. Cases are possible where this twofold contention is sound and where the inference drawn from it is yet incorrect. While a bureaucratic régime lasts, while it is not only strictly prohibited to explain to the masses the essence and advantages of constitutional rule, but it is constantly drilled into their ears that the existing order, owing to historical and religious grounds, is the only possible order in a given country (and this has always and everywhere been asserted in opposition to popular interests), it is idle to expect from the people rational and intelligent ideas concerning constitutional government—idle to talk about popular fitness for such government." The review concludes that the transition from autocracy to constitutionalism is never easy, but that the difficulties and drawbacks attending it cannot be avoided, since no bureaucracy will ever voluntarily quit its power and its privileges, its position of supremacy in the country. A struggle is inevitable, and in this struggle the intellectual and educated classes must, of necessity, take the leading part and speak for the people. Finally, if it is desired to "prepare" the people, the autocracy should concede full freedom of speech and publication and agitation. How can one prepare people when discussion, assembly, and organization are forbidden?

The End of the Old Régime in Russia.—In *La Revue* there is an article by G. Savitch on the end of the old régime in Russia. According to this writer, the Czars have hitherto considered Russia as a sort of private property peopled by human beings denominated "faithful subjects." They have exercised unlimited power over the people, for the laws were made for the subjects only, and not for the Czars or their agents. This system has been repeated in every part of Russia, till governors-general, prefects, and all in power came to regard themselves as so many smaller Czars. Alexander II. abolished slavery, but he preserved intact his arbitrary power, and his reforms were incomplete. Nevertheless, he made considerable transformations in Russia, but always unwillingly. He regretted he could not avoid them, and consequently they were invariably followed by an immediate and violent reaction. If Alexander II. was irresolute, Alexander III. regarded reforms with horror, and he sought to undo all that his father had accomplished. Nicholas II. imitated the principles and errors of his father. After the Franco-Russian alliance, the Czar wished to assure peace to the universe, but at the same time he did everything humanly possible to disunite the peoples and the races

of Russia. The alliance made the autocracy feel secure. The Czars have always believed, or have been persuaded, that they could rule a nation by terror. After Plehve, the Czar resolved to make concessions, but it was too late. Czarism is always too late. Now the moral prestige of autocracy is compromised and weakened. But is its material power still intact? The government will promise reforms, but while the Czar may abandon orthodoxy and nationalism, he will still endeavor to retain autocracy.

Admiral Togo on the Siege of Port Arthur.—A short but very interesting paper on the siege and fall of the famous fortress is contributed to the *Taiyo* (Tokio) by Admiral Togo himself. The trenches which the Russians dug around the fortress, according to the admiral, were much wider and deeper than the besiegers expected, and none of the instruments which the Japanese had brought for the purpose of bridging over these trenches proved to be available. The Russians, moreover, used French-made guns and powder, which were much more powerful than those used by the Japanese. Then, the fortifications were so strong that the besiegers had to dig numberless ditches and mines and other underground passages, a proceeding for which they were not entirely prepared. In order to locate these defenses and to ascertain the strength of the garrison, the Japanese had to sacrifice tens of thousands of lives in these preliminary operations alone. Referring to the transport services of the belligerents, Admiral Togo asserts that the Russians cannot cope with the Japanese so long as the former's sole means of transportation is on land. Having complete control of the sea, Japan is more than mistress of the situation. It is interesting to read at this time Admiral Togo's comments and remarks on the Russian Baltic fleet. Though the number of warships constituting this fleet is apparently large, he declares there are only four first-class modern battleships, and but two other ships that are able to take part in actual naval battles as they are fought to-day. At the time he wrote, he declared himself as disinclined to believe that Admiral Rozhstvenski would undertake to reach Vladivostok. He (Admiral Togo), however, expresses himself as being fully prepared for any eventualities.

The Secret of Japan's Military Strength.—The Japanese are the "cleanest-living and the most sober soldiers in the world," says Mr. F. A. McKenzie, writing in *C. B. Fry's Magazine*. They have no camp followers; they take very little drink; their diet is simplicity itself; their one luxury is the incessant smoking of cheap cigarettes. The Japanese soldier is not a vegetarian, as many suppose. His main article of diet is rice, but to this he adds, as part of his regular rations, pickles, dried fish, and tinned meat. The first note of the Japanese army is work. "Men are trained high." In peace time, instruction begins at 6 A.M., lasting till 11, then rest and dinner, then four more hours of work. The military lectures, especially on sanitary matters, tactics, and patriotism, continue whenever the men are resting, even in campaign times. The jiu-jitsu, which the Londoner learns in six lessons, more or less, the Japanese learns in half a lifetime. Avoidance of luxury is a point of honor. "All know the story about General Nogi, who, when during the Chinese War he was presented with a costly cloak, sold it for the benefit of the sick, declaring that he had one cloak already, and

there were many soldiers without any." An officer would consider himself disgraced if he took into the field elaborate food or over-abundant clothing. As a result of this avoidance of luxury, the foreign attachés sent to join Kuroki's army suffered considerably. Being the guests of the nation, they could take nothing with them, and the Japanese fare given to them, ample for a Japanese, was semi-starvation for the Europeans. Yet Mr. McKenzie does not think the Japanese are in any way an ideal race for us to copy. "In many essential points . . . they need to go long and earnestly to school with the West."

No Real Anti-English Feeling in Germany.—The substance of Mr. J. L. Bashford's important article in the *Monthly Review* is that when a terrible German bogey is dressed up and presented to the British public as harboring all manner of evil designs no notice should be taken of it. Rather, Englishmen should turn to recent official utterances in Germany itself, and to the many other signs indicated by Mr. Bashford of a feeling in Germany toward England which is anything but unreasonable or hostile. Mr. Bashford reminds us of the exaggerated importance attached by the less well-informed in Germany to Mr. A. H. Lee's recent utterances on Germany's alleged naval schemes against Great Britain, which in Germany would certainly have brought about a reprimand that would compel him to retire. He quotes an extremely interesting document sent to him by "one of the chief officials of the Berlin foreign office," according to which there are in Germany three sections of public opinion specially affected by the news of Mr. Lee's indiscretions,—the general public, the enthusiasts for an increase of the fleet, the *Flotten Verein*, and official circles. "With the general public, the prevailing feeling was one of irritated astonishment. People said to themselves that they had been led to understand that the efforts made during the last few months on both sides to dissipate old misunderstandings and to smooth the way for restoring former friendly relations had been successful. Why, then, this sudden check? In Germany, these efforts had met with universal approval, because, despite frictions of various kinds, the national instinct of Germany always slides back to the conviction that Germans and Englishmen are linked together by more natural, and consequently by closer, ties than those that could possibly subsist between Germany and the Latin or the Slav peoples. Herein old recollections of former centuries always play a part. Among the country people, for example, you will find a distinctive readiness to believe that some day or other the French and the Germans will have to fight out their differences again; and in the eastern provinces you will see there is also a feeling, though a less pronounced one, of the possibility of Germans crossing weapons with their Muscovite neighbors. On the other hand, you will not observe anywhere among the country folk of Germany a shadow of a disposition to admit that it will ever be necessary to conduct hostilities against England."

The Dutch and Germany.—A keen analysis of the position of Holland with regard to German world-ambition is contributed to the *Onze Eeuw*. The writer declares that the Dutch are half German. Moreover, there are some thirty thousand Germans in Holland, and the trade and intercourse between the two countries is not only increasing, but also increasing far more

rapidly than between Holland and Great Britain or France. About half the Dutch imports come from Germany. The Germans who settle in The Netherlands soon assimilate Dutch ideas and become absorbed in the population, as though they had not come from the dominion of the Kaiser; nevertheless, there is a fear that Germany may absorb Holland unless The Netherlands are wide awake. Holland must have better home defenses, and be able to take an independent stand.

Has Germany Overreached Italy?—The Berlin correspondent of the *Tribuna* (Rome), Cesare Castelli, considers that Italy has got the small end of the bargain in the new commercial treaty with Germany, which has been before the *Reichstag* and the Italian Parliament for ratification. In the *Italia Moderna* (Rome) he examines the provisions of the treaty. The editor of the review takes exception to the pronounced free-trade attitude of Signor Castelli, and says it is necessary also to compare the treaties which Switzerland, Austria-Hungary, and Germany have with the other countries before giving a final judgment. Signor Castelli shows, however, that by the new treaty Germany increases the duty on wine, grapes, dead poultry, butter, and cheese, and imposes a duty where formerly the articles were free on fruits (except citrus fruits), vegetables, live poultry, marble, alabaster, sumac, acorns, horsehair, felted cloths, straw and felt hats, shoes, and silk, altogether products that in exportation from Italy to Germany amount to 95,000,000 lire (\$19,000,000) of the total of about 245,000,000 lire. On the other hand, Italy has made concessions on German exports to Italy, such as chemical and dye products, woolen and silk cloths, bicycles, paper, skins, metals, hardware, rubber, and battery cells that amount to 135,063,000 lire (\$27,012,600). It is on silk that this writer thinks greatest injustice has been done. While the duty on dyed silk has been slightly reduced, twisted raw silk, formerly free, has been classed with dyed silk, and owing to Germany's superior dyeing industry, the importation of this raw silk is vastly more important than that of dyed silk. To get free silk, the Germans must now import absolutely raw and untwisted silk, thus depriving Italian labor of any advantage. As proof of German advantage, the writer cites the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* as commenting on the various advantages gained over Italy, while censuring the government for making concessions to Russia and Austria.

Maupassant Defended as Novelist.—Alberto Lombroso, who has just published, in Italian, a book of "Souvenirs of Maupassant," takes exception, in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome), to a recently printed judgment of Paul Bourget classing Maupassant as purely a short-story writer, and contrasting him with Flaubert, who was equally master of short and long fiction. Bourget's statement appears in the preface he wrote for the new English volume on Balzac's best ten short stories. Signor Lombroso gives reasons for classing Maupassant among the great novelists, and suggests that Bourget's severe judgment of the "tragic and unquiet Maupassant," as he called him in "Outre-Mer," is due to jealousy from the fact that the latter triumphed over Bourget every time they treated of similar themes. In proof of this he advises the reading of "Pierre et Jean" and "André Cornélie," of "Notre Cœur" and "Cœur de Femme," of "Fort Comme la Mort" and "Le Fantôme." He recounts a story he got from Fernando de Navenne,

former French ambassador to the Vatican, as further throwing light on Bourget's attitude. Many years ago, Bourget confided to Mme. H. Lecomte du Nouy that he was working up a fine novel plot in which a man loved first a mother and then her daughter. Shortly after this, the lady cooled in friendship for Bourget, and became closely in touch with Maupassant, as she remained until his death. She told the latter of the plot, and urged him to work it up, which he did as "Fort Comme la Mort." A dozen years after, Bourget concluded he would work up the plot in spite of Maupassant's treatment of it, and he produced "Le Fantôme," published first in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in 1900. Thus, Bourget had an unrecognized part in one of Maupassant's masterpieces, and was even accused of plagiarism for working up a plot another had pilfered from him.

Another Version of the Origin of "Yankee Doodle."—A patriotic Hessian, Johann Lewalter, contributes to the publication *Hessenland* an article in which he declares that the tune "Yankee Doodle" was originally a country-dance in a district of the former province of Kur-Hesse known as the Schwalm. He begins by asserting that no one disputes the fact of "Yankee Doodle" having been derived from a military march played by the Hessian troops during the American revolution. While studying over the dances of the Schwalm, Mr. Lewalter was impressed by the similarity in form and rhythm of "Yankee Doodle" to the music of these dances. Last year, at a kirmess in one of the villages, when "Yankee Doodle" was played the young men and girls swung out into one of the real Schwälmer dances as though this music had been composed for it. Mr. Lewalter recalls the fact that the chief recruiting office for the enlistment of Hessian soldiers during the American revolution was the town of Ziegenhain, in Kur-Hesse. It seems probable, therefore, he concludes, that the Hessian recruits from the Schwalm, who were in the pay of Great Britain during our Revolutionary War, and whose bands had only bugles, drums, and fifes, carried over with them the tune with which they had been familiar from childhood, and played it as a march.

"American Democracy and Education."—In an admiring article, under this title, in the *Revue Bleue*, M. Charles V. Langlois, one of the professors of the Sorbonne, declares that the most striking and noble characteristic of the American people is their faith in education. While the American democracy has not as yet produced very many mountain-peaks of intellect, yet the level of the entire population is very high and is constantly becoming higher. The American university is a remarkable national force.

Reminiscences of Fritz Reuter.—In Germany, the name of Fritz Reuter is a household word among the people, for his humorous and pathetic tales of peasant life in Mecklenburg, written in Platt-Deutsch, or Low German, are widely read by all classes. The copyright of Reuter's works having recently expired, the occasion has been deemed suitable for new studies and appreciations of the popular writer. Paul Warnecke writes in *Westermann* for March on Fritz Reuter's beginnings. Born in 1810, it was not till 1850 that Reuter settled down to earn his living seriously. His youth at the universities had been one long round of excitement in connection with the Burschenschaft (Students' Club) movement of the German students,

ending with his arrest and imprisonment in 1833. First he was condemned to death, but the sentence was commuted to thirty years' imprisonment. After seven years of hardship in various fortresses, he was released in 1840, on the accession of Frederick William IV. Ten years after his release, he became a private school-master at Treptow, in Pomerania, on the Mecklenburg border, and spent his leisure time in writing his stories and poems, painting portraits, etc., while his wife gave lessons in French and in music. He had the usual difficulties in getting his first volumes published. They were rejected by one publisher after another, and at last the money to get the first twelve hundred copies of his first book printed was lent by a friend, and the author became his own publisher. The edition was soon exhausted, and such unexpected good fortune naturally encouraged Reuter to devote himself to writing. One of his books is the history of his seven years' imprisonment in German fortresses. It is known as the "Festungstid."

Moslem Ideals Opposed to Autocracy.—A writer in the *Al Manar*, the Arab review of Cairo, Egypt, describes the model government which is outlined by the Koran. This writer, Salik Ben Ali Raffél, who is a well-known Hindu publicist, declares that autocratic government is condemned by both the Koran and the Prophet. Since the times of the first Caliphs, he tells us, Moslem government was really democratic, and the Caliph himself was chosen by popular representatives. As a method of government, Islam admits only two systems,—the constitutional monarchy and the republic. In short, every sort of autocratic government, administered by it makes no difference what Mohammedian potentate, is not really Islamic.

The Shakespeare Memorial.—Mr. Sidney Lee decides the question as to what should be the Shakespeare memorial by declaring, in the *Nineteenth Century* for April, that it must be a monument, and nothing besides, on the best site procurable in London. Foreign sculptors are to be invited to compete, for "it was a Frenchman, it was the romance-writer Dumas, who pointed out that Shakespeare is infinitely more than the greatest of dramatists, who declared that Shakespeare holds the second place in the universe. 'After God,' said Dumas, 'Shakespeare has created most.' The crucial decision as to whether the capacity to execute the monument is available should be intrusted to a committee of taste, to a committee of liberal-minded connoisseurs who command general confidence. If this jury decide by their verdict that the present conditions of art permit the production of a great memorial of Shakespeare on just principles, then a strenuous appeal for funds may be inaugurated with likelihood of success."

Sharp Criticism of the Balfour Government.—Mr. Maxse, the editor of the *National Review*, has lost all patience with Mr. Balfour. He says: "The constituencies no longer share the ministerial view that the maintenance of the present cabinet is a national necessity, while an ever-increasing amount of exaspera-

tion is being accumulated against a party which is apparently willing to sacrifice everything in order that a particular set of politicians, who are neither very remarkable nor successful, should remain in office. As a considerable number of Unionist members of Parliament share our view as to the desirability of ringing down the curtain on the present sorry farce, it argues an amazing want of resource on their part that they should be unable to secure the desired result."

British Shipping and Fiscal Reform.—Mr. Evelyn Cecil, M.P., thinks that British shipping is in a bad way, and remarks, in the *Nineteenth Century* for April: "Remedies may possibly be found against unfair foreign competition in shipping by varying the Board of Trade regulations, by altering the incidence of light dues, by government control of certain maximum rates of freight, by qualified reservation of coasting trade, by giving a preference within the British Empire to goods carried in British ships, and by permitting foreign material for shipbuilding to enter the country duty-free."

Voltaire's Tragedies.—In the *Independent Review* for April, Mr. G. L. Strachey passes the tragedies of Voltaire under review. He says every one has heard of Voltaire, but who has read him? It is by his name, not by his works, that he is known. Mr. Strachey proceeds to analyze the tragedy of "Alzire," and concludes that perhaps the most infamous achievement of the classic tradition was that it prevented Molière from being a great tragedian; its most astonishing one was "to have taken, if only for some scattered moments, the sense of the ridiculous from Voltaire."

The Language Question in Hungary.—Mr. Francis Kossuth, writing on the Hungarian crisis, says, in the *National Review* for April: "Our demand on the language question is moderate—so as not to interfere with the tactical unit of the battalion—viz., that the word of command shall be given to the troops in Hungarian by the major and all subordinate officers, while from the major upward the commands shall be given (as now) in German. Even this mild proposal meets with an absolute imperial *non possumus*."

Northumberland Described.—Northumbrians, at least, will be grateful to Mr. G. M. Trevelyan for his delightful paper on the Middle Marches in the April number of the *Independent Review*. Take this sketch of the border county: "In Northumberland, both heaven and earth are seen; we walk all day on long ridges, high enough to give far views of moor and valley, and the sense of solitude above the world below, but so far distant from each other, and of such equal height, that we can watch the low skirting clouds as they 'post o'er land and ocean without rest.' It is the land of the far horizons, where the piled or drifted shapes of gathered vapor are forever moving along the farthest ridge of hills, like the procession of long primeval ages that is written in tribal mounds and Roman camps and border towers on the breast of Northumberland."



THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

WORKS ON HISTORICAL SUBJECTS.

VOLUME III. of "The Cambridge Modern History" (Macmillan) is entitled "The Wars of Religion." This series was planned by the late Lord Acton, and is being edited by Dr. A. W. Ward, Dr. G. W. Prothero, and Mr. Stanley Leathes. This is a monumental volume of a monumental work. "The Wars of Religion" contains over nine hundred pages, and treats in a calm, philosophic way the complicated series of conflicts the origin and the pretext of which have been in some religious question. There are chapters devoted to wars and religion in France, Poland, Turkey, Spain, The Netherlands, Great Britain and Ireland, and Italy. Concluding chapters are on the Empire under Rudolph II. and the political thought of the sixteenth century. It is a remarkable volume,—the sifted and digested significance of libraries.

Mr. John B. Firth's descriptive biography of "Constantine the Great," in the series "Heroes of the Nations" which Mr. H. W. Davis is editing for the Putnams, the historical reader will find an excellent account of the reorganization of the ancient Roman Empire and the triumph of the Christian Church. Whether Constantine deserves the title of "Great" is a question. Certainly, under his auspices one of the most momentous changes in the history of the world was accomplished,—the first conversion of a Roman emperor to Christianity. This volume is illustrated.

An interesting little foot-note to history is an unpretentious volume entitled "America's Aid to Germany in 1870-71," with the English text translated into German, collected and prefaced by Adolph Hepner. This consists of an abstract from the official correspondence of Ambassador Washburne, then American minister at Paris, regarding the protection extended to Germans in Paris by the American embassy. The volume can be supplied by the author (27 Nicholson Place, St. Louis).

The second volume of "The United States: A History of Three Centuries," by Chancellor and Hewes (Putnams), covers the period of colonial development, from the close of the seventeenth century to the outbreak of the Revolution. Within a few years American historical students have studied the so-called "neglected period" of our colonial history to good purpose, and this book gives the results of some of these investigations in the form of a popular narrative. The condition of the negro slaves, North and South, is tersely summarized; the westward movement of population is described; and the industries of the period are treated with some fullness. The political development of the colonies is not neglected, but special emphasis is placed on their social and economic history.

One of the latest issues of the "Story of the Nations" series (Putnams) is Mr. L. Cecil Jane's "Coming of Parliament," which is an historical analysis of constitutional England during the three centuries from 1350 to 1660. The volume is illustrated, and provided with maps, charts, diagrams, and tables.



MADAME WADDINGTON.

Mme. Waddington, whose very clever and charming "Letters of a Diplomat's Wife" were so popular, has written another volume, entitled "The Italian Letters of a Diplomat's Wife" (Scribners). This little volume consists of letters written from Italian cities, chiefly Rome, while Mme. Waddington was with her husband on his tour of rest and recreation in Italy, after he had resigned the premiership of France (in 1879). The letters cover dates from May, 1880, to April, 1904. The work is illustrated from drawings and photographs.

Prof. Karl Lamprecht's lectures on the modern science of history have been collected in a volume and translated into English (by E. A. Andrews), under the title "What Is History?" (Macmillan). The lectures were originally published in Germany, under the title of "The Modern Science of History." They represent the author's ideas as to the real meaning of history, psychological intent, and the true method of writing it.

A clear and helpful little text on the voyages of Columbus and Magellan comes to us from Ginn & Co. The writer, Mr. Thomas B. Lawler, author of "The Essentials of American History," reminds us that the discovery of America by Columbus and the circumnavigation of the globe by Magellan are the two greatest deeds in the history of geography. In this little manual, which is very clearly printed and appropriately illustrated, Mr. Lawler attempts to give a rapid, graphic account of the passing of Spain's colonial power, the foundations for which were laid in

these two great voyages. From the same publisher we have "Short Stories from American History" (the fourth in a series of historical readers). This little volume is by Albert F. Blaisdell and Francis K. Ball.

A brilliant study of the expansion of Greek ideas toward the East is presented in Professor Mahaffy's series of lectures on "The Progress of Hellenism in Alexander's Empire" (University of Chicago Press). This is Dr. Mahaffy's first American book, and he tells us in his preface that he has spent twenty years in studying the epoch he here considers. His endeavor has been to treat the human side of the origin of Christianity in a strictly historical spirit.

A learned Russian student of English institutions, Dr. P. Vinogradoff, is the author of a scholarly work entitled "The Growth of the Manor" (Macmillan). This writer, having followed with great care the recent researches of English scholars, has attempted in his own book to sum up the results of all these researches in the form of an outline of the growth of the manor as a social institution passing through all the stages of English history. For the special student of the subject, the fine-print notes supplementing each chapter cite numerous authorities and amplify the author's reasons for positions taken in the body of the text.

"The Story of the Congo Free State," by Henry Wellington Wack (Putnams), is a defense of the Belgian administration, written by a member of the New York bar who was granted access to the archives of the Free State government at Brussels. Our readers are more or less familiar with recent attacks on King Leopold's régime in the Congo,—notably the articles written by the Rev. W. H. Morrison, one of which appeared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. We have also noticed in these pages the book by E. D. Morel. In the present volume, the other side of the shield is shown. In Mr. Wack's view, the Free State is a remarkably successful colonizing enterprise, based on the principles of modern social science. He ridicules the stories of atrocities and abuse of the natives as unworthy of credence.

Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, with the aid of Prof. William Macdonald, of Brown University, has expanded his "History of the United States" (Harpers), carrying on the narrative from the close of Jackson's administration, where the former edition left it, to the present time. Nearly two hundred pages have been added.

Mr. Albert G. Robinson's "Cuba and the Intervention" (Longmans) summarizes the eventful four years of Cuban history which preceded the birth of the new island republic. Mr. Robinson was a newspaper correspondent assigned to duty in Cuba during the period of American intervention. Among the readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS there are doubtless many who recall his contributions to this magazine in those years. He was regarded as an exceptionally fair-minded and accurate observer of conditions in the island under the American protectorate. His account of this experiment in administration is well worth reading to-day, and will be still more valuable in years to come, as our remembrance of the facts becomes less and less vivid.

A wealth of information concerning the costumes of our colonial forefathers and foremothers is contained in a volume entitled "Historic Dress in America," by Elisabeth McClellan (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.). This work is chiefly devoted to the dress of the English colonists during the period 1607-1800, but there is a preliminary chapter on the costumes of the Spanish

settlers in Florida and of the French in Louisiana. A chapter is also devoted to the Dutch in New York. The illustrations, both in color and in black-and-white, are the work of Miss Sophie B. Steel, of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art. With few exceptions, they have been drawn from the actual garments described in the text. They represent the varied costumes of artisans, servants, soldiers, lawyers, and clergymen during the two centuries of our colonial history. Altogether, these reproductions make up an unusual and valuable collection of "documents," in the historian's sense of the word.

BIOGRAPHIES AND INTERPRETATIONS.

The new "Life of Chatham," by Frederic Harrison (Macmillan), is an admirable summing up of a career which has always had quite as many admirers in America as in England. A good part of Chatham's public life was devoted to American affairs, and his speeches in defense of America have been declaimed by every American schoolboy. Little was to be added to the familiar outlines of Chatham's life, but the work of condensation and arrangement has been done in Mr. Harrison's customarily thorough and satisfactory fashion.

A new and comprehensive personal volume on Balzac has been written by Mary F. Sandars (Dodd, Mead). This is based on the volume entitled "Lettres à



HONORÉ DE BALZAC. (From an old print.)

l'Étrangère," a collection of letters written by the great French novelist from 1833 to 1844, to Mme. Hauska, the beautiful Polish lady who afterward became his wife. Miss Sandars has literally dug out a biography of Balzac from this famous collection of letters. There are several interesting portraits, and the whole is very satisfactorily printed.

A new "Life of Robert Browning" has been written by C. H. Herford, professor of English literature in the University of Manchester. This volume (Dodd, Mead) does not claim to be the last word about Robert

Browning's poetry. Professor Herford disclaims any attempt at an exhaustive characterization or critique. He has attempted to work out a view of Browning's genius from a purely definite literary standpoint, based on correspondence and documents only very recently brought to light. Professor Herford's general theme is that Browning's poetry is "one of the most potent of the influences which in the nineteenth century helped to break down the shallow and mischievous distinction between the 'sacred' and the 'secular.'"

Taking as his text the assumption that "if Bach is the mathematician of music, Beethoven is its philosopher," Mr. George Alexander Fisher has written a character sketch of Beethoven, with an appreciation of Wagner's indebtedness to the older musician. Beethoven, says Mr. Fisher in this work (Dodd, Mead), addresses the intellect of mankind. He was the first musician who had the independence to think for himself. He established the precedent, which Wagner acted on later, of "employing the human voice as a tool, an instrument to be used in the exigencies of his art, as if it were part of the orchestra."

It is about as reasonable to include William Cullen Bryant among English men of letters as it would be to number Wordsworth among the American poets. Yet for some reason it has been thought desirable to add a sketch of Bryant to the well-known series published by the Macmillan Company. The writer of this sketch, Mr. William A. Bradley, has had as his principal authority for the facts of Bryant's life the official biography by his son-in-law, the late Parke Godwin. The "American Men of Letters" series already contained Bryant, by Mr. John Bigelow, but Mr. Bradley's book is briefer than either of its forerunners and summarizes the facts in Bryant's career that for the present generation are of the greatest value and interest.

A series of five essays on the Puritan spirit have been issued in book form (Houghton, Mifflin) by Andrew Macphail, under the title "Essays in Puritanism." The subjects are: Jonathan Edwards, manifesting the spirit of Puritanism in the pulpit; John Winthrop, showing that spirit at work in the world; Margaret Fuller, "whose career was the blind striving of the artistic sense for expression;" Walt Whitman, "whose conduct was the revolt against the false conventions which had grown up in his world;" and John Wesley, "who endeavored to make religion once more useful to humanity."

PAINTING AND THE DRAMATIC ART.

Because every student of art, history, and literature knows something about Greek architecture and Greek sculpture, but next to nothing of Greek painting, Miss Irene Weir has written a somewhat ambitious study of "The Greek Painters' Art" (Ginn). Miss Weir is director of art instruction in Brookline, and was formerly a student of the Yale School of Fine Arts. She has studied in Greece. Although we know so little about Greek painting, modern research, Miss Weir tells us, has proved beyond a doubt that "color was called to the aid of architecture from Homeric times down to the perfect period of its development that culminated in the Parthenon." This volume is excellently printed and copiously illustrated.

A series of essays on art subjects, covering the works and careers of most of the great artists since the Renaissance, by Kenyon Cox, have been collected and published in a volume, under the title "Old Masters and

New" (Fox, Duffield). It is not a history of art, but rather a series of appreciations of individual masters.

Another of Mr. James Huneker's volumes of literary and artistic criticism has appeared, under the general title "Iconoclasts: A Book of Dramatists" (Scribners).



MR. JAMES HUNEKER.

However orthodox or justifiable Mr. Huneker's verdicts on art and artists may be, he is certainly a vigorous, independent thinker and a brilliant stylist. In this volume, in which he considers Ibsen, Strindberg, Becque, Hauptmann, Hervieu, Sudermann, Gorky, D'Annunzio, Maeterlinck, Duse, and Bernard Shaw, we have some incisive, scintillating sentences, and brilliant, keen analysis.

PROBLEMS OF THE FAR EAST.

A popular but vigorous and comprehensive presentation of the case of the Orient against the Occident is presented by Dr. Sidney L. Gulick in his interpretation of the significance of the far-Eastern war, which he entitles "The White Peril in the Far East" (Revell). Dr. Gulick, who has obtained his intimate knowledge of the Japanese people by a long residence in Japan (he is author of "The Evolution of the Japanese" and other works, already noticed in these pages), believes that Japan is fighting the battle of civilization; that her victory over Russia, which he believes to be inevitable, will make for the regeneration and enlightenment of all Asia; and that the mission of the Japanese people is to reconcile, harmonize, and coordinate the civilization of East and West.

A collection of unusual and powerful sketches of the personal side of the Russo-Japanese war is entitled "The Yellow War" (McClure, Phillips), and its author signs himself "O." It is the romance and drama of the conflict that the writer sees, and he has done some very vivid sketches. Of many of the incidents related, the writer declares he has been an eye-witness. Some very realistic illustrations add to the absorbing interest of the volume.

NEW BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

About four years ago, Mr. Alleyne Ireland was appointed a commissioner of the University of Chicago for the purpose of visiting the far East and preparing a comprehensive report on colonial administration in southeastern Asia. While this report has not yet been published, the first fruits of Mr. Ireland's investigations took the form of two series of articles, one of which appeared in the London *Times*, the other in the *Outlook* (New York). These articles were written during the author's sojourn in the far East and reflect his impressions of British, American, French, and Dutch colonial administration and policy. They have now been brought together in a volume entitled "The Far Eastern Tropics" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Ireland finds much to criticize in the American Philippine policy (he is himself a British subject), but on one point he is perfectly clear,—that the people of the archipelago are absolutely unfitted for self-government. He declares, moreover, that 95 per cent. of the Filipinos have never so much as dreamed of independence.

Remembering Dr. Samuel Johnson's famous remark that "The grand object of all travel is to see the shores of the Mediterranean," Dr. D. E. Lorenz, who has been quite around that shore several times, has prepared a little handbook of practical information for tourists, entitled "The Mediterranean Traveler" (Revell). This is a sort of high-grade Baedeker, covering the entire Mediterranean coast in a single volume,—southern Spain, Morocco, Algeria, Greece, Asia Minor, Palestine, and Egypt. There are many maps and illustrations.

Miss Esther Singleton has added another to her most excellent series of volumes on countries and cities of the world described by great writers. Her latest volume is "Venice" (Dodd, Mead). The volume consists of impressions, essays, and criticisms, with a number of fine illustrations by sympathetic travelers, historians, and artists, gathered together to give a general impression of the "Queen of the Adriatic."

A well-put, interesting little pamphlet, by Bernardo Mallen, is "Mexico Yesterday and To-day, 1876 to 1904." Spanish, French, and German editions of this little pamphlet, prepared with the authority of the Mexican Government, were distributed at the St. Louis World's Fair. It is full of statistics, tables, and other data, graphically put. Copies can be obtained from the author, in Mexico City.

"The Fair Land Tyrol" is the title of an entertaining volume by Mr. W. D. McCrackan (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.). Partly description and partly snatches of history and biography, the book serves to vivify one's information about a charming region which the tourist too often misses altogether or only half sees in passing. Mr. McCrackan's earlier volumes, "Romance and Teutonic Switzerland" and "The Rise of the Swiss Republic," have brought him recognition as an authority on matters of Swiss history.

The Rev. Dr. J. L. Humphrey's book, "Twenty-one Years in India" (Jennings & Graham), is an illustrated account of the author's experience as a Methodist missionary in India.

NATURE AND NATURALISTS.

Two books by E. P. Powell—"The Country Home" and "The Orchard and Fruit Garden" (McClure, Phillips & Co.)—deal in a thoroughly practical way with topics and problems which concern every country-dweller, and, for that matter, every city-dweller whose

thoughts turn, from time to time, to the ownership of rural acres. The author writes out of a full experience,—not mere "book theories." He addresses his advice to actual needs and difficulties. "The Country Home" abounds in common-sense directions as to choice of site, water-supply, lawns, and gardens. Its companion volume, treating especially of the orchard, throws needed light on the latest methods of culture and on the general principles to be observed in the nurture of American fruits. The popular treatment of these subjects is something new in our literature. Perhaps it is another indication of the sweeping movement countryward.

One of the most widely read of last year's nature-books was "A Woman's Hardy Garden," by Mrs. Helena Rutherford Ely. "Another Hardy Garden Book," by the same author (Macmillan), which makes its appearance this spring, is assured a hearty welcome, since it gives the results of many years' experience in raising vegetables, fruits, and flowers. It is addressed especially to the cultivation of the small home garden. Those who derived profit from the suggestions contained in the earlier book will no doubt be thankful for the many helpful hints offered by Mrs. Ely in this supplementary volume.

A book of which John Burroughs is able to say that he has had more delight in reading it than in reading any other nature-book in a long time is surely deserving of consideration. The work thus commended is entitled "Wasps, Social and Solitary" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The authors, Mr. and Mrs. George W. Peckham, are residents of Wisconsin, and have been enthusiastic students of their subject for many years. The State of Wisconsin had already published their monograph on solitary wasps, but writings affording as much entertainment and instruction as theirs demand a more popular circulation than can be given them in the form of public documents.

A working handbook of great usefulness to bee-keepers is "The A, B, C of Bee Culture" (Medina, Ohio: The A. I. Root Company). This work, originally compiled by A. I. Root, has been revised and largely rewritten by his son, E. R. Root. It now embodies the experience and observation of hundreds of bee-keepers in all parts of the country.

The latest issue in "The American Sportsman's Library" (Macmillan) is a volume entitled "The American Thoroughbred," by Charles E. Trevathan. This work gives the complete history of horse-racing in America,—"the first country outside of England itself to begin the breeding of horses for purposes of the turf and for their general improvement."

A neat little pen-picture of the quiet life of John Burroughs at his country home comes to us from the pen of Clara Barrus, under the title "The Retreat of a Poet-Naturalist." It is one of the brochures issued by *Poet Lore*, and has as a frontispiece a snapshot of the naturalist at Slabsides.

RELIGION AND ETHICS.

Dr. Henry A. Stimson has written a side-light on the simple life in the form of a book entitled "The Right Life and How to Live It" (Barnes). This volume has an introduction by Dr. William H. Maxwell, New York City superintendent of schools. The book is sound in its philosophy and clear and helpful in its suggestions.

Of the same sort of helpful, suggestive writing as the book already mentioned is Dr. Reginald J. Campbell's

"Sermons Addressed to Individuals" (A. C. Armstrong & Son). Dr. Campbell is Dr. Parker's successor as minister of the City Temple, London. The sermons he has gathered in this volume show him at his best, with all his versatility, logic, and power to move the hearts of men.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. issue as the latest number of their "What Is Worth While" series Dr. Lyman Abbott's sermon on "The Personality of God." This sermon was originally delivered before the students of Harvard University, and has excited considerable discussion.

"The Revelation Rediscovered," which is sub-titled "An Extract from the Stairway of Our Creator and Father," by Dr. John C. C. Clarke, formerly professor in the University of Chicago, is a new attempt at interpretation of the Book of Revelations. It is published by G. P. Clarke, at Upper Alton, Ill.

The Duttons import Rowland E. Prothero's "The Psalms in Human Life." Professor Prothero, it will be remembered, is author of "The Life of Dean Stanley" and other religious works and commentaries.

Dr. W. M. Ramsay's "Letters to the Seven Churches of Asia" (A. C. Armstrong & Son) appears in new typographical dress, with some helpful illustrations. It throws some very interesting side-lights upon the reciprocal influence of European and Asiatic civilizations, particularly in philosophical and religious matters.

A new contribution to the science of teleology is Mr. L. P. Gratacap's volume, "The World as Intention" (Eaton & Mains). Mr. Gratacap, who is curator of the American Museum of Natural History in New York, "endeavors to apply the doctrine of intention to the world, the Bible, the Church, the creed, and conduct."

A little manual of ethical suggestions, under the title "The Useful Life," has been compiled from the teachings of Emanuel Swedenborg and published (Scribners) as "a crown to the simple life," with an introduction by John Bigelow. Duty is the emphasis throughout.

The three prize essays in the competition instituted by Miss Helen Gould with a view to stimulating investigation in the history of the Roman Catholic and Protestant versions of the Bible have been published in pamphlet form (New York: Bible Teachers' Training School, 541 Lexington Avenue). Aside from the inclusion of the Apocrypha in the Roman Catholic Bible and the rejection of the books so designated by Protestants as uncanonical, the difference between the versions, as brought out by the writers of these prize essays, are of minor importance. The message of both is essentially the same. The first prize in the competition was awarded to the Rev. William Thomas Whitley, the second to the Rev. Gerald Hamilton Beard, and the third to Charles B. Dalton, assistant master of Trinity Parish School, New York. The judges of the contest were: Prof. R. W. Rogers, of Drew Seminary; Chancellor Henry M. MacCracken, of New York University; the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, editor of the New York *Tribune*; President Francis L. Patton, of Princeton Seminary; Dean Melancthon W. Jacobus, of Hartford Seminary; Dr. Talcott Williams, of the Philadelphia *Press*, and Prof. Walter Q. Scott, of the Bible Teachers' Training School. It is stated that a diligent effort was made to secure at least two Roman Catholic judges, but this was not successful. Two hundred and sixty-five essays, representing every quarter of the globe, were submitted in the competition.

The first of a series of volumes to be known as "The Devotional and Practical Commentary," edited by Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll (A. C. Armstrong & Son), is devoted to the Epistles to the Colossians and the Thesalonians, and is said to be the last work of the late Dr. Joseph Parker, of the London City Temple. The foremost British theologians, of the day will contribute to this series, which has been projected on somewhat similar lines to those followed by the famous "Expositor's Bible," of which Dr. Nicoll was also editor.

Charles Scribner's Sons have just published an extra volume of the Dictionary of the Bible, edited by Dr. James Hastings. The extra volume has been published to meet a demand for information on subjects which, although they may not be purely biblical, are so closely related to Bible study that their appearance in a dictionary of the Bible will be a great help to all Bible students. The new volume contains thirty-seven articles, six indexes, and several maps, and bears the same mark of scholarly editing which characterizes the other volumes.

"Psychic Research and Gospel Miracles," by the Rev. Edward Macomb Duff and Thomas Gilchrist Allen, M.D. (New York: Thomas Whittaker), is a bold attempt to confirm the veracity of the gospel narratives by reference to the results of modern psychical research. The writers announce that they have undertaken this work in a spirit of reverence, but have assumed nothing as proved in advance, being as anxious for legitimate proof as any honest doubters can be. The results of their investigations, in the opinion of the authors, amount to "a psychic verification of gospel miracles, a demonstration of gospel veracity, and a proof of Christ's insight into psychic laws and conditions; added to which is the psychic verification supplied from Christ's life as the veridical fulfillment of ancient Hebrew prophecy."

Dr. Charles Edward Jefferson, pastor of the Broadway Tabernacle, of New York, has added to his list of homiletic books "The Minister as Prophet" (Crowell). This is a series of lectures considering the present position of the minister in general affairs, and the attitude of the world toward him.

One of the volumes of "The Methodist Pulpit" being issued by Eaton & Mains is the Rev. John W. Sayers' collection of Memorial Day sermons, entitled "The More Excellent Sacrifice."

TWO WORKS ON SOCIAL ECONOMY.

Dr. Josiah Strong's yearbook of economic, industrial, social, and religious statistics, entitled "Social Progress" (Baker & Taylor), contains much information not easily accessible elsewhere. On the other hand, many topics customarily treated in almanacs and handbooks are not included in this volume. The material chiefly drawn upon by Dr. Strong in compiling this yearbook is such as relates directly to practical life. One of the especially helpful features of the book is a bibliography of economic and social subjects by W. D. P. Bliss. Prof. Edward W. Bemis contributes a suggestive chapter on municipal gas plants in the United States, and brief accounts of many social and philanthropic undertakings are contributed by their organizers or administrators. This is the second issue of "Social Progress," and all the statistics included have been brought well down to date.

A new edition of that very remarkable book, Henry George's "Progress and Poverty," has just been issued

by Doubleday, Page & Co. This is the twenty-fifth anniversary edition, and it has an introduction by Henry George, Jr.

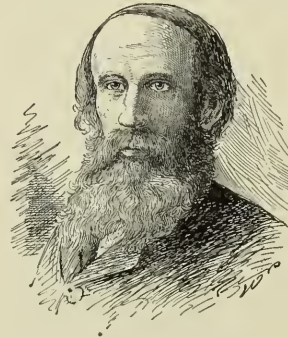
OTHER NEW BOOKS.

"Power and Health Through Progressive Exercise" is the title of an interesting little book by George Elliot Flint, son of the well-known New York physician, Dr. Austin Flint (Baker & Taylor). The author has radical views on the subject of physical exercise, but believes that the "light-weight" system of physical culture, since it fails either in awakening interest or in producing actual results, can never become truly popular. His own contention is for comparatively heavy exercises. A half-hour three times a week spent in real work which tries the muscles will accomplish far more in the long run than twice that amount of time spent in so-called "light" exercises. Whether we are prepared to accept these views at once or not, Mr. Flint's statement of them is well worth reading, and suggests possibilities in physical culture which to most advocates of the prevailing methods may well seem astonishing.

A series of little volumes, entitled "The Personal Help Library," is being written and issued by Mr. George H. Knox, of Des Moines, Iowa, founder of the Personal Help School of Achievement. The first volume, entitled "Ready Money," has been issued. It consists of some excellent advice to young men about beginning their careers, and is supplemented by several noteworthy speeches and addresses from well-known American public men.

Three small volumes of poems come to us. Mr. John White Chadwick has collected his later poems (Houghton, Mifflin); Mr. William J. Neidig has gathered a number of short poetic works, under the title "The First Wardens" (Macmillan); and Amelie Rives (the Princess Troubetskoi) has given us another of her long love-poems, under the title "Seléné" (Harpers).

Leslie Stephen's delicious literary memorabilia and essays, "Hours in a Library," have been issued in a new edition, in four volumes, by the Putnams. This new edition is in very satisfactory typographical form. The work itself needs no further mention to-day. The fine



SIR LESLIE STEPHEN.

literary discrimination and artistic insight which characterized Stephen are charmingly displayed in this work, which is so exceedingly suggestive, and which has such a rich background.

Prof. Ira Osborn Baker, of the University of Illinois, has written "A Treatise on Roads and Pavements" (New York: John Wiley & Sons), which discusses from

the point of view of an engineer the principles involved in the construction of country roads and city pavements. Inasmuch as earth roads constitute 95 per cent. of the mileage of our public highways, Professor Baker has given much space to the construction and maintenance of such roads. The first four chapters of the book are wholly devoted to the economics and engineering problems of this class of highway. As regards urban and suburban roads, we are gratified to learn that in most particulars American roads and pavements are superior to any other in the world. Professor Baker has, therefore, based his treatment of these topics upon American experience, believing, as he does, that the principles of road-making worked out in this country are best suited to American conditions.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Intoxicants and Opium in All Lands and Times. By Dr. Wilbur F. Crafts. International Reform Bureau, Washington.
- Letters from Tuskegee: Being the Confessions of a Yankee. By Ruperth Fehnstoke.
- Life of Reason, The. By George Santayana. Scribners.
- Light Ahead for the Negro. By E. A. Johnson. Grafton.
- Light of Faith, The. By Frank McGloin. B. Herder, St. Louis.
- Logic: Deductive and Inductive. By John Grier Hibben, Ph.D. Scribners.
- Makers of the American Republic. By David Gregg, D.D. Treat.
- Manufacturing Cost. By H. L. Hall. Bookkeeper Publishing Company, Detroit.
- Masters of English Literature, The. By Stephen Gwynn. Macmillan.
- Mind Energy and Matter. By Chalmers Prentice, M.D., Chicago.
- Modern Theory of Physical Phenomena. By Augusta Righi. Macmillan.
- Monopolistic Combinations in the German Coal Industry. By Francis Walker. Macmillan.
- More Money for the Public Schools. By Charles W. Eliot. Doubleday, Page & Co.
- Mormon Menace, The. By John Doyle Lee. Home Protection Publishing Company.
- Multiple Personality. By Boris Sidis and Simon P. Goodhart. Appletons,
- Nature Study Idea, The. By Liberty H. Bailey. Doubleday, Page & Co.
- On Becoming Blind. By Dr. Émile Javal. Macmillan.
- On Holy Ground. By William L. Worcester. Lippincott.
- Our Schools: Their Administration and Supervision. By William E. Chancellor. Heath.
- Outline of Medieval and Modern European History. Heath.
- Outline of Municipal Government in the City of New York, An. By George Arthur Ingalls, B.A. Bender, Albany.
- Parables of Life. By Hamilton Wright Mable. Macmillan.
- Personal Hygiene. By Walter L. Pyle, M.D. W. B. Saunders & Co.
- Police Power, The. By Ernest Freund. University of Chicago Press.
- Representative Modern Preachers. By Lewis O. Brastow, D.D. Macmillan.
- Self-Building. By Corrilla Banister. Lee & Shepard.
- Senator, The. By Henry Christopher McCook. Geo. W. Jacobs & Co.
- Seven Years' Hard. By Richard Free. E. P. Dutton & Co.
- Spalding's Official Athletic Almanac for 1905. By J. E. Sullivan. American Sports Publishing Company.
- Strategy of the Great Railroads, The. By Frank H. Spearman. Scribners.
- Wall Street Speculation. By Franklin C. Keyes, LL.B. Columbia Publishing Company, Oneonta, N. Y.
- Webster, Daniel. By Everett P. Wheeler. Putnams.
- Your Future. By Lela Omar. Penn.

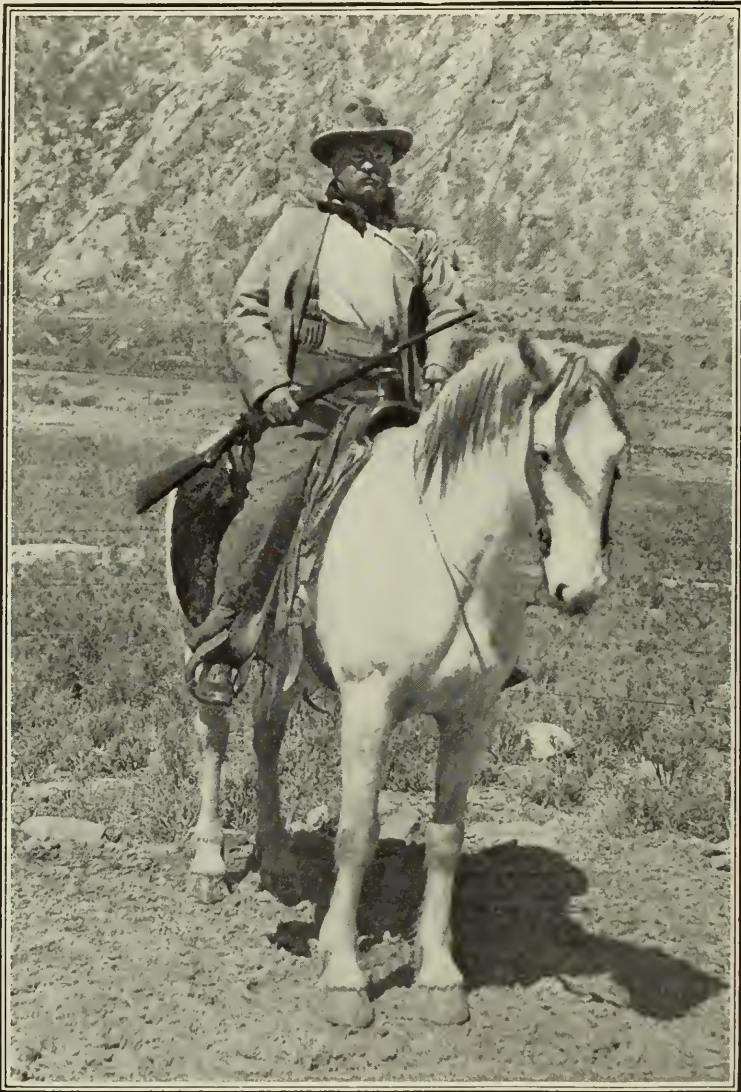
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT ON HIS HUNTING TRIP IN COLORADO.

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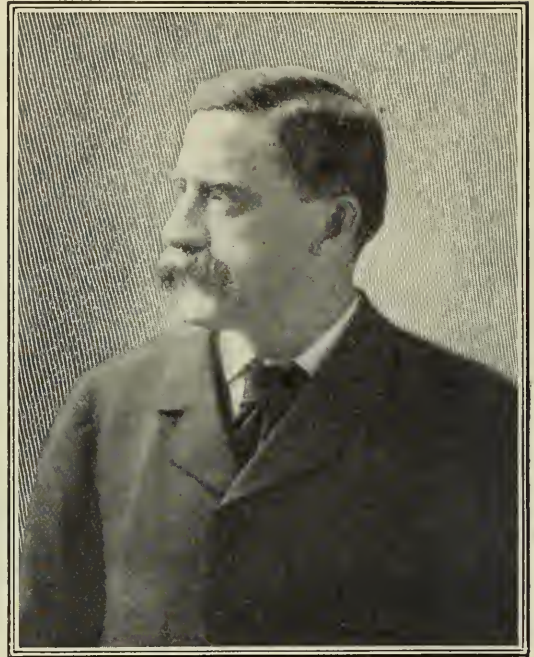
THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The President's Return to Washington. By the middle of May, President Roosevelt was back at his desk in Washington, in the best of health and spirits, after five weeks of recreation in the Western States. He had traveled six thousand miles, and passed through twelve States and three Territories. The only States which Mr. Roosevelt has not visited since he became President are Florida, Louisiana, Alabama, and Arkansas, and he will probably accept the hospitality of those commonwealths before the end of his term. His recent journey was undertaken primarily as a hunting trip, but, apart from his adventures in the quest of Colorado bears, in which the whole country evinced a keen interest, several things occurred which made the journey memorable in other ways. After emerging from the fastnesses of Colorado, where he had been engaged with his party in hunting grizzlies on those days when he was not storm-bound, the President took occasion, at Denver, to give utterance to certain definite views which he holds on the subject of railroad-rate regulation. In addressing the Chamber of Commerce, he reiterated and emphasized the declaration that he had already made to Congress in favor of the policy of extending the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and of giving that body the power to fix freight rates, and to have the rates thus established go into effect practically at once. A few days later, stopping at Chicago on his way Eastward, the President had an opportunity to address to representatives of the striking teamsters in that city a few needed words in support of Mayor Dunne's policy of law and order and suppression of violence. For some reason, the strikers had assumed that a call had been made for United States troops. As a matter of fact, the federal government had not been asked to interfere in the Chicago labor difficulties; but President Roosevelt said, in reply to a memorial from the strikers, that in every effort to prevent violence by mobs or in-

dividuals Mayor Dunne would have the hearty support of the President of the United States,—as he should have that of every good citizen. During his brief Chicago visit, President Roosevelt was the chief guest at a dinner given in his honor by the Iroquois Club, the leading Democratic organization of Illinois; and this unique courtesy extended to the President by his political opponents typified the non-partisan character of the hospitality which greeted him throughout his Western journey. More than once in the course of his travels the President repeated and emphasized his unequivocal determination not to be again a candidate for the Presidency.

Transportation Problems. On the President's return to Washington he found the International Railway Congress just concluding its deliberations. Several such congresses have been held in past years in Europe, but the first to assemble in the United States was the one which gathered at Washington on May 3 and remained in session for some ten days. There were more than five hundred foreign delegates in attendance, and for their benefit a remarkable exhibit of railway appliances was made by American manufacturers. In the development of these appliances Americans may take a proper pride, since it is undoubtedly true that in this country more practical progress has been made in railway invention and improvement than anywhere else in the world. Yet it is probable that the American public was more keenly interested in the discussions and declarations of the congress on the subject of transportation rates than in anything that could be learned from it touching on the purely mechanical side of railway development. Secretary Taft's frank statement to the delegates that a railroad cannot be managed as private property was taken everywhere as a declaration of the principles recognized by the national administration as the basis of the Government's relation to the railroads. For some

weeks the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce had been sitting in Washington, giving hearings to eminent railroad experts on the subject of rates and rate-control. Many of these experts had declared themselves as opposed to the proposition, advocated by President Roosevelt, of giving additional powers for the fixing of rates to the Interstate Commerce Commission. The views of these men, most of whom were railway officials, had received wide currency, and it was generally believed that the members of the Senate committee had already practically made up their minds against a policy of government regulation. Secretary Taft's speech, coming almost simultaneously with the President's reiteration, at Denver, of his well-known advocacy of a regulation policy, tended to counteract the impression that was gaining ground in the country to the effect that nothing, after all, would come of the railroad agitation, but that the roads would continue to have things their own way. One or two of the more disinterested experts who appeared before the Senate committee also advocated some system of rate-control as a safeguard against conditions which might become, sooner or later, intolerable, and which would lead to far more radical measures of relief than President Roosevelt has ever proposed.



MR. STUYVESANT FISH.

(President of the Illinois Central Railroad, who debated the rate question with Secretary Taft before the International Railway Congress last month.)



SIR FRANCIS MOWATT.

(A prominent English delegate to the International Railway Congress.)

The Public-Service Corporations. In some of our great population centers, during the past two months, interest which usually centers in matters of national policy has been transferred in a noticeable degree to questions of local welfare. In New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago, problems of municipal ownership and municipal control of public utilities continue to engage the public mind to an absorbing extent. The action of the New York Legislature, while it stopped short of the demands made on it by public sentiment in the metropolis, still resulted in several substantial gains. The bill to secure 75-cent gas for the people of New York failed of enactment, but an important step in that direction was taken in the creation of a gas commission. In Philadelphia, the proposition to accept on behalf of the city a lump sum in lieu of annual rentals from corporations for the municipal gas works excited unusual opposition and failed to receive the assent of Mayor Weaver. A contribution to this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS explains the peculiar civic situation in Philadelphia, and shows how difficult it is for business questions like this to get a fair discussion and settlement. The Illinois Legislature has been occupied with bills affecting the ownership and operation of public utilities in the city of Chi-

ago. A bill was passed empowering the city government of Chicago to prescribe maximum rates for gas and electric light. A recent decision of Judge Grosscup seems to remove the last technical obstacle to the acquirement of the Adams Street railway system by the city of Chicago. Before the city can begin the actual operation of this street-car line, however, a referendum will be necessary, and also a referendum on the proposition to issue certificates to pay for the required equipment.

*New York
Legislation.* The work of the New York Legislature that attracted most attention

beyond the borders of the State itself was the legislation affecting New York City. Besides the gas bills, to which we have already alluded, a bill was passed taking the power to grant franchises in the city away from the Board of Aldermen and conferring it upon the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, a small body of officials elected by popular vote. Another important change made by the Legislature was the lengthening of the term of the mayor from two years to four. This measure was generally approved by all parties in New York City, on the ground that two years is an insufficient time in which to carry out a distinctive municipal policy, and that a good man may be deterred from accepting office, on the ground that he cannot surround himself with officials who will be able to give a successful administration under such conditions. The legislation aimed at the so-called "Raines law hotels," requiring such establishments to obtain certificates showing compliance with the building department's requirements before they can obtain licenses for the sale of liquor, while it was passed by the Legislature and approved by the governor, will not become immediately effective because it was not in force on the first day of May, the date on which liquor licenses for the ensuing twelve months were issued. It



Photograph by Prince, Washington.

SECRETARY WILLIAM H. TAFT.

(Who took part last month in the discussion of railroad-rate regulation.)

was provided, however, in an additional bill, that on the request of a taxpayer an inspection of any hotel shall be made to see whether it complies with the requirements of the building, fire, and health departments; if it is found to violate such requirements, its license is to be immediately revoked. Thus, something may be done even during the present year to rid the city of these objectionable resorts; but if anything is accomplished, it will have to be on individual initiative.

*The
Question of
Water-Supply.* Bills were passed by the Legislature establishing two water commissions, one to be appointed by the mayor of the city of New York, to ascertain available sources for an additional water-supply, and another creating a State commission, to be appointed by the governor, without whose approval

no municipality or town shall have power to condemn land for additional sources of water-supply. It is hoped that in this way the interests of the towns and villages situated in the territory adjacent to New York will be protected, while the city itself will be enabled to proceed with the establishment of a scientific and adequate system of water-supply. From the city's point of view, however, this seems a needlessly roundabout method of reaching the desired end. Some of the most vicious bills before the New York Legislature—notably the so-called Niagara "grab" bills—failed of passage. On the whole, it may be said that most of the legislation tends to secure the results desired by the better public sentiment of the State, the most obvious criticism being that the measures as passed and signed by the governor do not go far enough in the desired direction.

Forest Preservation. Some of the most important State legislation this year has been that relating to the care and culture of forests. Thus, the State of New Jersey has created a State commission, of which the governor and the State geologist are ex-officio members, and has intrusted to this commission such important duties as the reforestation of denuded lands, the prevention of forest fires, the administration and care of the State forests on the principles of practical forestry, coöperation with private owners of woodland and encouragement of the preservation and growing of timber for commercial and manufacturing purposes, and the preservation of forest tracts around the head waters and watersheds of all water-courses. This is regarded as the most comprehensive forestry law yet passed by any of our States, but some of the Western and Central States, as well as the older commonwealths of New England, are taking an active interest in forest preservation. On the Pacific coast, California, Oregon, and Washington have each made special provision for fire wardens, and have taken other measures to prevent the devastating forest fires which have occurred in past years. Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Indiana have passed laws with a similar purpose. To encourage reforestation of denuded lands, the State of Vermont has exempted from taxation all uncultivated lands planted with timber under regulations made by the State forestry commission. North Dakota, being especially desirous of increasing her forest resources, has passed a law which allows an annual reduction in taxes of three dollars for each acre planted with any kind of trees, set not more than eighty feet apart, in holdings of 80, 120,

or 320 acres. President Roosevelt issued a proclamation setting aside about ten million acres in Idaho as a forest reserve. California has at last turned over the Yosemite Park to the federal government, and the Legislature has



SENATOR FRANCIS G. NEWLANDS, OF NEVADA.
(A leading champion of the Government's irrigation policy.)

appropriated seventy thousand dollars toward a joint investigation to be undertaken by the State and the federal forestry bureaus, for the purpose of ascertaining the best methods of forest preservation.

Irrigation Progress. While the general government is thus coöperating with the States in the nurture and preservation of our forest resources, it is carrying forward with rapidity and success an irrigation policy which will soon reclaim for cultivation thousands of acres in the arid regions of the West and Southwest. The Truckee-Carson irrigation project, which is described in a special article contributed to this number of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, is to be formally opened on June 17. The State of Nevada was never able to undertake a comprehensive irrigation enterprise, owing to its small population and insignificant tax returns, but, largely owing to the energy and persistence of Senator Francis G. Newlands, the federal government (which is really the owner of more than 95 per cent. of the State's area) has stepped in and brought to a successful conclusion this

work of national importance, which bids fair to add immensely to the resources of a State that has heretofore been seriously handicapped in the development of its agricultural resources.

*Various
State
Problems.*

An indication of the sentiment that prevails in the West in favor of the prevention of discrimination in railroad rates is afforded by the attempts of States like Kansas and Washington to create railroad commissions with power to hear complaints and make rules and regulations for the eradication of such abuses. The State of Oregon has made provision for the connection of one railroad with another, requiring each road to transport the cars of the other at reasonable rates. If the rates cannot be agreed upon between the two railroad companies, they are to be settled by arbitration before a board composed of the governor, the secretary of state, and the State treasurer. The purpose of this law is to encourage the building of short railroad lines extending into undeveloped territory and connecting with trunk lines. The railroad bills before the Wisconsin Legislature, advocated by Governor La Follette, were all passed after a long and exciting contest. In addition to the railroad legislation in the Middle and Western States, the usual number of changes in systems of taxation were made throughout the country. In a number of States commissions were formed for the purpose of gathering information to enable the legislatures at future sessions to amend and perfect the laws relating to the assessment and collection of taxes.

*West Virginia
Tax Laws.*

About four years ago, such a commission was appointed in the State of West Virginia, and the report made by that commission resulted in the passage of a series of laws at a special session of the Legislature, last August, which are of far-reaching effect. As in several of the older and more populous States, notably New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, the policy now adopted in West Virginia is a complete separation of the sources of State and local revenue. The ultimate result of the new laws will be to do away entirely with a real-estate tax for State purposes. After three years there will be only a State tax of 5 cents on \$100, all of which is to be devoted to public-school purposes. One important feature of the new system is the creation of the office of State tax commissioner, whose duty it is to study the tax systems in the West Virginia laws, to execute the laws, to instruct the assessors, to assist the State board of public works in its yearly assessment of steam and

street railroads and other public-service corporations, and to attend to various other matters of administration. This year, all the lands in the State are to be reassessed, and this work is to be performed by assessors appointed and supervised by the State tax commissioner. After 1908, there is to be an annual reassessment of all real estate, for which purpose assessors are to be elected by the different localities, but their work is to be done under the supervision of the State tax commissioner. The county court is to constitute the board of equalization in each county, and the State board of public works is the final board of equalization.

*The Chicago
Teamsters'
Strike.*

Grievances of certain unions of garment workers in Chicago culminated last month in a sympathetic strike of the Teamsters' Union, an organization which has come into a position of power during the past three years. This sympathetic strike attained an importance in Chicago out of proportion to the number of strikers involved. Only about four thousand teamsters were actually on strike; but the delivery of goods by the great department stores, and by several of the more important wholesale establishments and manu-



Photograph by Collier's Weekly.

NEGRO DRIVER IN THE STREETS OF CHICAGO, GUARDED BY ARMED DEPUTIES.

facturers, could only be accomplished through the Employers' Teaming Association, an organization chartered under the laws of West Virginia and claiming the protection of the federal courts. There were outbreaks of violence in the streets,



Photograph by *Collier's Weekly*.

THE CHICAGO TEAMSTERS' STRIKE,—WAGONS PROTECTED BY POLICE.

at least three of the strike-breakers being killed. The drivers of the Employers' Association had police protection. Trade-unionist leaders everywhere saw that their cause was imperiled by every resort to violence, and after a few days normal traffic conditions in the streets of Chicago were practically resumed. Many of the contracting team-owners at first sided with the strikers and declined to order deliveries of goods made where the teamsters refused. The Employers' Teaming Association then bought out some of the contractors and leased the wagons of others, while the merchants brought pressure to bear on those team-owners who had not been bought out, declaring that all their contracts would be forfeited if they did not make deliveries. As a result, the team-owners' associations advised the teamsters to call off the strike.

Peace in the Labor World. The Chicago strike serves to direct public attention to the fact that in the month of May, this year, the number of such disturbances throughout the country was less than in any May of recent years. On the first day of May, 1904, there were 45,000 industrial employees reported vol-

untarily idle; on the corresponding date of the present year, there were less than 10,000. Since the beginning of the present year, not more than 30,000 persons are reported to have struck, as against 170,000 in the first four months of 1904. This change in conditions is particularly to be noted in the building trades, which are reported as unusually active the country over. Except for the Chicago strike, it may be said that there are now fewer clouds on the American industrial horizon than for many years.

International Finance.

So much of the financial community's attention converges on the day-to-day fluctuations of speculative markets that it is often apt to lose sight of the broader movements of finance. A survey directed, not to the shifting panorama of the stock exchanges, but to the wide horizon of the world's prosperity, discloses a very striking situation. Since the world-wide revival in prosperity began, eight or nine years ago, it has twice been rudely interrupted,—first, by the outbreak of war in South Africa, with the resultant complete derangement of English finance; next, in this country, by the collapse, in 1903, of a dozen or

so of the huge industrial concerns, built up hastily and insecurely in the excitement of 1901. Each of these incidents brought its penalty, in the shape of a period of financial uncertainty and reaction, lasting a year or more. The Transvaal war blockaded a group of gold mines which had been sending \$80,000,000 per annum to the money markets, and at the same time forced the British Government to draw, for war expenses, fully a billion dollars from these same markets and from its taxpayers; it started, therefore, a train of events which depressed European finance for two years after the return of peace. Germany's "company boom" broke down disastrously; London was compelled to borrow, on an enormous scale, from the Paris bankers; money at Paris went to the highest rate in a decade; British consols, the premier security of the world, fell to the lowest price since the London panic of 1866. On this side of the ocean, insolvency of such enormous industrial companies as the Asphalt Trust, the United States Shipbuilding, and the Consolidated Lake Superior; reduction of dividends in others, and assessment of shareholders in still others, came, along with acute distress of powerful capitalists engaged in these enterprises, and with failure of banks which had stood behind them. This led, at the close of 1903, to what many observers deemed the end of our cycle of prosperity. Yet what we see to-day in England is a market which has mostly paid off its floating obligations, and whose affairs have resumed a normal aspect. Germany once more displays all the signs of active industrial vigor. France has so far regained its financial wealth and power that, in the face of the Eastern war, it has kept undisturbed its \$1,600,000,000 Russian securities and has advanced \$100,000,000 more to the St. Petersburg government in war loans.

Our Own Prosperity.

The United States, after a twelve-months' halt in its trade activity, has again moved forward, with evidence on all sides of healthy industrial expansion. Two tests habitually applied by experts as a measure of trade conditions in this country are the exchange of bank checks at its clearing houses, showing the volume of business actually done, and the consumption of manufactured iron, showing the plans of general industry. If merchants, bankers, and manufacturers make fewer payments through their banks, it means that the sales and purchases in their industry are reduced. If orders for iron and steel diminish, it is a sign that manufacturers, builders, and transportation companies foresee small business and are curtailing orders for new machinery, new structural



MR. K. TAKAHASHI.

(The Japanese financier who engineered from his London office the flotation of the last Japanese loan in England and the United States.)

material, and new rails or cars. Each of these signs of the times foretold with unpleasant clearness the reaction of 1903. The shrinkage in clearing-house exchanges, and the cutting in two of the country's iron production, pointed unmistakably to the coming storm. But the storm passed over rapidly. This season, bank checks put through the country's clearing houses have surpassed all records in our history, rising in value 50 per cent. over 1904. Iron production has reached a magnitude twice that of December, 1903, and never approached in the history of the trade. Consumption at the rate of nearly two million tons a month, where a million tons was the highest monthly average of any year up to 1900, is witness to the state of our industries.

How It Is Accelerated.

Explanations of this renewed forward movement of prosperity throughout the world are numerous and interesting. The most familiar, and perhaps the most convincing, assumes that we are now, as we were in the so-called "boom times" of 1901, moving with one of those prolonged swings of

prosperity which recur at reasonably regular intervals.—generally once in twenty or twenty-five years. Such movements, when they come, are apt to gather such force, on the basis of genuine underlying conditions, that the advance movement will continue during a number of years before a state of absolute equilibrium of supply and demand seems to be restored. In the present case, the general movement of prosperity has already continued five or six years, interrupted only by casual reactions. This is a general explanation; there are others more specific. The very exceptional increase in the world's gold output is one of them. Precisely how much influence such production has on financial and industrial prosperity is a debated question; its influence on the movement of credit, however, through the expansion of coin reserves in the world's great banks, is undoubtedly considerable. In 1896, the whole world's gold output, estimated by our mint, was \$202,251,000. In 1903, it reached \$325,527,000. Estimates for last year place the yield at \$358,000,000. It is noteworthy that this increase has occurred notwithstanding the fact that the gold output from the Transvaal mines has not even yet regained the volume reached just before the outbreak of war, in 1899.

Our Increased Gold Production. It is largely the gold production of the United States that has made good the difference. In 1896, this country's gold production slightly exceeded \$53,000,000. In 1903, the figure had risen to \$73,591,000, and last year we turned out no less than \$84,551,000. This is an output which very far exceeds all records in our country's previous history. At the same time, another and still more potent influence has been at work in this country's favor. Cycles of overproduction and cycles of underproduction of the necessities of life seem to follow one another with fairly regular sequence in the world's development. The reason is, no doubt, that when demand for grain and cotton has become urgent and their prices high, there results at once wide extension of the producing area. This in time provides such additions to the annual crop that consumers' annual wants are again supplied with ease, and prices fall again. To this the usual response is, reduction in the less profitable agricultural area. At present there is no doubt whatever that agricultural producers throughout the world are finding it difficult to keep pace with normal demands from consumers of grain and cotton. This means highly profitable prices for these staples, in whose production this country leads the world, and consequent great prosperity of the producing districts.

The Trade Outlook.

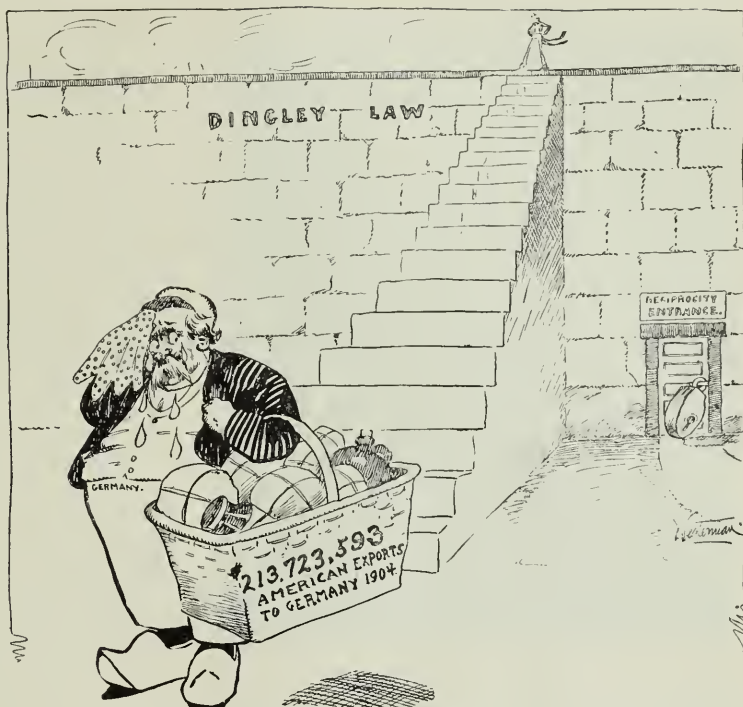
The outlook for continuance of the general forward movement just described is an interesting problem. In so far as concerns this country, it is safe to say that the tangible evidences of active trade for the present and the future are as numerous as they have been at any previous epoch in the industrial revival. Such qualifications as come to mind are those which always appear when financial skies are bright and confidence so abundant as to lead to rashness. Of this we have already had some taste in the extravagant "promotion" enterprises of 1900 and 1901, and the repeated excesses of stock-exchange speculation. On the other hand, it is an odd fact that some arguments which have been adduced to show a changing position are direct results of our great agricultural prosperity. For many years our wheat exports have been the mainstay of our foreign commerce, and more than any other influence have served to maintain our commanding position in the foreign trade. So great, however, has been the increase of home consumption of such products that a comparatively slight decrease in the annual harvest has reduced our wheat exports to the smallest figure since 1872 and placed the country far down on the list of wheat-exporting states, where we held, but a few years since, undisputed primacy. But this is a situation which cannot be regarded with the same pessimism as might follow reductions in our foreign trade unaccompanied by such signs of active home consumption. Abroad, the interesting factor in the situation is, of course, the Eastern war. Financial requirements of such a contest, forcing on each belligerent an expenditure of something like a million dollars daily, is a heavy drain on the money markets of the world. During the fifteen months of the present war, Japan has borrowed \$260,000,000 on the American and English markets, while Russia has raised at Paris and Berlin something like \$200,000,000. When sums of this magnitude have to be provided on short notice for the destructive purposes of war, it will usually happen that many legitimate industrial enterprises must postpone their plans because not enough ready capital is left to advance to them. This is one reason for the very deep concern with which Europe's financial markets are watching for signs of an ending of the war.

Our Tariff Relations with Germany.

Some stir was caused in American commercial circles last month by the announcement that Germany had fully decided to terminate the tariff arrangement now existing with the United States. The new German tariff, it will be remembered, was adopted

about two years and a half ago, but, owing to certain commercial treaties which could not be terminated without due notice in advance, the new law will not go into effect until March, 1906. In the meantime, Germany has negotiated seven special commercial treaties with European nations, all of which have been adopted. These treaties all make important modifications in the schedules of the new tariff. Heretofore, the United States has enjoyed important tariff concessions on certain articles of trade through the operation of the "most favored nation" clause, which dates back to a treaty made between the United States and the King of Prussia as far back as the year 1828. Thus, American wheat, corn, and other dutiable merchandise have been imported into Germany at the lowest rates of duty which had been granted to Russia, Austria, or any other nation. Furthermore, a special agreement was concluded between the governments of Germany and the United States, in the year 1900, whereby important modifications were made in the duties fixed by the Dingley law on certain articles of German origin, so that the principle of reciprocity has operated to the development of our trade with Germany in a marked degree. We have been importing from Germany more than one hundred million dollars' worth of goods each year, while we have shipped to that country goods to the value of something over two hundred million dollars. No other country in the world sends to Germany products of equal value. If, now, this country has to face a situation created by an entirely new set of German tariff schedules, many of them showing a marked increase over the existing tariff, our first concern is to know what treatment is to be accorded to our chief rivals for the German trade.

Discrimination Against American Products. Consul-General Mason, at Berlin, has transmitted to the Washington government an exhibit of the German tariff duties showing the maximum on each article under the present law, the reductions made by treaty, the autonomous duties to go into effect in 1906, and the reductions granted



HIS ULTIMATUM: "DOT ISS DER LAST TIME VOT I PUY SOMETHINGS HERE YET, IF I HAF TO CLIMB ME DOSE STAIRS UP. VAT?"

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

to certain European countries on important articles of import. From this tabulation it appears that in the schedule relating to dried apples, pears, peaches, and apricots, of which the United States now exports large quantities to Germany, there will be important changes under the new tariff and treaties. The present duty of 95 cents per 100 kilograms will be increased to \$2.38, while imports from Italy, Roumania, Austria-Hungary, and Servia, countries which produce a surplus of these dried fruits, will continue to be admitted under the old duty of 95 cents. If our wheat and rye are to be subject to the full duties of the new tariff, we shall be compelled to pay 47 cents per 100 kilograms more duty than wheat and rye from Italy, Roumania, Austria-Hungary, and Servia. Our wheat export to Germany last year amounted to nearly six million dollars. Passing to manufactured products, we find that American sewing-machines, of which we sent to Germany more than nine hundred thousand dollars' worth last year, will be seriously discriminated against through the treaty which Germany has negotiated with Switzerland, by which Swiss machines are to be admitted at a duty of \$2.85 per 100 kilograms, as compared with the autonomous

tariff rate of \$8.33 which the United States will be compelled to pay. These are only a few instances out of many which might be cited to show the handicaps which now seem certain to be placed upon our trade with Germany until some form of reciprocity arrangement can be entered into at once through which the interests of both nations may be protected. It is understood that the German Government is ready to negotiate a reciprocity treaty, but the best friends of such a policy in this country do not look forward with hope to the prospects of such a treaty when it comes up for ratification in the United States Senate.

In the meantime, our export trade in general, and especially that with the far East, is making rapid growth. The customs reports from month to month for the Puget Sound district indicate that the current fiscal year will prove the greatest for its export trade in the history of that district. It is estimated that the exports for the year will exceed the imports by fully \$15,000,000. The chief articles of export from the port of Seattle are flour (which is a local product), cotton, and cotton goods. The total exports of the month for the Puget Sound district amounted to \$4,702,616. Another indication of the general prosperity of the Pacific slope and the far Northwest is the promptness with which the Lewis and Clark Centennial Exposition has been brought to completion. The fair will be opened to the public on June 1, but early in May it was announced by the directors that the construction had practically been completed and it only remained to give the finishing touches to the landscape work. Usually, expositions in this country are open five or six months at least, but the Portland fair will continue for only four and a half months. It is aimed to have the exposition as complete on the opening day as when it closes, and the favorable weather of the past winter, combined with an absence of labor troubles, has enabled the directors to achieve this unusual record. The original features of the exposition site were comprehensively described in the April number of this REVIEW.

The most important problem before the reorganized Panama Canal Commission during the past few weeks has been the problem of sanitation. Yellow fever has made serious headway in both Panama and Colon, and several government officials have been its victims. Considering the unwholesome sanitary condition of the Isthmus prior to the beginning of active operations by our govern-

ment, it is not at all strange that the fever persists there. We could hardly expect Colonel Gorgas to banish the plague within a single year, but we ought to recognize the fact that conditions are greatly improved, and that daily progress is being made in cleansing the plague-spots. Before the end of the present year, the towns will have good supplies of pure water, sewer systems, and street-paving. These three improvements ought to go a long way toward eradicating the scourge, yet we must not expect results as conclusive and sweeping as those that were reached in so short a time at Havana. Panama is much farther south, and the situation there is harder, on many accounts, to cope with; but the commission has done away with needless delays, and has given Colonel Gorgas every facility for carrying out his plans. The recent outbreak of fever is now well under control, and hospitals for the detention of affected patients have now been provided. Besides these sanitary measures, the commission, of course, has under consideration various engineering plans for the completion of the canal. As between the sea-level project and the lock system, no decision has yet been reached; but perhaps it has not been fully understood by the public that the work on the canal can go on for two years before it will be absolutely necessary to have a definite working plan. The consulting board of engineers will meet in September to decide on the final plans.

The cordiality of our relations with the countries of Europe is being demonstrated by notable expressions of good-will to our retiring ambassadors. Mr. Choate leaves London with more than the hearty good-will and regard of our British brethren. His election to one of the most highly prized positions in the British bar,—Bencher of the Inner Temple,—is evidence of his popularity in England. This body (the Inner Temple) is one of the four English Inns of Court which have played a great part in the history, not only of English jurisprudence, but of English literature. General Porter's departure from Paris also was marked by a banquet, at which the French premier and almost all the cabinet were present and made complimentary remarks touching our ambassador's stay of eight years in Paris. Mr. McCormick had also received evidences of high regard and appreciation upon his departure from St. Petersburg. These three ambassadors have most worthily represented American dignity, traditions, and interests in the great European capitals to which they were accredited, and have sustained the reputation American representa-

Western Prosperity and the Portland Fair.

Our Home-Coming Ambassadors.

Sanitation at Panama.

tives have always had in those cities. Mr. Reid, in London; Mr. McCormick, in Paris, and Mr. Meyer, in St. Petersburg, may be relied upon to uphold the same worthy traditions. Important changes in our diplomatic service to several South American countries were also announced,—the transfer of Minister John Barrett from Panama to Bogotá, and that of Minister Russell from the Colombian capital to Carácas. Mr. Bowen had been given a leave of absence from Venezuela, and had returned to the United States to assist the President in investigating certain charges (afterward proved without foundation) against former Minister to Venezuela Francis B. Loomis, now Assistant Secretary of State. Mr. Loomis had been Mr. Bowen's predecessor at Carácas, and the latter had reported to Washington accusations current in the country affecting Mr. Loomis' reputation. Latin America is sending us some of its very best men. For example, the new Brazilian ambassador to the United States, the first representative since the Brazilian legation has been made an embassy, is Dr. Joaquim Arelio Nabuco de Araujo, a scholar and an orator, whose writings on international law are well known in this country.



HON. JOSEPH H. CHOATE.

(Who retired last month from the American ambassadorship at London.)

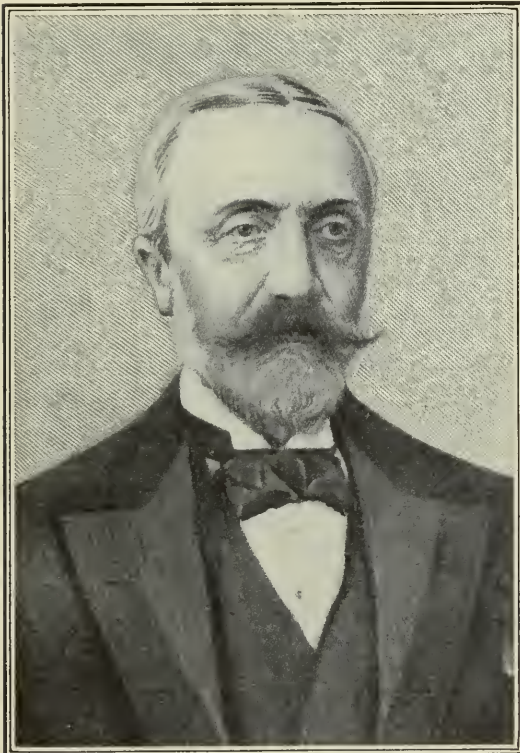


GANYEMEDE CHOATE AND THE AMERICAN EAGLE.

"He goes back to his home with his duty well and nobly done, taking the universal respect and admiration of a kindred nation and his own."—From *Punch* (London).

Other diplomatic changes of great importance to American interests, and destined, beyond a doubt, to have considerable effect upon the future relations of the nations now at war in the far East, were the retirement of Count Cassini, as Russian ambassador, from Washington and the appointment of Baron Rosen to succeed him, and the intention of the Japanese Government (not yet actually carried out) of raising the Japanese legation in this country to the rank of an embassy. The seven years of Count Cassini's stay in Washington, during most of which he has been dean of the diplomatic corps and very popular socially, have been important ones in Russo-American relations. Elsewhere in this issue an outline of Count Cassini's career and his attitude on important questions of the day are presented. His successor, Baron Rosen, was formerly Russian minister to Tokio, and while at the Japanese capital was one of the strongest advocates of peace, vigorously opposing Admiral Alexiev's warlike preparations in Manchuria. Baron Rosen has the respect and admiration of the Japanese, and his appointment to Washington, where, it is believed, at least some of the peace negotiations will be conducted, is looked upon in many quarters as an indication that the peace party is in the ascendancy at St. Pe

tersburg. Baron Rosen's acquaintance with this country and the American people extends over a period of some thirty years. He has been consul-general at New York, and was *chargé d'affaires* at Washington during Mr. Cleveland's first administration. In an interview, in St. Petersburg, in the middle of May, upon the announcement of his appointment, Baron Rosen is reported to have declared that in Russia the word "American" has always been synonymous with friend. He, like Count Cassini, attributes the change of sentiment in this country toward Russia to a misunderstanding,—a misunderstanding which he "sincerely believes the future and impartial history will correct." It is confidently expected that Baron Rosen will take part in the peace negotiations. The excellent services of the Japanese minister, Mr. Takahira, have deserved the most generous recognition at the hands of his government; and, far as the American people are concerned, he would make a very satisfactory ambassador at Washington. The Japanese minister's personality and career are touched upon on another page in this number of the REVIEW.



BARON ROSEN.

(Successor to Count Cassini as Russian ambassador to the United States.)

*British
Finances and
the British
People.*

Even if the Tory government were not losing ground at every step, the presentation of the budget would be a most important and interesting event in British politics. In his speech accompanying the presentation of the budget, Mr. Austen Chamberlain, chancellor of the exchequer, declared that there was a large surplus (£14,000,000) in the national treasury. Contrary to the general expectation, however, he did not announce any reduction in the income tax, which is now higher than it has been since 1864 (except, of course, during the period of the South African war). Last year it was increased from elevenpence in the pound to one shilling, and made payable on all incomes over £160, with an allowance for life insurance as the only deduction. The middle merchant class, which has been gradually becoming alienated from the Tory party, had been looking for a reduction of this poundage to the eightpence rate, which had come to be looked upon as the permanent rate in normal years. Mr. Chamberlain, however, has seen fit to use the surplus in a way to relieve the poorer classes. He has effected a reduction of the war import duty on tea, a reduction to go into effect on July 1. In accordance with the habitual custom of the chancellor of the exchequer to draw some social or economic inference from the budget figures as he presents them to the House of Commons, Mr. Chamberlain indulged in some speculation as to the cause of the shrinkage of the revenue from beer and spirits, which was £137,000 below the estimate. In his opinion, this shrinkage is "largely attributable to a change in the habits of the people."

The masses are discovering other places in which to spend their leisure time and money than public-houses. They go more to theaters and music halls, and cheap excursions absorb much of the money that once was spent on drink.

He did not say, although he probably might have done so with some truth, that the reduced expenditure for liquors is due in some degree to the industrial depression, a fact indicated by the increased expenditure by the "poor law" guardians, as brought out in his own figures.

*A New British
Naval
Programme.*

Problems for naval defense came up for heated discussion in the British Parliament during early May. Speaking as chairman of the Committee of Defense of the Admiralty, Mr. Balfour had announced a new distribution of the British navy. Heretofore, the fundamental plan of British naval policy has been to safeguard England, and in accordance with this it has been maintained that the British navy must always be

equal, at least, to the combined fleets of the two next greatest naval powers, and, furthermore, that there must remain within British waters, or within easy distance thereof, a force fully able to shield England from invasion. Mr. Balfour, however, denied the validity of the assumption that Great Britain must maintain in the North Sea or the British Channel a force at least equal to any that Germany or France could combine against her. He quoted the opinion of Lord Roberts, that it would be impracticable for any power to invade England with less than seventy thousand men; that transportation of such an army could not be effected in less than forty-eight hours, requiring at least two hundred thousand tons of shipping; and that even Germany and France combined could not muster in their Atlantic and Channel ports half that tonnage. Britain, Mr. Balfour boasted, had never been successfully invaded since the Norman Conquest. Considerable opposition had been evident to Mr. Balfour's assumptions, and this opposition is expected to increase. It remains to be seen whether the British people will sanction the premier's naval programme. Meanwhile, British Liberals, in anticipation of their early return to power, are reported to be concerned over the pending renewal of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. This alliance will expire in 1907, unless notice of renewal is given at least a year in advance. There is no disagreement as to the necessity for renewing the treaty. As to terms, however, there is a difference of opinion. Japan does not wish to be bound by the provisions which compel her to recognize the sovereignty of the weak Korean emperor. She is also anxious to secure to herself in the future the active assistance of her ally's navy and not have even the moral weight of the alliance nullified by such a compact as the Anglo-French *entente*. The existing treaty binds England to assist Japan only in case the latter country should be attacked by two great powers at once. The very substantial but politely disavowed assistance rendered by the republic to Russia's naval operations in far-Eastern waters has brought home forcibly to the Tokio government the extreme difficulty of proving just when it is entitled to the aid of its ally.

A Constitution for South Africa. The draft of a new constitution for the Transvaal was issued in London on April 25 and transmitted at once by Colonial Secretary Lyttelton to Lieutenant-Governor Lawley, together with the announcement that, in the opinion of the British Government, the time is not yet ripe to grant complete autonomy to the Transvaal. The constitution

provides for a legislative assembly, consisting of the lieutenant-governor, six to nine official members (appointed by the crown), and thirty to thirty-five elected members. The elected representatives are to be voted for by white adult male subjects of the British King who were entitled to vote for the first Volksraad under the former republic, as well as those white males of British birth occupying lands or buildings renting for not less than fifty dollars per annum, or having a capital of at least five hundred dollars. English is to be the official language of all the debates in the assembly, but the president of the Volksraad may permit a member to address the assembly in Dutch. Negroes are not permitted to vote. All financial measures must be recommended to the assembly by the governor, and no money can be appropriated without his authority. The Boers consider this constitution a violation of the peace treaty made May 31, 1902, by which self-government was promised as soon as the country was in a settled condition. A good part of the English press criticises the government for surrendering elementary education to the Dutch, and some agree with the Boers in condemning the new constitution as a breach of faith. Both the parties in the Transvaal now working for self-government, the People's party (composed mostly of Boers) and the Responsible Government Association (composed of British who favor the policy of "trusting the Dutch"), are now combined in opposition to the government. Large numbers of the Boers, it is reported, disappointed at what they consider failure to observe the terms of the peace treaty in granting self-government, are moving to German East Africa. Certainly, as many of the British leaders prophesied when the war ended, Great Britain is having as much trouble in reconstructing the Boers as she had during the time she was fighting them.

Religious Toleration for Russia? While there had been but little improvement in the military and industrial situation in Russia, and no great man capable of command had emerged from the millions, the months of April and May, nevertheless, witnessed several really hopeful signs of progress and enlightenment in the future. The conviction seems to be dawning on the Russian mind that in holding the Church in servitude the state has paralyzed progress, and that, while the lack of political liberty is bad, the denial of religious liberty is many times worse. On the eve of May Day, which was expected to have witnessed all kinds of bloody disorders, on the morning of the Russian Easter, the Czar published a decree which deserves to rank with his rescript leading

to the Hague Peace Conference. This later rescript proclaims absolute religious liberty to all the subjects of the empire.—Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Non-Conformist, Buddhist, or Mohammedan. Heretofore, while all religions have been tolerated in Russia, there have been certain very important exceptions, permitting of an immense amount of persecution and injustice. For example, no member of the state church could leave that church to enter another without losing all his civil rights, and no church other than the Orthodox had the right to proselyte. Furthermore, when members of the Russian Church and those of any other church married, it was necessary to have the ceremony performed by an Orthodox priest, and the law insisted that the children of such marriages be brought up in the Orthodox faith. These restrictions have been particularly hard on the Old Believers, as they are called,—a body which separated from the Orthodox Church two and a half centuries ago and has since suffered all kinds of persecution. The new ukase recognizes the various orders of priesthood among the Old Believers, and gives them the right to celebrate marriage. To all the dissenting sects,—Roman Catholics, Lutherans, Jews, and others,—is accorded the right to erect houses of worship without restriction. This ukase was in response to a memorial presented by ex-Minister of Finance Witte, pleading for the restoration of liberty to the established church. On another page of this issue, the Witte memorial, with comments, is given. Whatever may be the limitations revealed by the full text of the ukase, it is a most remarkable and significant document in the history of Russian liberation. The response of the Old Believers to this restoration of their religious rights is immediate and generous. On reliable French authority, it is announced that the sect has decided to contribute \$500,000,000 for the Czar's project of double-tracking the Trans-Siberian Railway.

*Progress
in Other
Reforms.*

A number of Liberal congresses held throughout the past month indicated the progress of the reform movement throughout the empire. At Moscow, thirteen hundred doctors from all parts of European Russia, when restricted in their deliberations to scientific and technical subjects, passed a resolution condemning the government as corrupt and inefficient, and unable to cope with a cholera epidemic which had broken out in the Caucasus region. Radical improvement in the economic conditions of the country is necessary, further declared the resolution, for the preservation of the national health. A congress of lawyers in St. Petersburg passed similar reso-

lutions, and were dispersed by the police. The Association of Russian Journalists, numbering among its members Gorki, Korolenko, and Gessen, passed a resolution of sympathy for the mother of the assassin of the Grand Duke Sergius. Meanwhile, a good deal of disorder had continued throughout the empire, and in Zhitomir, the capital of the government of Volhynia, southwestern Russia, racial riots had broken out, in which a number of Jews were killed and wounded. Reliable reports, however, indicate that material concessions to the Jews are really contemplated. As to the question of the summoning of the national assembly, or Zemski Sobor, which has been uppermost in the minds of the people for so many months, the Czar reiterates his intention to convene that body. In reply to the assembly of nobles at Kostroma, the Emperor stated: "My will regarding the convocation of representatives of the people is unswerving, and the minister of the interior is devoting all his efforts to its prompt execution."

*Concessions
to
Poland.*

Following upon some bloody May Day riots in Warsaw, during which 62 persons were killed and over 200 wounded, as a result of a procession of revolutionists, and disturbances in other Polish cities, came the announcement of real concessions to the Poles, particularly in the language question, as intimated in these pages last month. On May 16, the Czar issued an imperial rescript modifying the restrictive language decrees in nine of the western governments of Russia, and giving the Poles greater freedom for acquiring farm lands and industrial properties. The rescript gives permission, also, to introduce the Polish and Lithuanian languages in the primary and secondary schools in districts in which the majority of the inhabitants are non-Russian. It directs that the necessary regulations and laws be formulated at once. These measures, it has been announced, will be followed by the introduction of local self-government through the zemstvo system. Thus, at one stroke all the vexatious restrictive laws in Poland and the Baltic provinces have been removed, and the rights for which the non-Russian peoples have been fighting for years are restored. Assuming the good faith and honest coöperation of the public functionaries who will carry out the Emperor's orders in this language question and in the matter of the rescript on religious toleration issued some weeks ago, there is little doubt that many of the most serious political problems in Poland and the Baltic provinces will be largely solved and an era of good feeling result better than has prevailed in Poland for half

a century. As has already been stated several times in these pages, the present disturbances throughout the former Polish kingdom are not political, but economic and social, in character, and the leading Poles realize that the time has not yet come for revolution. They are beginning to believe that their political future is bound up in that of the Russian Empire. At any rate, their attitude in Russia's hour of trial has been correct, and the social disorders have been exclusively the work of agitators, many of whom, it is believed, have been Germans expelled from their own country. In a "Leading Article," this month, is presented an outline of the language question as it is to-day in Poland, with significant Polish and German comment.

Rozhestvenski
us. Tokio and
Paris.

"There are three powers at war in the far East," recently observed a British diplomat,—“Russia, Japan, and Admiral Rozhestvenski.” Although uttered in jest, the events of the past month have shown that there is considerable truth in this statement. The Russian naval commander has apparently consulted no interests but his own, and has disregarded orders from St. Petersburg and requests from Paris as calmly as he has ignored threats from Tokio and warnings from London. From the mass of contradictory reports as to dates and places the facts stand out that, despite Russian and French statements to the contrary, the Russian squadron was still close to the French Indo-Chinese coast as late as May 12. During his stay of from ten days to two weeks in the French territorial harbors of Kamranh and Honkohe bays, Admiral Rozhestvenski had supplied himself bountifully with coal and other necessaries. This was in defiance of orders from St. Petersburg, and in spite of all the efforts of the small French territorial squadron under Admiral de Jonquières. On May 8 (or 9), the reenforcing squadron under Admiral Nebogatov joined Rozhestvenski and was merged in the main fleet. Nebogatov's squadron consisted mostly of old and slow vessels, but their presence materially increased Rozhestvenski's strength. By May 20, the combined Russian fleet, comprising sixty war vessels and a number of auxiliaries, was reported proceeding northward; but whether intending battle with Admiral Togo or seeking some Siberian harbor (Vladivostok or Petropavlovsk), is not known at this writing. Conflicting reports as to the seaworthy condition of the Russian ships had been coming from the far East. Certain it is that they must have been in need of docking, since they have been in the water constantly for nearly eight months. Rumor

had it that Admiral Rozhestvenski's health had broken down and that he had asked to be relieved; but this rumor, as well as the report from Paris that Admiral Togo's flagship, the *Mikasa*, had been sunk by a mine, were not confirmed, and both were vigorously denied. In spite of all its misfortunes and delays, and after all has been said about the "benevolent neutrality" of France, the union of these two squadrons in Chinese waters is, to a considerable degree, a vindication of the Russian navy and a satisfactory reply to those who have charged the Russians with utter naval incompetency. The Japanese Government has placed the strictest embargo on naval news, and but little is known of Togo's movements. His tactics and the larger problem of diplomacy before him, however, are outlined (on page 684 of this issue) in an article by a Japanese student of the war who has followed the naval situation closely, basing his statements on authoritative information from Japan.

As to
French
Neutrality.

Serious international complications were threatened by the intense feeling aroused in Japan over what was termed the abuse of France's hospitality by Rozhestvenski and the culpability of the republic in harboring the Russians and permitting them to refit in her territorial waters. While breaches of neutrality in favor of the Russian Baltic fleet were "tolerable west of Singapore, they cannot [declared one of the semi-official journals of Tokio] be endured for a moment east of that point." Following a good deal of excited discussion in the Japanese press, charging France with violation of neutrality and calling upon England to observe the terms of her alliance with Japan, the Japanese Government made a protest to the French Government, which



THE ANGLO-FRENCH AGREEMENT AND NEUTRALITY IN THE EAST.

JAPAN: "The 'Open Door' is all right, but if he gets through, I can also."
From the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).



VICE-ADMIRAL NEBOGATOV.

was published in full in the *Temps*, of Paris. Eight specific cases, giving causes of complaint against France for violation of neutrality, were cited, comprising the visits of the Russian fleet at Cherbourg and at French colonial ports, ending with the two bays in French Indo-China. The statement concluded with three points :

First.—Without impugning the good faith of France, the Japanese Government thinks that the French instructions were inadequately carried out.

Second.—If satisfaction has been given the Japanese observations after the event, it was a pity that more active watchfulness was not practised before, thereby preventing deeds that Japan considers breaches of neutrality.

Third.—Japan does not ignore the complexity of questions of maritime neutrality or France's predilection for her own particular rules; nevertheless, she considers that the aid assured Admiral Rozhstvenski owing to slovenly surveillance greatly assisted the accomplishment of his mission and his advent into the Chinese seas.

In brief, the Japanese contention was that the existence of the empire depends upon "invoking the spirit and duty of neutrality against hair-splitting subtleties," and that it is "manifestly for the purpose of war and with hostile intent" that Admiral Rozhstvenski on so many occasions utilized French waters to anchor and retreat, as well as to await reinforcements.

The next day a semi-official statement of France's reply was published in the same journal. This defense asserted that a nation is bound only by its own proclamations of neutrality, by its treaties with other nations, and by its recognized policy in the past. England and Germany may allow a vessel to stay in one of their ports for only twenty-four hours, or, if it stays longer, may demand that it disarm; but France, it was pointed out, does not recognize, and never has recognized, the twenty-four-hour limit. Considering the distance from home, the fact that the Russians were always outside the three-mile limit, and all other points, the French statement claims that all measures possible were taken to enforce neutrality as understood by the French Government. Moreover, "Japan has done in the Philippines and in the Dutch East Indies the same thing that she accuses Russia of doing in Indo-China." The four conclusions of the French statement follow :

First.—The French neutrality regulations were not established for the present war, but existed previously, without protest from Japan.

Second.—France has not only exercised her sovereignty to fulfill the regulations to the full letter, but has also adopted special measures to maintain absolute impartiality.

Third.—The only direct purchases of coal by the Russians were at Algiers, where the quantity was insignificant. The main stock of coal was purchased in Germany and England without protest.

Fourth.—Any advantages which the Russian second Pacific squadron obtained by anchoring off the French coast were equally open to the Japanese if they had taken the offensive instead of awaiting the Russians.

The French press also pointed out that Admiral Nebogatov had taken refuge in British as well as French waters on his way to the China Sea, and that most of the coal shipped in Indo-China by Rozhstvenski had been obtained from a reservation and coaling station on ground purchased by Russia before the beginning of the war.

Admitting the force of the French contentions, it is yet hard to see how perfect neutrality has been observed, especially in view of the suppression by the French censor at Saigon of telegraphic dispatches (filed by a correspondent of the New York *Sun*) detailing France's violations of neutrality, and in view of the fact that the reprovisioning of the Russian vessels actually proceeded under the direction of Prince Lieven, captain of the Russian warship *Diana*, interned in Saigon since the naval action of August 10, last. The retention of the message had been defended by the French foreign office on the ground that by a

France's
Statement.

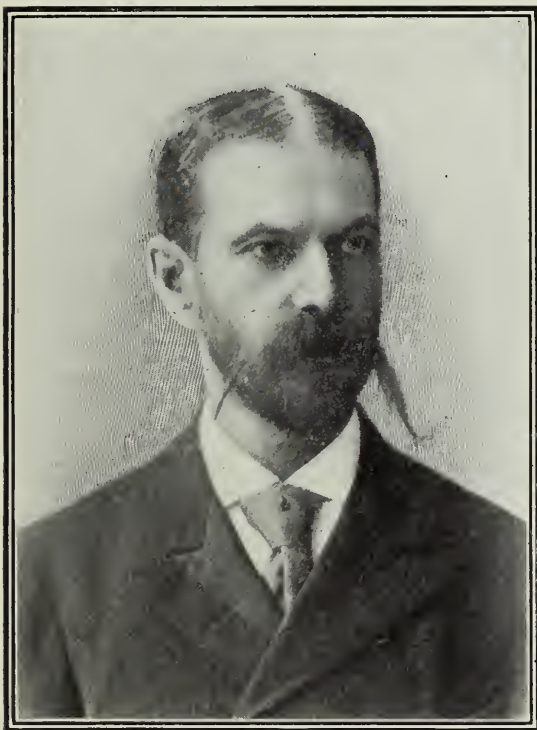
An "Unsatisfactory
Explanation."

decision of the International Postal Conference governments have the right to stop, in their respective territories, all telegrams supposed to be dangerous." The general attitude of the British press, and the request for information by the British premier, elicited a formal statement by the French ambassador at London to the general effect that France has strictly complied with all obligations of neutrality in so far as her naval force in far-Eastern waters permitted her to do so. It should be noted, however, that when Admiral de Jonquières backed up his requests by warships *Rozhestvenski* finally heeded them and left French territorial waters.

The Land Campaign in the East.

While it had been generally believed that the campaign on land would wait on the result of the expected battle between Admirals Togo and *Rozhestvenski*, a close reading of the official reports issued by the Japanese commanders indicated that by the middle of May Field Marshal Oyama had so disposed his forces that the envelopment of Vladivostok had practically begun. This had been borne out by the notice given by the Russian authorities that all foreign agents must

leave the city before June 1. There had been reports of minor actions without decisive result, and on May 18 a reconnaissance in force by Field Marshal Oyama's army actually took place. It was rumored that a large Japanese army, under General Hasegawa, had landed in Korea early in May, and, despite the presence in that country of a considerable Russian raiding force, had marched along the route taken by General Kawamura to meet the main Japanese army and complete the investment of Vladivostok from the land side. In a report to the Czar, General Linevitch, the new commander-in-chief, declared that the peril to the army, and its losses, after the battle of Mukden, had been greatly exaggerated. The spirit of the Russian troops, he declared, is strong, and the army is not at all demoralized. General Kuropatkin, in an interview, blamed his subordinate generals for his defeat at Mukden, and declared that in the division of responsibility lies the chief cause of Russian failure. The official report of Russian losses during the series of actions known as the battle of Mukden places the killed and wounded at 1,900 officers and 87,000 men. The Japanese dead, sick, and wounded, from the beginning of the war up to May 1, ex-Premier Okuma recently stated, amount to between 250,000 and 300,000.



THE LATE PAUL LESSAR.
(Russian minister to China, 1901-1905.)

The retirement of Count Cassini from the Russian embassy in Washington, and the death of Paul Lessar, Russian minister at Peking, after ten years of Russia's preponderance in China, recall the chapter, now apparently closed, of Russia's brilliant, subtle diplomacy at Peking, now to be succeeded by an era which will some day be described as that of Japanese ascendancy. The armies of the Mikado are at present in such undisputed control of the former Chinese dependencies of Korea and Manchuria that the Tokio government has just perfected plans to replace military control by civil on the continent, a status which was arrived at in Korea some months ago. All reports from Seoul describe the wonderful transformation in the once hermit kingdom by Japanese influence. Railroads are being built, and harbors improved, and, thanks to the substitution of Japanese gendarmerie for the corrupt Korean police, order is maintained in the capital and throughout the surrounding country. Japan now controls all communications between Korea and the outside world, including railroads, posts, telegraphs, and telephones. In this connection we must not forget to say that it was by inadvertence that we announced (in our issue for February) that Prof. Homer B. Hulbert was an

adviser to the Korean Emperor. Professor Hulbert is connected with the English school in Seoul, and is editor of the *Korea Review*, published, in English, in that city.

Chinese Commercial Awakening. The action of the Chinese Government in directing that Chinese merchants in New York, San Francisco, and other American cities where there are large Chinese colonies enter into commercial associations "for the correction of injustice in international commercial relations" has been followed by the joint announcement of the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce (Chinese, not English), at the head of a list of Chinese commercial bodies, that it will boycott American goods "until the United States concedes some relief in the matter of exclusion." This attitude of the Chinese Government is generally attributed to the influence of Mr. Wu Ting-Fang, formerly Chinese minister at Washington, and is indicative of the awakening of the Chinese ruling classes to the importance of international commerce. Influential Chinamen in this country have already begun a campaign for the modification of our strict exclusion regulations, which, they claim, while perhaps not unfair in their general provisions, have generally been unfairly enforced. Another evidence of Chinese awakening to modern conditions is the recent imperial decree summarizing the new criminal procedure and abolishing the cruel punishment of slicing to death, and the punishment of a family for the fault of an individual. This decree was also in response to a memorial from Mr. Wu. It is evident that the China of 1905 is quite different from the Celestial Empire of a decade and a half ago. The Society for the Diffusion of Christianity and General Knowledge Among the Chinese, in the last annual report of its most excellent work, calls attention to the fact that the Chinese dislike for foreigners, while not so violently expressed as heretofore, is just as strong and deep-seated as ever. The report also points out the tremendous development of commerce and railways, and the part played by missionaries in this development. In March, last, according to a detailed report of Consul-General Ragsdale, at Tientsin, there were in China railroad lines actually constructed with an aggregate capital of more than \$170,000,000. In addition to this, China has already granted railway concessions to France and England which have been capitalized at more than \$51,000,000. The society warns us of the Occident not to be deceived by the general idea that Japanese civilization is better for China than that of Christendom.

Centenaries and Memorials.

The first half of May saw a number of noteworthy memorial celebrations of international as well as strictly American interest. In Spain, it may be said that the entire nation celebrated with great festivities the tercentenary of Don Quixote. The Schiller centenary was celebrated, not only in Germany, but all over the world, popular assemblies and learned bodies in all civilized countries vying with one another in paying tributes to the great German poet who died one hundred years ago. One of the Schiller societies in Germany has arranged for a complete edition of the poet's works at a price of one mark (twenty-five cents), and the Swiss Government has decided to present every school child in Switzerland (more than two hundred thousand) with a copy of "Wilhelm Tell." German singing societies throughout the United States held festivities in honor of the poet. During the present month (on June 22), all Italy will commemorate the one-hundredth anniversary of Mazzini's birth,—Mazzini, who ranks with Garibaldi and Cavour in the great trio of Italian liberators. In "Leading Articles," this month, estimates of the national significance of both Schiller and Mazzini are given. The unveiling of a monument



PRINCE OSCAR OF SWEDEN AND HIS FIANCÉE,
PRINCESS MARGARET OF CONNAUGHT.



THE CROWN PRINCE OF GERMANY AND HIS FIANCÉE, THE DUCHESS CECILIA OF MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN.

tions. Both he and his wife-to-be are much devoted to outdoor sports. They are said to be healthy, unaffected young people. Both speak English without an accent. Another royal wedding set for June, in London, is that of Prince Oscar Gustav Adolph, son of the acting king, Gustav, of Sweden-Norway, and heir-apparent to the throne, to Margaret, Princess of Connaught, niece of King Edward of England. The persistently reported betrothal of King Alfonso of Spain to Victoria Patricia, Princess of Connaught, sister of Margaret, is another event of world-interest. King Alfonso is planning to visit England during the summer.

to the memory of Gambetta, at Bordeaux is a tardy recognition of the claims of that great Frenchman upon the gratitude of his countrymen. A series of commemorative exercises of peculiar interest to Americans will take place during the week of July 4, when an American warship brings back from Paris, for interment at Annapolis, the remains of John Paul Jones. Thanks to the untiring zeal of General Porter, the satisfactory identification of the remains of this naval hero had been accomplished, and his remains are to be transferred from a cemetery in Paris to the center of American naval traditions, where a memorial chapel will be erected to mark their final resting-place. The approval of the design for the new McKinley memorial to be built at Canton, Ohio, and the unveiling of the monument, in the Capitol, to the late Frances E. Willard, were also commemorative events of national interest and significance.

*The
Ocean
Yacht Race*

The great race across the Atlantic for the Emperor William's cup is a pleasant and reassuring innovation in yachting contests. It shows a wholesale stripping off of the complex rules, regulations, and allowances that made the *America's* cup races something of a puzzle to the average citizen. There were eleven yachts, real seagoing vessels, of all sizes, from the little *Fleur-de-Lys*, of 86 tons, to the Earl of Crawford's full-rigged ship of a yacht, the *Valhalla*, of 647 tons. The eleven

*Royal Wed-
dings and
Engagements.*

A marriage of interest and importance to the entire world is that of Frederick William, the crown prince of Germany, to Grand Duchess Cecilia of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, which has been finally set for June 6. The future German emperor is just twenty-three years of age, a modest but dignified youth, who has been trained to realize the importance of his position, and who, it is generally admitted, will in every respect be a worthy successor to his father. He is a soldier by inclination, by tradition, and by education, but as yet has shown no evidence of military ambi-



PRINCESS VICTORIA.

KING ALFONSO.

(Their engagement is reported in some English and Spanish journals.)



Photograph by Brown Brothers, New York.

THE START OF THE TRANSATLANTIC YACHT RACE, FOR THE KAISER'S CUP, FROM SANDY HOOK.

(The *Ailsa* in the lead, followed by the *Hildegarde* and the *Atlantic*.)

gallant vessels started from Sandy Hook at noon of May 17, and are finishing as best they may about the time this issue reaches our readers. The first vessel to reach England wins. The boats are owned by Americans, Scotchmen, Englishmen, and Germans, and are manned chiefly by the Scandinavians, who make up the great majority of most yachting crews. An exception is the *Fleur-de-Lys*, which is sailed exclusively by a crew of "Down East" Yankee salts. Some of the vessels have engines and propellers as well as sails, but the engines are, of course, not to be used on the race. The best previous performance of a sailing yacht on the eastward Atlantic voyage was the *Endymion's* cruise, four years ago, in something less than fourteen days, but it is expected that this record will cease to be a record when the Kaiser's cup is won. The *Endymion*, a beautiful two-masted schooner, is one of the contestants in the present race, with her owner, Mr. George Lauder, Jr., aboard. The ocean-crossing yacht race is, of course, inferior as a spectacle and general junket to the short races along shore we are accustomed to. But the new style of yacht race impresses the American citizen as more like the "real thing." Should such long deep-sea cruising races become the fashion, it will lead to the building of much larger and stancher yachts, perhaps of a thousand tons or

more, and it should give the designers more of seaworthy qualities and utilitarian "lines" to puzzle over than they considered in the half-day sprints near land in the *America's* cup races.

*Internation-
alism in
Sports.*

The International Olympic Committee has called a congress to convene at Brussels in this month of June, 1905, to consider various questions related to the management of the Olympic games, which have now become an established feature in international sport. This congress was to have been held in 1903, but was postponed two years in order that it might take advantage of the experience gained in the Olympic games to take place at St. Louis in 1904. It is understood that the international committee will have several changes to propose in the rules and regulations which govern these Olympic sports. Two of these congresses have already been held,—one at Paris, in 1894, and the second at Havre, in 1897. The topics to be considered at the coming Brussels congress will include physical culture at the primary school, at the secondary school, in the university life, in the country, in the cities, in hospitals and reformatories, in the army, in colonial life, and special physical training for women. Invitations have been sent to foreign governments by the international committee through

the Belgian legations. Each university is privileged to send five delegates to the congress, and each secondary or special school two delegates. Athletic associations and automobile and yacht clubs having a national character are also entitled to send five delegates each. On this occasion three of the famous Olympic diplomas will be awarded,—the first to President Roosevelt, the

ment was made of a new gift from Mr. Carnegie to the cause of American education which revealed the donor's wisdom, as well as his generosity, in a wholly new light. This is nothing less than the creation of a trust fund the income of which is to be used to pension those college professors in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland who, through old age or other disability, have become incapable of rendering efficient service. The amount set aside for this purpose is \$10,000,000, invested in 5 per cent. first-mortgage bonds of the United States Steel Corporation, the actual market value of these securities at the present time being \$11,500,000. The board of trustees chosen by Mr. Carnegie is made up chiefly of college professors. These trustees are to hold office for five years and to be eligible for reelection, one-fifth retiring each year. Each institution participating in the fund will be permitted to cast one vote for trustees. Technical schools are included with universities and colleges among the institutions to be benefited, and no distinction of sex, creed, or color is to be regarded. State institutions are excluded, and so, too, are sectarian colleges which require a majority of their trustees, officers, faculty, or students to belong to any specified sect, or which impose any theological test. Excluding the two classes of institutions named, it has been found that 93 colleges and technical schools will benefit by the fund. There are 3,900 professors in the faculties of these schools, whose salaries aggregate \$7,720,000. The aim will be to make each professor's annuity the equivalent of half-pay.



BARON PIERRE DE COUBERTIN.

second to Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, the Norwegian arctic explorer, and the third to Mr. Santos Dumont, the Brazilian aeronaut. The next series of Olympic games will be held at Rome, in 1908. An important addition to the programme at that time will be a series of artistic contests, at which prizes will be given for the best work in painting, sculpture, architecture, literature, and music, the only condition being that the work shall treat of some athletic subject or get inspiration from some kind of sport. This expansion of the Olympic programme is a suggestion of Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the indefatigable organizer and promoter of the whole Olympic movement.

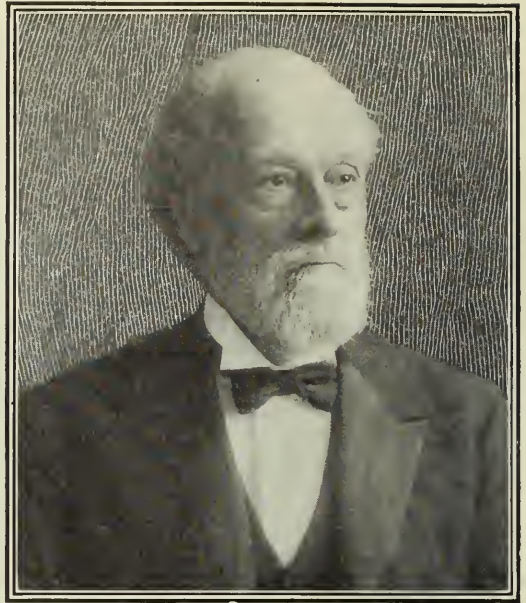
This pension scheme has been hailed by college officers throughout the country not only as a most wise and useful contribution to the well-being of a class of men who fully merit the kindest treatment in their declining years, but as a promising solvent of one of the most troublesome problems in university and college administration. In most of our colleges, large and small, there have been repeated instances of professors kept on duty long after their period of real usefulness was past, simply because there was no means provided by which they could have a living after they ceased to receive their professional salaries. Not only did the old system tend to impair in this way the efficiency of our university and college instruction, but it tended at the same time to deter young men of real ability from seeking academic positions, since it was known that professors' salaries in this country are now so meager that it is practically impossible for a man of family to lay up anything for

Mr Carnegie's Pension Fund. Last month we briefly noted in these pages some of Mr. Andrew Carnegie's recent benefactions to American colleges, but before the May number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS had reached our readers announce-

*Its
Real
Significance.*

a rainy day, and all men hesitate to face an old age of certain penury. Thus, the consequences of Mr. Carnegie's generous gift will be far-reaching, and liberal and technical education in this country may be more profoundly affected by it than by any single educational endowment that has ever been made.

A Great School of Art. The plans for coöperation between Columbia University and the National Academy of Design, which have been under consideration for several years, seem likely to result in the creation of a great school of fine arts in New York City. The university agrees to establish a faculty and to maintain instruction in architecture, music, painting, and sculpture. It will also provide a site for a building, and will assist the academy in raising the \$500,000 required for the erection of such a structure. These plans, which were originally suggested by President Butler, of Columbia, also contemplate a close association with the Metropolitan Museum of Art. This important project, which is now well advanced toward realization, will mean a great deal to the future of American art. Taken in connection with the development of the American Academy in Rome,



THE LATE SENATOR O. H. PLATT, OF CONNECTICUT.

described by Mr. F. D. Millet in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, it indicates a quickening of American interest in the artistic life.



THE LATE HIRAM CRONK, THE CENTENARIAN.

Obituary Notes. Senator Orville H. Platt, of Connecticut, whose death occurred only a few weeks after that of his colleague, Senator Hawley, represented a singularly useful type of public man. He had been for twenty-six years a member of the Senate, holding during all of that period important committee positions, and exercising an influence in the shaping of legislation such as few of his fellow-Senators pretended to wield. Yet to the country at large, outside of Washington, his name, prior to the discussion and adoption of the famous "Platt Amendment," defining our relations with Cuba, was comparatively unfamiliar. Hiram Cronk, who died last month in New York State and was accorded the honor of a public funeral by the city of New York, had actually lived in three centuries, having attained the age of one hundred and five years. As a lad of fourteen he had taken part in our second war with Great Britain, and he is believed to have been the last survivor of that conflict. Almost the whole history of our national government is embraced within the span of this single human life. Among the eminent Americans whose deaths have been recently chronicled are Gen. Fitzhugh Lee and Joseph Jefferson, the veteran actor

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 21 to May 20, 1905.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 21.—The gas investigating committee of the New York Legislature completes the taking of testimony at New York City....Secretary Hitchcock dismisses eight employes in the Indian warehouse in New York City on charges of irregularity in office.

April 25.—Attorney-General Moody sustains the Secretary of the Interior in his rebate agreements with certain railroads....Secretary Taft outlines the policy under which the Panama Railroad will be operated.

May 1.—The Judiciary Committee of the New York State Assembly unanimously recommends the removal from office of Justice Warren B. Hooker.

May 2.—In the Baltimore city election the Democrats gain control of both branches of the city legislature....Governor La Follette, of Wisconsin, signs the "anti-graft" bill....The Interstate Commerce Commission files a statement of complaints against common carriers....Mayor Weaver, of Philadelphia, declares his opposition to the proposed lease of the city gas works for seventy-five years for the sum of \$25,000,000 (see page 705).

May 5.—President Roosevelt hurries the investigation of the tobacco trust by the federal grand jury in the New York district.

May 9.—Representative Frank B. Brandegee (Rep.) is elected by the Connecticut Legislature to succeed United States Senator O. H. Platt, deceased.

May 10.—President Roosevelt tells representatives of the Chicago strikers that he heartily approves of Mayor Dunne's efforts to preserve law and order.

May 11.—Governor Cummins, of Iowa, testifies in favor of railroad-rate legislation before the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce.

May 12.—President Roosevelt presides at a cabinet meeting in Washington.

May 15.—The executive committee of the Panama Canal Commission decides to buy materials for canal construction in the cheapest market, not restricting purchases to goods made in the United States....The Citizens' Union of New York City names a committee on nominations for city offices to confer with other political organizations.

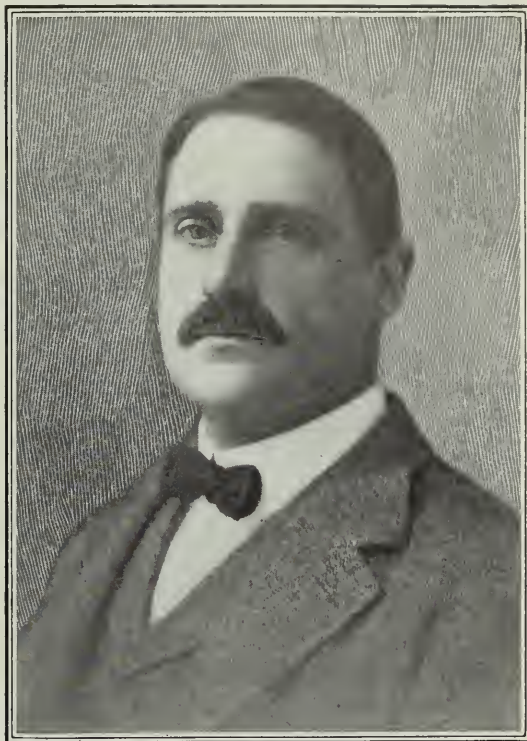
May 18.—The passage of the seventy-five-year gas lease by the Philadelphia councils is followed by rioting in the council chamber.

May 19.—It is announced that Secretary Morton will leave the cabinet on July 1.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

April 21.—M. Delcassé, the French minister of foreign affairs, resigns office....The Italian Government promises reforms in railroad management, and the strikers are ordered to resume work.

April 22.—In consequence of an appeal from President Loubet and an assurance by M. Rouvier, M. Delcassé withdraws his resignation....The Italian Government grants concessions to the railroad strikers.



SENATOR-ELECT FRANK B. BRANDEGEE, OF CONNECTICUT.
(Successor to the late Senator O. H. Platt.)

April 25.—An insurrection in Arabia menaces the authority of the Sultan as head of the Mohammedans....The draft of a new constitution for the Transvaal is published in London....The Czar of Russia again promises the convening of a popular assembly.

April 27.—General Kolzoff is appointed governor-general of Moscow.

April 28.—Mr. Gerald Balfour, as president of the British Local Government Board, addresses an order to the Guardians of the Poor relating to underfed children in the schools.

April 29.—The Czar of Russia makes a decree granting religious freedom.

May 1.—One hundred persons are shot by the troops in Warsaw, and a number are killed or wounded at Lodz.

May 2.—The British House of Commons debates a bill for the restriction of immigration.

May 3.—Lord Dunraven issues a pamphlet declaring that Ireland cannot be Anglicized and urging measures of self-government....Representatives of the provincial zemstvos gather in Moscow for the general zemstvo congress called for May 5, despite police prohibition.

May 4.—In Warsaw, the Socialists enforce the obser-



MAP USED AT THE INTERNATIONAL RAILWAY CONGRESS, ON MAY 3, TO SHOW COMPLETENESS OF TELEGRAPHIC COMMUNICATION AROUND THE WORLD.

During the sessions of the International Railway Congress, at Washington, an interesting demonstration was made of the completeness of telegraphic communication all over the globe. Having secured "open wires" to almost all the principal telegraph points on the globe, a message—consisting of a single letter which practically simply established a connection—was sent from Washington to all these points. The completion of this connection (or the reception of the message) was indicated by the flashing of electric-light bulbs placed at the different points on a large map of the world hung up before the delegates. The return impulse, or the notification from the distant point to Washington that the connection had been made, was indicated by these lights flashing red. The connection with the most distant points of the globe from Washington was made in a fraction over one second, at the longest. The test was interesting and useful, further, from the fact that the connection was made as largely as possible over "railroad wires," thus demonstrating the thoroughness of the modern railroad equipment in the matter of communication facilities.

vance of their programme for a day of mourning for the victims of the May Day riots.

May 5.—Moscow's zemstvo congress holds a session . . . Premier Balfour, of England, opposes Lord Dunraven's Irish scheme as tending to disrupt the United Kingdom.

May 6.—Polish Socialists order strikers to resume work pending a call to overthrow the government. . . . A conspiracy against the Brazilian Government is disclosed by an arrest in Madrid, Spain.

May 7.—Ex-Premier Combes, of France, issues a statement explaining his policy for the separation of Church and State in France.

May 16.—The governor-general of the province of Ufa, Russia, is shot and fatally wounded; the assassin makes his escape.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

April 21.—M. Rouvier states, in the French Chamber of Deputies, that repeated orders have been given to French agents in Indo-China to observe strict neutrality toward Russia and Japan. . . . The Cretan Assembly proclaims the union of Crete with Greece; the Deputies swear allegiance to the Hellenic constitution.

April 22.—Greece and the great powers of Europe refuse to recognize the Cretan proclamation.

April 26.—It is announced that negotiations for an immigration treaty between the United States and China have been abandoned. . . . Germany expresses a willingness to open negotiations with the United States for a new commercial treaty on a reciprocity basis.

April 28.—It is announced at Washington that Minister Bowen will be recalled from Venezuela to explain certain charges preferred by him against Assistant Secretary of State Loomis, and that he will be succeeded at Caracas by William W. Russell, now United States minister to Colombia.

April 29.—The German envoy at Tangier makes an unconciliatory statement on Germany's attitude toward Morocco.

April 30.—An interview of the Italian and Austro-Hungarian premiers at Vienna is regarded as strengthening the triple alliance.

May 1.—At Japan's request, the United States represents to China the danger of a breach of neutrality by the presence of Russian warships in Chinese harbors.

May 2.—Ambassador McCormick is cordially received by President Loubet, of France. . . . The French admiral de Jonquières sails from Saigon, presumably to maintain French neutrality on the Indo-Chinese coast.

May 6.—China opposes the Japanese plan to open Manchuria after peace.

May 10.—It is announced that Count Cassini, the Russian ambassador to the United States, will be transferred to Spain, and that Baron Rosen will succeed him at Washington.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

April 21.—The Russian cruiser *Diana*, which took refuge at Saigon some time ago, is ordered to disarm.

April 22.—In consequence of direct orders from the Czar, and pressing representations of the French authorities of Indo-China, Admiral Rozhstvenski leaves



STATUE OF PRESIDENT M'KINLEY BY H. A. MACNEIL.

(Recently completed for the Ohio State Capitol, at Columbus.)

Kamranh Bay with the Baltic fleet and proceeds northward. . . . The French authorities at Saigon prevent the Russian vessels there from shipping more coal than is necessary for their voyage.

April 23.—The Russians advance south to Chang-tu and Kai-yuan, but are defeated by the Japanese, and retreat north again.

April 24.—The Russian squadron is seen fifteen miles from the Annam coast, going north.

April 27.—The Russian fleet returns to Kamranh Bay, German colliers supplying coal inside the bay.

April 28.—The Russian fleet again leaves Kamranh Bay.

May 4.—Nebogatov's Russians quadron passes through the Straits of Malacca and is headed north to the China Sea.

May 6.—Four Russian destroyers make a raid from Vladivostok and burn a Japanese sailing vessel off Hokkaido, Japan.

May 8.—It is announced from St. Petersburg that the squadrons of Rozhstvenski and Nebogatov have united off Saigon.

May 15.—Skirmishing continues on the Russian left in Manchuria.

May 18.—Manchurian roads are reported impassable, thereby delaying further hostile action for the present.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 22.—John W. Gates' deal in May wheat on the Chicago Board of Trade collapses, the price closing at one dollar amid much excitement.

April 24.—Frank G. Bigelow, president of the First National Bank of Wisconsin, confesses to the embezzlement of \$1,450,000.... Equitable policy-holders in five States apply to the courts for the appointment of a receiver.... A three weeks' Shakespearean commemoration begins at Stratford-on-Avon.

April 25.—The quarterly report of the United States Steel Corporation shows great expansion in the steel trade.

April 26.—The eighth annual conference for education in the South opens at Columbia, S. C.... More than one thousand English emigrants gathered by the Salvation Army leave Liverpool to colonize in Canada.

April 27.—Andrew Carnegie gives \$10,000,000 for a college professors' pension fund in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland.

April 29.—A tornado causes 100 deaths at Laredo, Texas.... Switzerland and part of France are visited by earthquakes.

May 2.—A strike of Chicago teamsters in sympathy with one of the unions of garment workers reaches serious proportions; there is continual rioting in the streets.

May 3.—The International Railway Congress opens in Washington, D. C.

May 7.—Twelve thousand immigrants, chiefly Italians, arrive at the port of New York on ten liners.... The centenary of the death of Schiller is observed in Germany and Austria.

May 10.—Plans for the erection of a school of fine arts, through the coöperation of the National Academy of Design, at Columbia University are adopted at a meeting of the academy.

May 11.—Twenty persons are killed and more than 100 injured by the wreck of an express train on the Pennsylvania Railroad near Harrisburg, Pa.... A tornado causes nearly 100 deaths at Snyder, Oklahoma.

May 17.—At the general convention of Baptists, held at St. Louis, the constitution of a permanent convention of Northern and Southern Baptists is adopted.

May 18.—The Presbyterian General Assembly elects Dr. James D. Moffatt moderator.

OBITUARY.

April 21.—United States Senator Orville H. Platt, of Connecticut, 77.... Bishop Alfred A. Watson, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, East Carolina Diocese, 86.... Hedwig Niemann Raabe, a noted German actress, 60.

April 23.—Joseph Jefferson, the American actor, 76 (see page 674).... President Henry H. Goodell, of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, 66.... Brig.-Gen. Charles Smart, U.S.A. (retired), soldier, physician, and author, 63.

April 24.—Gédéon Ouimet, ex-premier of Quebec, 82.

April 25.—Col. Willard Glazier, author, soldier, and explorer, 64.

April 27.—Ex-Gov. Alvin Hawkins, of Tennessee, 83.

April 28.—Brig.-Gen. Fitzhugh Lee, U.S.A. (retired), 69 (see page 673).

April 29.—Lord Grimthorpe, a leading authority on ecclesiastical law and architecture, 89.

April 30.—Ex-Congressman J. Howard Pugh, of New Jersey, 78.

May 1.—Commodore Somerville Nicholson, U.S.N. (retired), 83.... Alden B. Stockwell, once a leading American financier, 72.

May 3.—James Sutherland, minister of public works in the Dominion of Canada, 56.... Mrs. Betsy Bishop Blackman, of Connecticut, believed to be the last survivor of the Sandemanians, 95.

May 4.—Ex-Congressman Milton I. Southard, of Ohio.

May 7.—Rev. Charles H. Taintor, D.D., Western secretary of the Congregational Church Building Society, 56.

May 8.—Dr. Heber M. Hoople, author of standard works on the eye and ear, 49.... Flavius J. Fisher, a well-known American portrait painter, 73.

May 10.—Sir Bernhard Samuelson, a leading English engineer and author, 84.... Frederick J. DePeyster, the New York lawyer, 66.

May 12.—Emerson E. Bennett, a well-known writer and composer, 83.... Maj. E. D. T. Myers, president of the Richmond, Fredericksburg & Potomac Railroad, 75.

May 13.—Hiram Cronk, the only pensioner of the War of 1812, 105.

May 14.—Jessie Bartlett Davis, the opera singer, 46.

May 15.—Ex-Gov. Thomas J. Churchill, of Arkansas, 81.... Walter Neef, European manager of the Associated Press, 48.... Daniel Henry Chase, oldest graduate of the Wesleyan University, 90.... Thomas Brigham Bishop, a well-known composer of popular songs, 70.

May 17.—Edward Warren Toole, a leading Montana lawyer, 66.... Dr. Frederick W. Speirs, editor of the *Booklovers Magazine*, Philadelphia, 37.

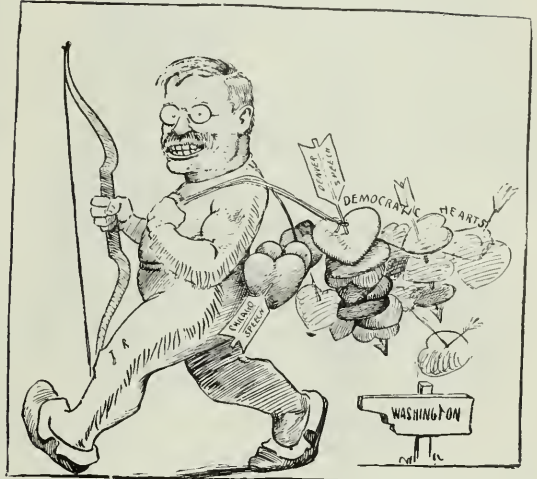
May 18.—Mrs. Jacob A. Riis, 53.



SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



SPEED THE PARTING GUEST.
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



THE MIGHTY NIMROD IN A NEW RÔLE.
From the *World-Herald* (Omaha).



"THE WINNING OF THE WEST."
(Apropos of the reception tendered to President Roosevelt
by the leading Democratic club of Chicago.)
From the *World* (New York).



THE BEARS: "We're glad he's gone."
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

THE CARTOONISTS WELCOME THE PRESIDENT RETURNING FROM HIS WESTERN HUNT.



SQUASHED!

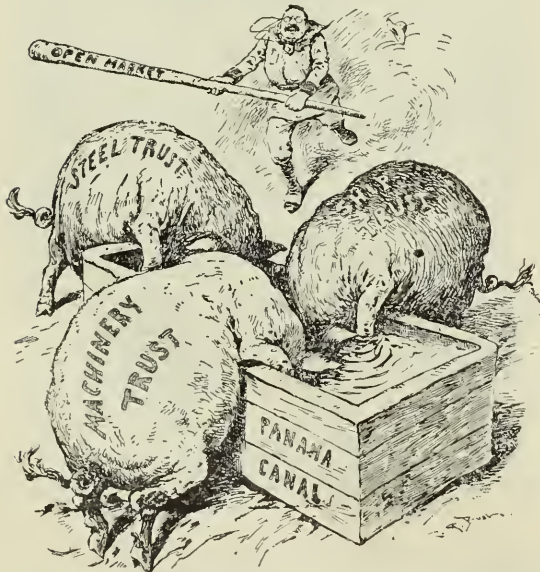
From the *World-Herald* (Omaha).

The administration's attitude on the subjects of Panama freight rates and the purchase of Panama supplies, respectively, is portrayed in the two cartoons in this column.



HE NEEDS MORE CLOTHES, CORPORATION ATTORNEYS TO THE CONTRARY NOTWITHSTANDING.

From the *World-Herald* (Omaha).



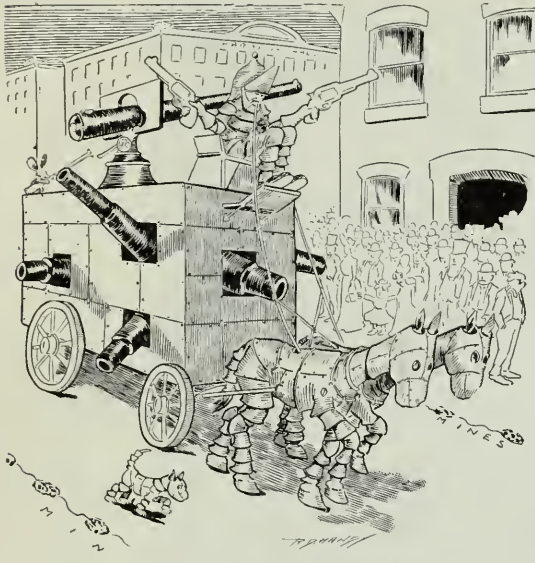
The President is determined that "the hogs shall take their feet out of the trough."—News item, *New York Tribune*.

From the *World* (New York).

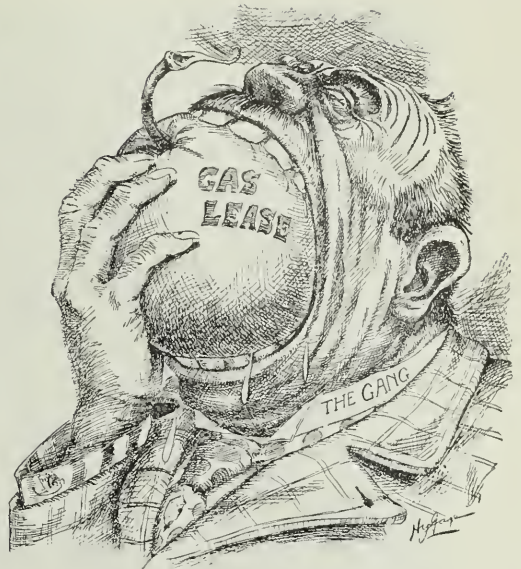


THE FIGHT OF HIS LIFE.

From the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle* (New York).



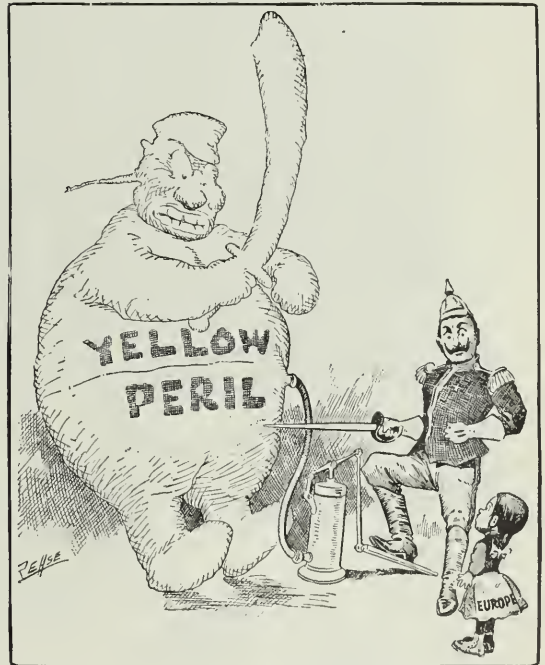
TEAMING IN CHICAGO.—From *News Tribune* (Duluth).



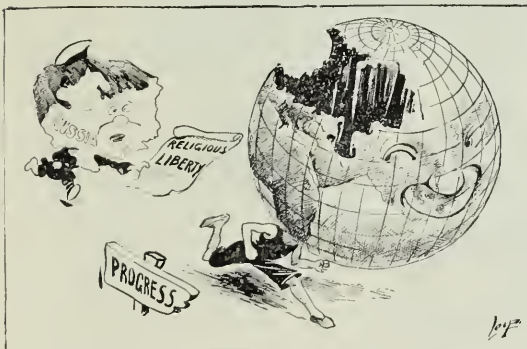
BITING OFF MORE THAN HE CAN CHEW.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



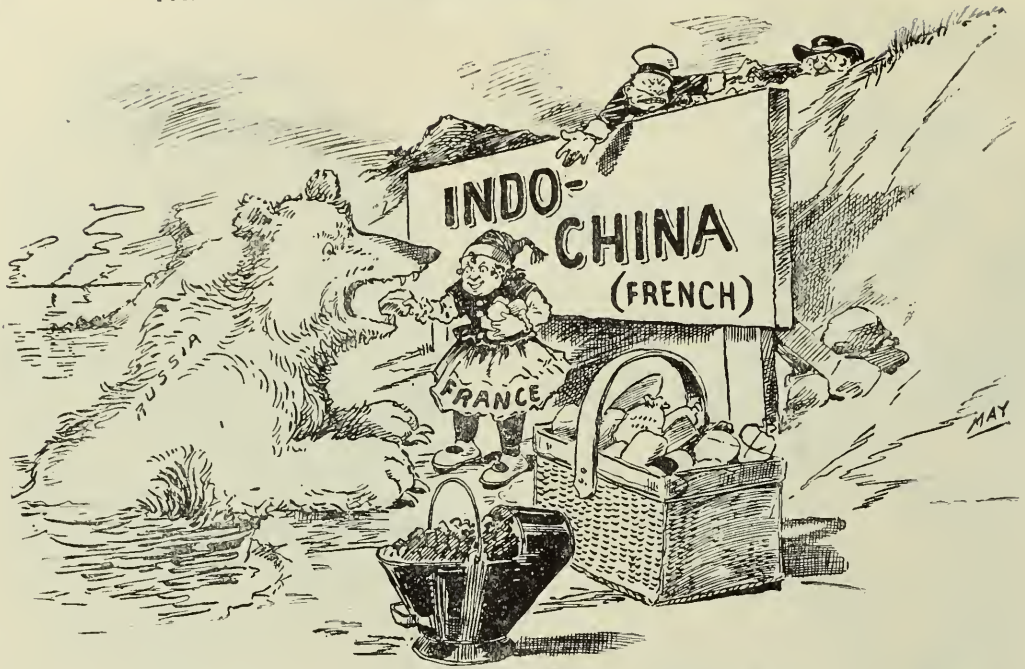
CROWDING.—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)



EMPEROR WILLIAM (to Europe): "Russia having failed, it may devolve upon Germany to resist his aggressions."
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



RUSSIA TRYING TO CATCH UP TO THE REST OF THE WORLD.
From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



JAPAN: "Is that neutrality, or a boarding-house?"—From the *Journal* (Detroit).



THE JAPANESE BARBER: "Now, sir, I'll trim you up."—From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



GENERAL FITZHUGH LEE.

A nephew of Robert E. Lee, the Confederacy's great military chieftain and hero, General "Fitz," as he was called in Virginia, began and ended his soldiering under the Stars and Stripes. A West Point graduate, he had his share of Indian fighting in the West before the Civil War broke out. In 1861, young Lee "went with his State," and Virginia had no more loyal defender of her liberties. He quickly rose from captain to brigadier-general in the Virginia cavalry, displaying skill as well as courage. In the summer of 1863 he became a major-general, and just before Appomattox he was placed in command of the entire cavalry corps of the Army of Northern Virginia. Fitzhugh Lee, like his Uncle Robert, accepted the results of the war and did what he could to restore good feeling between North and South. He was elected Governor of Virginia in 1885. In 1896, President Cleveland appointed him consul-general at Havana. President McKinley retained him in that position until the outbreak of the Spanish-American War necessitated his recall. During the war he was made a major-general of volunteers, and after peace was declared he became military governor of Havana, and later served as commander of the Department of Missouri. At the time of his sudden death, on April 28, 1905, he was a retired brigadier-general of the United States army.

THE CAREER OF JOSEPH JEFFERSON.

BY JOSEPH B. GILDER.

WHEN Joseph Jefferson died at West Palm Beach, Fla., on April 23 (the anniversary of Shakespeare's death), many were surprised to learn that he was only seventy-six years old. For years his identity had been more or less confused in the popular mind with that of an old man, and one who looked a great deal older than his years warranted. Hundreds of thousands of playgoers thought of him only as a decrepit old fellow with snow-white hair and a beard that *King Lear* might have envied. Even when he was less than seventy, one sometimes heard it argued that he must be eighty at least; and nothing but a reference book would silence the contention.

As he was fond of pointing out in those little speeches before the curtain that became a feature of his later performances, the actor's fame, which is apt to be evanescent, was less so in his case than in that of most of his fellow-players. For children had come in troops to see his impersonation of *Rip Van Winkle* while yet it was a novelty; their grandchildren were coming now (his *matinée* audiences consisted chiefly of children); and as his first appearance in the part had been made over forty years before, and as many of those who saw it last would presumably live to be as old as himself, he might fairly hope to be before the public, as a living presence or a cherished memory, for considerably more than a century. Nearly a hundred and fifty years would intervene between his first appearance on the stage and the death of the last of his auditors who should attain to his own measure of longevity.

The year in which Jefferson was born (1829) was not especially noteworthy, but the month (February) was already illustrious as the natal month of Washington, Lincoln, Darwin, Tennyson, Mendelssohn, Dickens, Ruskin, Lowell, Sir Henry Irving, and a host of lesser lights. "I can almost say I was born in the theater," is the first word of his autobiography; for while his birth actually occurred in a house in Philadelphia, his earliest recollections were connected with the theater in Washington of which his father was the manager. At first he played behind the scenes in the daytime, but at the age of three he appeared as a "living statue;" and only a year later, being caught by T. D. Rice in an imitation of his own dancing "Jim Crow," he

was literally lagged by that pioneer "knight of the burnt cork" and dumped down before the footlights to "jump Jim Crow" in a costume exactly reproducing that of his captor.

The family sojourned for a while in Baltimore and Philadelphia, not long after this, and then went to New York to live; where, according to "Ireland's Records," the third Joseph Jefferson appeared ere long in the part of a Greek pirate,—a very formidable pirate, aged eight! But the course of empire tends westward, and when the pirate was a year older his family migrated in the same direction. This was in the early days of steam navigation, when the tedious trip from New York to Chicago *via* the raging Erie Canal and the Great Lakes had been cut down to a few weeks only. Of this idyllic hegira Jefferson retained the liveliest and most rose-colored recollection. When he first saw it, Chicago had already entered upon the race for supremacy with New York, having emerged from its chrysalis state as a military outpost and Indian trading village into a bustling town of two thousand inhabitants. From here to Springfield was not a far cry; but when the elder Jefferson and his partner went thither and built a new theater local Puritans secured the passage of legislation, such as the Stratford town council passed in Shakespeare's day, imposing a heavy fine on theatrical entertainments. A rising young lawyer intervened in their behalf, however, and on learning that his name was Abraham Lincoln one is not surprised at the successful issue of his efforts.

The family drifted southward before long, and when Joseph was only thirteen his father died, and the family fortunes were soon at so low an ebb that on one occasion he and his mother and his half-brother, the popular young comedian, Charles Burke, were abandoned several miles from Port Gibson, Miss., by a teamster who refused to trust them for ten dollars till they should reach that town,—a sad descent from the days when Mrs. Jefferson had been "one of the most attractive stars in America, the leading prima donna of the country!" Not long afterward, the war with Mexico broke out, and the Jeffersons joined a troupe of actors that followed the American army into the enemy's country. When the company disbanded in despair at Matamoras,



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THE LATE JOSEPH JEFFERSON.

(In the latter years of his life, even before he had retired from the stage, Mr. Jefferson was an enthusiastic painter.)

one of his fellow-players joined with Jefferson and his mother and sister in opening a refreshment counter in a bar-room and gambling den. This proved an uncongenial atmosphere for a legitimate comedian, and when a stray bullet put the coffee-pot out of action, and a sporting friend of Jefferson's from Philadelphia was knifed before his eyes, he sold out his interest in the refreshment business and started by boat for New Orleans. There the sight of John E. Owens in "A Kiss in the Dark" gave him a pang of jealousy, and fired him with his first great ambition to be a star.

From New Orleans the ambitious youth made his way to Philadelphia, the stage ride across the Alleghanies from Wheeling to Cumberland occupying twenty-four hours, and involving hardships difficult to apprehend in these days of swift and luxurious traveling. In the City of Brotherly Love, Jefferson played nothing, perhaps, less suited to his peculiar abilities than one of the chorus in an English version of the "Antigone." At twenty-two, being already a married man and a father, he was fain to try his luck at theatrical management, on his own account, in the South; then, after another sojourn in Philadelphia, and further experiences as a manager in Baltimore and Richmond, followed by a prolonged holiday trip to England and France (the country from which his mother's parents had come), he settled in New York again, where Laura Keane made him the leading comedian of her new theater, and where his reappearance was made as *Dr. Pangloss* in "The Heir at Law." In this rôle, which he had first essayed under the stage management of John Gilbert, at the Chestnut Street Theater, Philadelphia, his success was immediate; and it was one of those in which he was oftenest seen thereafter. At the same theater, he was observed, a year later, by Washington Irving, then nearing the end of his long life; and the author of the "Sketch-Book" was struck by the player's resemblance to his father "in look, gesture, size, and make." His accidental discovery of this mention of his name in the "Life and Letters" not long afterward marked a turning-point in his career.

If in this brief notice of his work undue emphasis seems to have been laid upon Jefferson's early life, it should be considered that the record of this period,—usually neglected by his biographers,—throws most interesting side lights on dramatic conditions in America in the earlier years of the last century. Comparatively recent as that period is,—for it must be remembered that Mr. Jefferson was not a very old man when he passed away,—the circumstances in which the

playing fraternity pursued their vocation were as different from present conditions as if a wide gulf of time intervened between the forties and the present year of grace. Barn-storming meant something very different then from what it means to-day: its signification was more nearly literal, and Jefferson actually gave "The Lady of Lyons" and "The Spectre Bridegroom" in a barn in Mississippi. Traveling bands of players wandered about the country, not only in railway trains, but in boats and stages. Smoky lamps oftener than gas jets illumined their performances. It was still the age of stock companies, and of salaries which, even if regularly paid, would scarcely attract a twentieth-century office boy. In no respect has the change been more marked than in the improved social position of the actor of to-day.

The picture painted by Jefferson of the really primitive conditions that obtained when his career began, and for many years thereafter, is none too highly colored. At almost every point it finds corroboration in the autobiographies of two other veterans of the stage, one still happily with us (Mr. J. H. Stoddart, his senior by sixteen months), the other quite recently passed away (Mrs. G. H. Gilbert, who was born a few years earlier). In reading their recollections of stage life in England, one seems to be hearing of things that happened in the eighteenth rather than the nineteenth century; and the feeling is pretty much the same in following their accounts of the plays, the players, and the playhouses with which they became acquainted on arriving in this country—Mrs. Gilbert in 1849 and Mr. Stoddart five years later. Not only have physical conditions been revolutionized since Mr. Jefferson could be thrilled by the mere receipt of a telegram, but a radical change has been effected even in the organization of dramatic companies. Then, one man in his time played an infinity of parts, ranging sometimes in a single evening, as in the case of Mr. Stoddart, from *Sir Harcourt Courtly*, in "London Assurance," to the comic baker in a pantomime. (This was in England, but the same thing might readily have happened here.)

The star system has superseded the stock as completely, and apparently as irrevocably, as the electric trolley has displaced the horse-car. Jefferson himself was one of the first to organize a "combination" company, the arguments for which he marshals with force and conviction, claiming that his own responsibility for the introduction of the star system must be shared by no less a man than Shakespeare,—not Shakespeare the actor and manager so much as Shakespeare the dramatist, the interest in whose

plays almost always centers in one or two characters.

A still more recent evolution, or devolution, by which the control of the best theaters throughout the country has passed from the individuals, many of them actor-managers, who formerly exercised it, into the hands of a speculative syndicate, is one with which he had little or no sympathy, though he did not feel called upon to oppose it with effective persistency. He was never a fighter, and saw no reason, apparently, for risking his personal fortunes in a struggle against what seemed to be an irresistible, if not a desirable, commercial tendency.

But to return to the story of Jefferson's career. Even in his youth he had seen the advisability of identifying himself with a purely American character, in a play by an American author; and when, some time after his successful impersonation of *Asa Trenchard* in "Our American Cousin,"—a play in which, however, his own performance was gradually eclipsed by that of Sothorn as *Lord Dundreary*,—he came upon Irving's allusion to himself, it set him thinking along a line that led directly to the "Sketch-Book," and the dramatic possibilities of the story of Rip Van Winkle's long sleep. These had been tested, though not thoroughly, by his father and his brother, among others, and Jefferson immediately procured the two or three plays that had been based on Irving's version of the old Harz Mountains legend and constructed a new one for himself. The production of this piece at Washington, where it was favorably received, while convincing him of its merits, at the same time disclosed its defects. After a professional sojourn of several years in Australia and New Zealand while the Civil War raged at home, and a glimpse of South America and Panama, he took the play to England, got Dion Boucicault to revise it, and produced it in London with a success that exceeded his fondest expectations. This was just forty years ago; and thenceforth Joe Jefferson and Rip Van Winkle were as inseparably connected in men's thoughts as Chang and Eng, the Siamese twins.

Jefferson's main contribution to the effectiveness of the play, apart from his wonderfully sympathetic presentation of the leading character, was the emphasizing of the ghostly nature of Hendrik Hudson's gnome-like crew, with whom he drinks in the mountains before falling asleep. In earlier stage versions of the legend, they had both sung and spoken; in his, they were voiceless, and no little ingenuity was required to devise speeches which they could an-

swer with a nod. The result, it may be noted, is an act unique upon the stage, in that only one of the characters speaks, while the rest converse in dumb show. By this means a distinct line is drawn between the domestic scenes in the play and those in which the poetic and romantic element is dominant. The creation of a character that will live as long as any known in American literature was no less Jefferson's work than Irving's,—though he himself admitted Boucicault's liberal contribution to the value of the medium. Had he achieved nothing else, he would have won such immortality as players can; but he demonstrated his ability and versatility by performances of *Bob Acres*, *Caleb Plummer*, and *Dr. Pangloss*,—to name but these three among his various impersonations,—that were second only in brilliancy and popularity to that in which his greatest fame was won. Doubtless he was well advised in repeating, year in and year out, his presentation of a part that at least two generations have known and loved; for it was a flawless work of art, and has given more pleasure to a greater number of people than any other dramatic entertainment for which a single person has been mainly responsible.

On such a point as this it is interesting to have the testimony of a brother actor, and there is a passage in Mr. Stoddart's "Recollections of a Player" that should be read by all who think Mr. Jefferson owed it to his profession to strike out new paths as a player, so long as he remained upon the boards.

Mr. Jefferson's career, I think, stands apart from all others. . . . In my early association with him, we were both stock actors with Miss Laura Keane, and I had every opportunity of seeing him in a great variety of characters, and in all thought him preëminent. His effects were Jeffersonian, and you were left very little in doubt of the actor's identity; but his renditions were all so free from claptrap and so thoroughly artistic that to me, whether in serious matter, legitimate comedy, or farce, he was always delightful. I have frequently heard members of the profession regret that Mr. Jefferson confined himself to two or three parts,—in fact, almost to one,—and declare that he should have given the public new material. I do not think so.

"Joe" Jefferson, as he was endearingly called, was a many-sided man. Eminent chiefly as an actor, he was also an accomplished painter and an admirable writer, his autobiography being one of the best things of its kind in the language. A lover of nature and of sport, he was still more a lover of his kind, and his genius and gentleness combined to make him the best-loved American of his day.

MODJESKA, DRAMATIC ARTIST AND PATRIOT.

TO achieve supreme success in one of the most difficult of all arts, in a foreign country whose language had to be acquired after her thirtieth year, is a triumph reserved for but few. One of these few is Madame Helena Modjeska, the Polish actress whose farewell "benefit," given in New York last month, called forth such expressions of praise and esteem from artists and art-lovers the world over.

In reply to the tribute that she was the greatest living actress, Bernhardt is reported to have recently declared that she must share primacy in the dramatic art to-day with Madame Duse and Madame Modjeska. The Polish artiste, who years ago won and has since kept the admiration and affection of her adopted countrymen, is possessed of a rare genius,—a genius that has not shirked work. Her art, characterized as it has ever been by tragic power, purity of aim, grace and delicacy, has placed her in the same class with Rachel and Ristori; but beyond her art is her fine, interesting personality, and the great capacity for work which has enabled her to win the highest triumph in a tongue not her own.

Madame Helena Modjeska, whose maiden name was Opid, was born in the city of Cracow, Austrian Poland, and married at an early age an actor named Modrzejewski, who soon afterward died, leaving her with a baby son. This boy (Ralph) came to the United States with his mother, and is at present a well-known civil engineer in Chicago. Later, Madame Modjeska (by common consent the difficult Polish form of the name has been abandoned for the simpler English form) married her present husband, Charles Chlapowski, a Polish journalist of considerable reputation for patriotism. He is known in this country as Count Bozenta, from his ancestral title.

Madame Modjeska's career has been a varied and active one. Beginning with a "benefit" organized by amateurs for some unfortunate miners in Poland, her progress was steady and sure. Her success at this amateur performance was so great that she decided to adopt the stage as her vocation. At her second amateur performance, a famous Polish actor and dramatic author, appreciating her ability, arranged for her dramatic career, which really began with a tour of her native province of Galicia. Her first great triumph was achieved at the Imperial Theater, in Warsaw, in 1868. The theater organization in

the Polish capital was large, and the artistic force, chiefly recruited from the dramatic schools of the city, were professionally jealous of outsiders. After considerable difficulty, Modjeska was engaged for a series of performances in leading parts. The rest of the organization was violently opposed to her appearance, and determined upon her failure. The newspapers of the city attacked her as a provincial amateur, but as her dramatic ambition was concentrated on the national Polish stage, she determined to risk all in an attempt to win Warsaw. The management chose her to play "Adrienne Lecouvreur," one of the most difficult in the range of any actress. It had been played in Warsaw by Rachel, and the public remembered the magnificent performance of the French actress. Modjeska describes with what fear and trembling she trod the stage that night, but, in spite of the opposition and criticism, she won the battle and rendered a part equal to that of the great Rachel.

Soon after this, her patriotic attitude and the vigorous journalistic writings of her husband gave offense to the Russian and German governments, and they both left Poland for the United States (in 1876). Modjeska's intention was to establish, near Los Angeles, Cal., a Utopian colony in which they and their Polish compatriots in the United States might enjoy the blessings of liberty. Henrik Sienkiewicz, the now famous author of "Quo Vadis" and Polish historical novels, was with Modjeska in this enterprise, and his book "Letters from America" is full of his impressions and experiences of this experiment. The Arcadian idyl was not a success, and, with almost all her resources exhausted, Modjeska conceived the bold idea of going to San Francisco to study English for the American stage. This was in 1877. By diligent study, she so soon mastered the English language that in six months she was able to perform intelligibly before American audiences. It was through the veteran manager, John McCullough, that Modjeska first came upon the California stage.

In 1880, desiring to secure an English indorsement of her American success, Modjeska went to London, and soon achieved triumph at the Court Theater, in the British capital. Two years later, she returned to the United States, where she has since lived. Once every two years she has been accustomed to journey to her native country to play in the theaters of Cracow and Lemberg, Austrian Poland; Posen, German Poland,

and Warsaw, Russian Poland. About twelve years ago, she delivered a speech in Chicago on a Polish political subject, and when, later on, she visited Warsaw the students gave her a great ovation, drawing her carriage through the streets with their own hands. In this the Russian Government saw a dangerous political demonstration, and in consequence forbade Madame Modjeska to appear in public anywhere in the empire, particularly in the Polish provinces. Later on, Madame Modjeska was also debarred from performing in Germany.

Modjeska's method of studying for a character is her own, and is extremely interesting from a psychological standpoint. She has a remarkable power of self-concentration. While studying a character she is to represent on the stage, she literally places herself in the situation created by the author. She lives in the same conditions, and is unable to think of anything else during her studies. While she is studying a Shakespearean rôle, even when interrupted by the demands of her everyday life, she acts and talks in the manner and language of the character she has been studying. Although her repertoire is a varied and extensive one, the rôles in which she is best known among Americans are those of *Mary Stuart*; *Catharine*, in "*Henry VIII.*," and *Lady Macbeth*.

At the "benefit" given her in New York last month, some of the most eminent dramatic and musical artists of the world appeared. An address was made by Richard Watson Gilder, in which he said: "In you the art of acting in our day has rejoiced in one of its loftiest exponents. Shakespeare has found in you an interpreter worthy of his most exquisite and thrilling imaginations."

Madame Modjeska lives on a fine country es-



MADAME HELENA MODJESKA AS SHE IS TO-DAY.

tate known as Arden, in Orange County, California, near Los Angeles, with Mexican rough riders and cowboys for her neighbors. There she enjoys complete freedom and quietude, and, in the midst of her great library, she is preparing her autobiography. Her husband is deeply interested in agricultural matters, and is a successful farmer according to the most exacting American standards. They are both great admirers of American ideals and the American people.

COUNT CASSINI, TYPICAL RUSSIAN DIPLOMAT.

ONE of Russia's diplomats, of foreign parentage but enthusiastic patriotism, who has performed great services for his country and earned the personal thanks of the Czar Nicholas, is Count Arthur Pavlovich Cassini. After half a century in the diplomatic service of his country, the last seven years of which have been spent as Russian representative at Washington, Count Cassini, Master of the Imperial Russian Court, Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, and personal representative of the Czar to the United States, has been transferred, and will this month leave for St. Petersburg to present a personal oral report to the Czar, after which he will proceed to his new post in Madrid, to be succeeded at Washington by Baron Rosen.

Count Cassini is in his sixty-eighth year, and fifty of these years have been spent in the Russian foreign service. In 1854, young Arthur Cassini took a minor post in the ministry of finance, and the next year was transferred to the ministry of foreign affairs. He passed through various grades in European capitals, always distinguishing himself by exemplary zeal in his country's cause, and in 1891 was appointed to the very responsible post of Russian minister at Peking. It was while in the Chinese capital that Count Cassini became famous as the father of Russia's Manchurian policy. It was he who drafted the famous "Manchurian Convention." Referring to his services in China, the Czar, in his jubilee congratulation letter, said: "With tact and true understanding of Russia's interests so characteristic of yourself, you have aided, coping against difficult political circumstances, in the solution of important problems." Count Cassini was appointed Russian minister in 1897, and was soon promoted to the position of ambassador to the United States. He arrived in this country just as the war with Spain was about closing. Coming from Peking, where American interests had begun to increase rapidly as a result of our naval victories in Pacific waters, Count Cassini arrived in Washington in time to catch the spirit of the new impetus to our national life.

"There have been clouds on the horizon during my stay in America," said he to the writer, in the course of an interview in the rooms of the elegant Russian embassy in Washington. "Particularly difficult were the moments when the question of presenting a petition in the Kishinev matter was being discussed, and when American sympathy with Japan in the present

war became strikingly evident in the press. But there are hard moments in the history of all great peoples. Clouds will pass, and, thanks to the always eminently correct attitude of the American Government and the good sense of the American people, these clouds have either passed or are passing. The relations between the United States and Russia are cordial, and the relations between the two peoples are becoming better all the time. For historic as well as other reasons, the United States and Russia ought to be friends." Many times, Count Cassini asserted, he has seen striking evidences of Russian friendship for Americans. "I do not know why it is," said he, "but for Frenchmen and Americans there is always a warm welcome with the Russian people. As for myself, these seven years spent in the American capital have been the pleasantest of my whole diplomatic career. I can say, honestly and apart from complimentary phrases, that they form the brightest spot in half a century of foreign life for my government. I am very fond of the American people, and, although I expect to rest and perhaps have a somewhat easier time in Madrid, I regard my departure from Washington with deep and sincere regret."

Dignified, but frank and genial, with the enthusiasm of a boy, Count Cassini is perhaps a perfect representative of the charming gentleman and suave diplomat with which Russia is so richly blessed among her statesmen. Probably no foreign minister, not even the Spanish minister during our war with Spain, had a position requiring so much delicacy, tact, and genuine diplomatic gifts as Count Cassini at the time of the Kishinev disturbances and since the beginning of the war between Japan and Russia. It must be admitted that he has sustained his position with dignity and ability, loyalty to his own government, and satisfaction to that to which he is accredited. Count Cassini is a born aristocrat, and a staunch supporter of the autocratic *régime*. In spite of this, however, and while it may be difficult for him to fully sympathize with the present Liberal movement in the empire, he is frank to admit that many reforms are necessary, and, moreover, maintains that the imperial government is fully alive to the necessity for such reforms. But with a people like the Russians, he points out, so diverse in race, and, in the main, so untrained in educational and political matters, it is necessary to go very slowly. Real reforms will be brought about as the government is able to elaborate them and put them into exe-



Photograph by Clinedinst, Washington.

COUNT ARTHUR PAVLOVICH CASSINI.

cution. A beginning has been made in the very important matter of greater facilities for the exercise of that religious toleration which has always been the principle of the Russian state.

Count Cassini is proud of having contributed to the bringing about of a better understanding between Americans and Russians. He believes

that if the Russian people and the conditions of life in the Russian Empire were made more intelligible to Americans there would be greater sympathy between the two peoples. However, he firmly believes that a clear understanding of Russia and the Russians is becoming more and more widespread in this country.

JAPAN'S REPRESENTATIVE AT WASHINGTON.

WHILE the report that the Japanese ministry at Washington has been raised to the rank of an embassy is premature, it is nevertheless regarded as certain in diplomatic circles that at the close of the war the representative of the Mikado in this country will be made an ambassador. The present Japanese minister to this country, the Hon. Kogoro Takahira, has had a dignified and successful career, and his services to his country, as well as his popularity among Americans, it is believed in Washington, entitle him to be the first Japanese ambassador to the United States.

The diplomatic service of Japan as at present constituted is less than forty years old. Before the reign of the present emperor, Japan had scarcely any intercourse with the outside world, and no foreign diplomacy *per se*. About 1870, however, a representative service on the general lines of those constituting European services was established, and to-day there is a career for a young man in the diplomatic organization of Japan. As yet, the empire has only ministries abroad,—no embassies. The first ambassador, it is intended, will be accredited to this country, which has always been regarded as the best friend of Japan among the nations.

The career and experience of Mr. Kogoro Takahira embraces most of the varied changes in modern Japanese history. In his early youth he felt keenly and deeply the ancient feudal life of Samurai and Shogun, and when Japan abandoned the old order and set her face toward the new he swung into and developed with the new national life. Mr. Takahira is a fine example of the diplomat and gentleman of the far East. His culture and training are many-sided,—he is learned in Chinese philosophy and literature, he is a thorough scholar in the intricate literature of his own country, and he speaks and writes fluently in several European languages.

Mr. Takahira is not of the titled class,—he has risen from the ranks. Entering the imperial diplomatic service in 1876, after a thorough education at the Japanese capital, he was appointed *attaché* to the Japanese legation in Washington, becoming secretary of that legation in 1881. Two years later, he was appointed secretary of the foreign office. Later, he held a number of important posts, including those of *chargé d'affaires* in Korea (1885), consul-general at New York (1891), minister resident to Holland (1892), minister to Italy (1894), minister to Austria (1896), vice-minister for foreign affairs (1899), and minister to the United States (1900).

The Japanese minister is a man of middle age, of a strong, well-built frame, but broken somewhat from his experience of last winter, when he was operated on for appendicitis. Tactful and diplomatic, a dignified diplomat through and through, Mr. Takahira has creditably represented Japanese interests throughout the present difficult period of the war. He has only courteous expressions of appreciation for the admirable qualities of the Russian people, whom he understands thoroughly. He does not look for peace in the near future, but says that Japan is ready and prepared to continue the conflict as long as may be necessary. As to the possibility which has been suggested of a Russo-Japanese alliance after peace has been concluded, Mr. Takahira declares this can never be. The Japanese people, he points out, have been educated, politically, along Anglo-Saxon lines, and it would be very difficult to change this national bent. A Franco-Russian alliance might be possible, but a Russo-Japanese alliance never.

A firm believer in the stability and permanence of Japanese-American friendship, the minister declares that there need never be any real rivalry, political or economic, between the two peoples. "Japan," he said, in a recent conversation on the subject of the so-called "yellow peril"—"Japan feels very near to the United States. This friendliness began with the visit of Commodore Perry to our shores, and it has been greatly increased and deepened by the association of the armies of Japan and the United States in the recent movement to safeguard the highest interests of civilization in the East. The American nation is now an Eastern power, and her interests are very closely related to those of Japan. There is room for both of us in the trade of the Orient. We have much that we can sell to you; you have much that we want to buy. Our trade will be limited by our ability to produce, and you can produce much that the Orient wants. Of course, there will be sharp competition in certain fields of commerce, but, on the whole, the United States will profit by Japan's missionary labors in China and Korea. I expect that Japan will benefit by the American development of the Philippines and Hawaii, and the United States will reap advantages from the Japanese opening up of Formosa. We desire to improve our commercial relations with all countries, but particularly with the United States. Japan feels more and more convinced that for trade she must eventually look to the shores of the Pacific, and that the greatest of



Photograph by Prince, Washington.

MR. KOGORO TAKAHIRA.

waters must be dominated in the near future by the merchant vessels of the empire and of the United States." As to the possibility of a militarized China, under the leadership of Japan, advancing against Europe, the minister laughingly said: "We Japanese are not so foolish as to

believe that any two nations of the East in combination could successfully resist the might of the united West; and, besides, it would be impossible to unite China, with her diversity of races and tongues. Lastly, we would not do it if we could "

THE LARGER PROBLEM BEFORE ADMIRAL TOGO.

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKÉ.

NEARLY a year and a half ago, the supreme command of the combined squadrons of Nippon was placed in the hands of a modest man, small in stature, named Togo Heihachiro. In making this appointment his majesty the Emperor said to the admiral: "Here it is, the life and future of Nippon; we place them in your hands."

What the admiral has done in the way of fighting in the present war has pleased his countrymen; not in the least has it surprised them. Those achievements of his were nothing more than were expected of him. At other times, in the much more trying days, ten years ago, of the famous battle of the Yellow Sea, he did quite as much. Why, then, did not the outside world know something about him before the present war? You can ask the question of the outside world. To be a sea soldier, even a perfect sailor, as the looseness of the rhetoric goes,—brave, able, a master of his art,—this is a rather elementary qualification in the guardian of a nation's life and her future. Admiral Togo's handling of the battles has been much more remarkable for the statesmanship of it all than for mere soldierly qualities and ability. His flagship, the *Mikasa*, houses, to all appearances, the Japanese foreign office.

Since the historic 8th of February, 1904, Admiral Togo and his vessels have met the Russians more than once. Only once, on the 10th of August, did the Nippon admiral see fit to risk his heavier ships in a rather serious engagement. The story of the naval engagements of the present war reads as preliminary skirmishings,—so far as the Nippon side is concerned. And who knows that it may not turn out to be such? Even before the opening of the sad war, the officers of Nippon whose duty it was to know knew that practically the entire fighting force of the Czar, a force of unquestioned efficiency, was either already in the waters of Port Arthur and the Pacific or on its way to the far East; that what remained of Russia's fleet was great mainly on paper.

ADMIRAL TOGO AS A STATESMAN.

Admiral Togo has been saying, not by words of mouth or of ink, but by that language which any schoolboy can tell you is much more eloquent than words, that the real enemy he is expected to meet, and upon which he is willing to

pitch his entire strength and resources, is as yet below the horizon. The joint note of the triple alliance of Germany, Russia, and France which crowned our victorious arms with the defeat of a coward was a bitter medicine. Ten years ago, that was. Whatever happens is for the best. It was a healthy lesson. The ghost of that lesson has been always wandering through the imaginations of the nation. With the people of Nippon there is one sin that can never be either forgiven or forgotten. It is the sin against the honor of the sun-round flag. It is small wonder, therefore, that Admiral Togo has been fighting like a man whose chief enemy is on the other side of the peace negotiations with Russia; as if the imposing might of the Pacific squadrons of the Czar were nothing but a preliminary curtain-raiser to the real drama; as if he were quite ignorant as to the exact power of his final and most formidable antagonist, whose name or nationality he at present knows not.

THE FACTORS IN THE NAVAL PROBLEM.

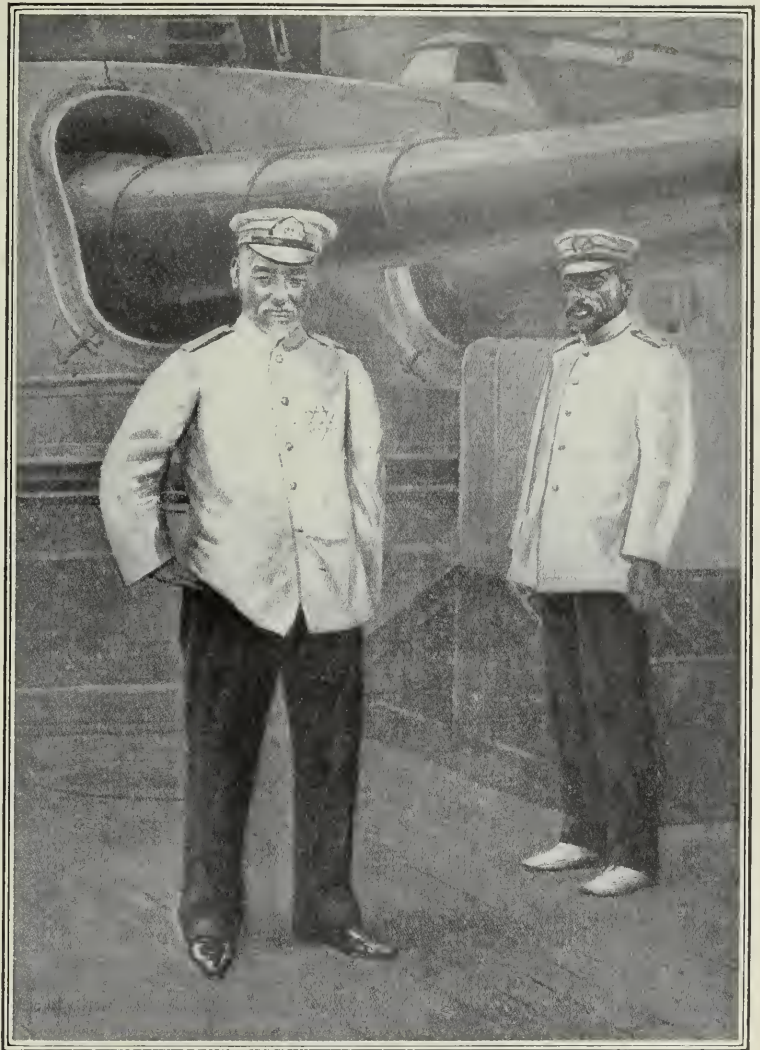
So far as we can see to-day (May 20), these are the courses open to Admiral Rozhstvenski: (1) He can, if he wish, go to Vladivostok by the shortest and most ticklish way, which skirts up along the coasts of China and Korea, and which leads through the Formosa and Korea straits; (2) he can go to the same destination by steaming out into the Pacific and passing between Formosa and the Philippines, and through the Tsugaru Strait between Hokkaido and Hondo; (3) he can enjoy his summer cruises in the waters off Indo-China, and patiently wait the coming of the winter, which would afford him a little pleasanter clime in that portion of the world, meanwhile devoting his time and energy to improving the morals of neutral commerce in contraband goods; (4) he can detach a few of his faster and lighter ships and send them through the Pacific in the direction of Vladivostok, and these ships can, provided, always, they escape a sudden death at the hands of the Nippon vessels,—do much to disturb the commerce upon the Pacific, and they can also, by means of this demonstration, try to lure a certain portion of the Nippon ships from their concentration; (5) Admiral Rozhstvenski can also steam north in search of Admiral Togo and his principal squadrons, with the determination to force the issue; (6) he can also,

after a stay of a few months in the Indo-China waters,—not in the territorial waters of France, of course,—and, finding out to his thorough satisfaction and that of St. Petersburg that this means of bringing about a dramatic moment for peace negotiations which would result in honorable peace to Russia is a failure, steam the long way back to Libau.

Now, the ultimate end for both Togo and Rozhestvenski is always to bring about the best possible situation each for his own country. To gain the command of the sea for the Russian admiral is certainly one of the most effective methods by which to bring this war to a happy close. Can he attain this end by making his way into Vladivostok? Let us suppose that the Russian admiral gain Vladivostok with all his ships without mishap. After that, let us face these facts: Vladivostok is inferior as a port to what Port Arthur was at the time of the beginning of hostilities. The Port Arthur squadron was superior to the Baltic squadron; the personnel of the Port Arthur squadron was as much superior to the personnel of the Baltic squadron as the vessels at Port Arthur were superior to those under Rozhestvenski. In fact, and in spite of the general impression to the contrary, those men at Port Arthur were the flower of the Russian navy. The dock facilities of Port Arthur were superior to those of Vladivostok. It is a matter of history how the Port Arthur squadron fared in the game of gaining the command of the sea over the ships of Admiral Togo.

CAN ROZHESTVENSKI REACH VLADIVOSTOK?

Only a miracle can steer to port these good ships of Admiral Rozhestvenski in perfect health and without accident, through either the Korean or Tsugaru mined fields, and through something like three thousand miles of unfriendly waters.



ADMIRAL TOGO AND HIS CHIEF OF STAFF ON THE FOREDECK OF THE "MIKASA."

For an ordinary man supposedly blessed with the usual measure of common sense to accuse the Russian admiral of taking this desperate and meaningless way to Vladivostok is to insult his intelligence. Certainly, none of his Nippon admirers are guilty of it.

As for the third course mentioned, that of enjoying himself in the waters off Cochin China with such French friendliness as he could command, it is not an unreasonable one. In that case, all will be left to the ability of the diplomats at St. Petersburg. And in the hands of a number of able men of Russia,—Count Casini, for example,—this presence of a threat at Nippon's complete command of sea, however

shadowy, might be turned into a weapon of no mean magnitude, especially if the diplomatists of Nippon happen to show once again, as they have shown so many times before, that the backbone of Nippon is almost completely monopolized by our fighting men.

THE REAL AIM OF THE BALTIC FLEET.

This, then, seems to be the most reasonable explanation of the appearance of the Baltic squadron in the China Sea. Admiral Togo, who has the highest respect for and confidence in the diplomatic office at Tokio, has not the slightest misgiving on the ability of the men who would represent Nippon in the peace negotiations. What he wishes to do is to back their ability and words with as powerful a squadron as possible. Most assuredly, he would not risk any of his heavier vessels, even many of his torpedo craft, in going after the Russian ships. So long as his Russian friends are content to stay in the Indo-China waters, Admiral Togo certainly has no objections to seeing them there. Why should he not give them as long a string as they wish? Every hour of delay makes for their embarrassment—and his entertainment. Besides, being a statesman, he knows that France is too wise to make a sad matter worse. To threaten the highway on the Pacific must be a sore temptation to Admiral Rozhstvenski. With the principal Pacific squadron lying athwart the Indo-China waters, the Pacific remains the only highway connecting Nippon with the treasure-chest and ammunition factories of the West. Under the Russian admiral's command there are at least a few good ships of above twenty knots' speed,—at least upon paper. You may say that some months ago the Vladivostok cruisers played at the same game, and that the Nippon admiral in front of Port Arthur only smiled and allowed them the freedom of the sea. With the European communications cut off in the south China Sea, however, matters might be a little different. Moreover, there is nothing to-day that pretends in importance and magnitude to compete with the Pacific squadron of Russia in engaging the eyes of Admiral Togo. Most naturally, therefore, this course on the part of the Russian admiral might tempt Admiral Togo to dispatch a certain number of his vessels after the raider. For the Russian admiral to dream of weakening Togo's

fighting force enough to afford the remaining ships of the Baltic squadron a fair chance of dealing a telling blow upon the enemy is to enjoy a dream that would be much fairer than the reality.

In the fifth place, it would be all very well for the Russian admiral to be reckless enough to start out on the thankless journey of discovering the whereabouts of Admiral Togo and his vessels; but if Admiral Togo were to decline a battle with the Russians, as he most probably would, what then? It would never do for the Russians to forget that in one thing they are at the mercy of their enemy,—they are not in place to dictate the time and place of a battle, if it should come to pass at all. That choice privilege belongs to the master of the superiority in speed, and to the master of the North Pacific and the Yellow and Nippon seas. The fleet of the Czar is, by long odds, inferior in speed to the ships of Admiral Togo. By the leave of the Nippon squadrons alone can the Russians have even an opportunity of meeting their enemy.

As for the sixth and the last course for the Russian admiral, stated above, Admiral Togo is in an excellent position to balk the fulfillment of it.

THE JAPANESE PICKET LINE.

A careful reading of the official reports of the naval movements of Nippon seems to spell out an invisible line which stretches from Amoy to Formosa, and through Formosa to the waters of the Philippine group, and eastward to the Pacific for many hundred knots. Till such time as the Russian vessels cross this line, there is poor prospect for the authorities on the science of naval warfare to receive any instructive lessons. When that line is crossed, then the curious may look for a thorny path for the Russian vessels which would stretch all the way to Vladivostok, and whose thorns are the torpedo boats and destroyers under the sun-round flag. In such a case, both the flying squadrons, composed of the splendid armored cruisers under Admiral Kamimura and the battleship squadron led by the *Mikasa* and her master, would be ever behind the screen of the active torpedo boats and destroyers. The result of the battle, if battle there be, is on the knees of the gods. One thing is certain,—Admiral Togo will never endanger the life of his great battleships unnecessarily.





SOME REPRESENTATIVE PERIODICALS OF MEXICO.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN MEXICO.

IF we leave out of consideration the large, illiterate population, Mexico has a reading public of which any progressive country might be proud. Without having a very large variety of periodicals to choose from, Mexican readers pay a generous tribute to the Fourth Estate. As the price of paper becomes less exorbitant and permits of the enlargement and improvement of the publications, now selling at extremely low prices, a great development of the press may be expected.

The city of Mexico, being the capital, is, of course, the center for periodicals. All those who are interested in politics make the city their headquarters and establish their organs there. The *Imparcial* is, by long odds, the leading daily. It is the official organ of the government, and has a circulation of 75,000 daily. Its editor, Attorney Rafael Reyes Spindola, a member of the Mexican Congress, is noted for his energy and business capacity. Under his direction, the *Mundo* (World), which is an afternoon edition of the *Imparcial*, with a circulation of 30,000, is issued. The *Popular*, edited by Don Francisco Montes de Oca, ranks next to the *Imparcial*, having a circulation of 50,000. From the *Popular* press-rooms the *Argos*, an afternoon sheet, also edited by Don Francisco Montes de Oca, is sent forth. This paper is dedicated to humorous, fictitious news. It is widely read.

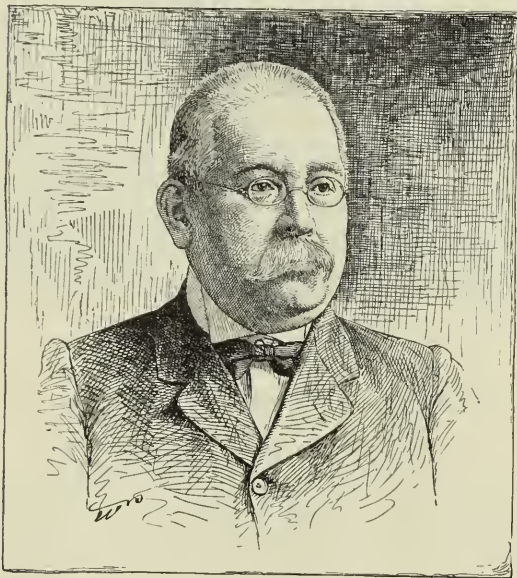
Catholic dailies have wide circulations. The *Tiempo* (Times), official organ of the Catholics, is edited by Señor Victoriano Agüeros, who is probably the most popular editor in Mexico. The *Pais* (Country), which has thousands of readers in the country towns, is less dignified than the *Tiempo*, which is read chiefly in the large cities. This paper, also a strong supporter of Catholicism, is edited by Don T. Sánchez Santos. Few Mexican dailies are as carefully edited as the *Patria*, which pleases the anti-foreigners, but does not circulate very widely. Of the Liberal or Independent papers, the *Diario del Hogar* (Fireside Daily) is the most respectable and prosperous. Then comes *Sucesos* (Events).

Foreigners have several periodicals. The *Mexican Herald*, which is the largest and best daily in the country, supplies the English-speaking element with news. It has a circulation of about 10,000. Its editor, Mr. Frederick Guernsey, is an especially able writer. The paper is a favorite organ with Mexican officials. The *Daily Record* is a new-born afternoon English journal. Spain's children read the *Correo Español* (Spanish Mail), a paper noted for excellent articles. Frenchmen have the *Courrier du Mexique* to peruse. Financial interests are served by the *Financiero Mexicano* and the *Mexican Investor*.

Two biweeklies of note are published,—namely, the *Tribuna*, a Catholic organ, and the *Paladín*,

of Liberal ideas. The former has a large circulation in the capital, and the latter in the country.

There are several weeklies of merit. Chief of these is *Artes y Letras* (Art and Literature), edited by Señor Ernesto Chavero, a noted short-story writer. It is very artistic and high-priced, selling for fifty cents (gold) per copy, but is well patronized. The *Mundo Ilustrado*, published by the editor of the *Imparcial* and the *Mundo*, is well illustrated and widely read. The *Sema-*



SEÑOR VICTORIANA AGÜEROS.

(Editor of the *Tiempo*, of Mexico City.)

nario Literario (Literary Weekly), published by the *Tiempo* Company, which also edits the *Tiempo Ilustrado*, enjoys a reputation for quality. Señor Heriberto Barrón, a well-known poet, edits the *Revista Literaria* (Literary Review).

The *Colmillo Público* (Public Tusk) is a daily journal of caricatures edited by Señor Fernandez Perez. It is opposed to President Diaz. Some of the ablest of Mexico's writers contribute to its columns over assumed names. The circulation is about 25,000. The *Ahuizote Jacobin* (Liberal Old Disturber) is of the same class as the *Colmillo*, but better printed.

The *Heraldo Agrícola* is the agriculturists' organ. Mexico's imperialists have an organ, the *Tercer Imperio* (Third Empire), imperialistic in name only. During the bull-fighting seasons, weeklies in the interest of the favorite sport are published. There are two English weeklies, the *Saturday Night* and the *Anglo-American*, the latter edited by General Agramonte.

Other dailies of the capital are the *Boletín Judicial* (Judicial Bulletin), edited by Señor Audomaro Reyes; the *Diario Oficial del Gobierno de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos* (Official Journal of the Mexican Government); *El Foro*, edited by Francisco Alfaro, and the *Gaceta* (Gazette), edited by Señor Salvador Resendi.

Most of the smaller cities have either too many periodicals or none whatever. For instance, Guaymas has four dailies,—the *Correo de Sonora*, the *Trafico*, the *Libertad*, and the *Noticias*,—for a population of 7,000, while Tulancingo, population of 30,000, has no paper whatever, daily or weekly. In Guadalajara, the second largest city, there is the *Diario de Jalisco*, with morning and afternoon editions, and a circulation of 20,000. The *Jalisciense*, issuing 10,000 copies daily, is also published in that city, as is also the *Comercio*, another daily. Of these, the *Jalisciense*, alone, is opposed to the government. Puebla, the Catholic center, has but little less population than Guadalajara, yet it has no daily. The *Idea* is a weekly of the city, sometimes read. It is devoted to the clergy. In Vera Cruz, the Liberal stronghold, there are several dailies, of which the *Opinion*, edited by Francisco Arias, is the leader, having morning and afternoon editions. The *Heraldo* and the *Orden Público* are extensively circulated. Monterey has two dailies, the *Constitucion* and the *Democrata*; San Luis Potosi one, the *Cuarto Poder* (Fourth Estate); Oaxaca one, the *Oaxaqueño*; Chihuahua one, the *Eco de Chihuahua*, and Tampico one, the *Progreso*.

English dailies and weeklies are published in many places. The *News*, of Monterey, ranks next to the *Mexican Herald* as a daily. Guadalajara has two English weeklies, the *Times* and the *News*.

Other Mexican periodicals, which have an influence but are not national in their scope, are: (weeklies) the *Economista Mexicano* (Mexican Economist), edited by Carlos Diaz Dufoo; the *Fronde*, edited by Mme. Marie Roussel de Galcinara (French); the *Echo Français*, edited by Henri Capillaud (French), and the *Revista Moderna*, edited by Jesús Valenzuela; (monthlies) the *Arte Musical*, edited by Aurelio Cadena y Marin; *Arte y Ciencia* (Art and Science), edited by Nicolás Manicat; the *Haciendado Mexicano* (Mexican Household), edited by A. J. Jamet (English and Spanish); *Modern Mexico*, edited in Mexico and New York by Paul Hudson, the most enterprising newspaper man in Mexico, in Spanish and English; the *Mujer Mexicana* (Mexican Woman), edited by Mesdames Columbia Rivera and Luz F. viuda de Herrera (the widow of Señor de Herrera), and the *Pan-American World*, edited in English and Spanish by W. W. Rator.

F. S.

MOROCCO AND THE FRENCH INTERVENTION.

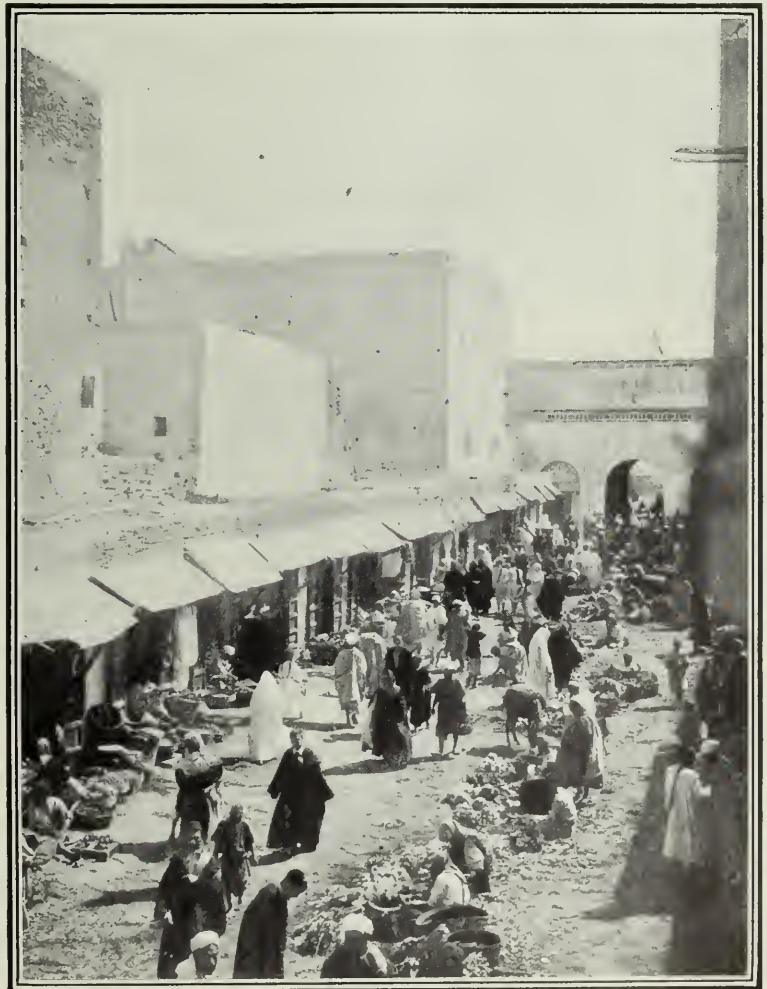
BY R. L. N. JOHNSTON.

(Former British consul, now acting consul for Denmark, Norway and Sweden, and Belgium, in southern Morocco.)

TO the tourist—no matter from which side of the Atlantic—Morocco is a seemingly treeless land, a region of immense distances, of sun-scorched plains and snowclad mountains. Each of its eight seaports, from Tetuan to Mogador, bears a likeness to the others in its dazzling limewashed houses and crenelated ramparts, its swarms of supercilious camels and their swarthy drivers, the glow and the gloom of its narrow streets, its gaberdined Jews and its coyly veiled women. Then there are the same curious little box-like shops, wherein, without a name over the door, and never dreaming of the sweet uses of advertisement, perches, cross-legged, the bearded vender of calico, sugar, and green tea, all his stock in trade within an arm's-length. The same pariah dogs; the same cows, wandering about the market-place in search of fodder; the same cry of the water-seller, dispensing from the bulging goatskin slung across his hip mugsful of the precious fluid to parched Arabs just arrived from the weird interior with their loads of produce,—wheat and barley from the plains of Abda and Dukala, wool and almonds from the highlands, and Alláh knows what besides.

All of which, after a week or two, grows deadly monotonous, and so continues, until it dawns upon you that each of these country folk, Bedouin; every fair-skinned son of Fez (or Fas, as you learn to call it); all these children of the Great Atlas range, knowing no Arabic to speak of, and clinging sturdily to their

Shil'ah tongue,—each of them has a life-story of his own, and could, if only he would, tell you in a day more of the real Morocco, with its hopes and its fears, its hatreds and its loves, its unwritten songs and its folklore, than all the books that have yet been penned concerning this fair land of sunset and sunshine. Then comes the craving to see these men at home, in their own country, and—fate being propitious—you fare eastward and



MARKET DAY, MOGADOR, MOROCCO.

southward, to imperial Fez, to the palm groves of Red Marráksh, and maybe, if Alláh and your luck have so decreed, to the enchanted regions of Atlas, the borderland of the Garden of the Hesperides, under skies of all but perennial blue, at once the despair and the paradise of the painter; a clime nearly as perfect, in early summer, as that of California; a land destined to become, perchance, not only the granary, but the sanatorium of Europe; and a land, moreover, through the greater part of which you may, in normal times, roam unmolested, receiving kindly hospitality from every Arab and Berber to whom you carry three lines of recommendation.

THE WEIGHT OF RELIGIOUS AUTHORITY.

A very wonder, among these unlettered folk, is the spell of the written word. Try to imagine it, ye ready penmen of the new world and the old,—ten thousand villages and hamlets yonder, beyond the zone of our treaty ports, and perhaps but one man in each of them who can so much as sign his name! That living marvel, the *taleb*, or scribe, not only does the scanty correspondence of his tribe,—his task it is to conduct the daily prayers in the rude hut which serves for mosque; he advises the sheik on the weighty matters of the law, and is the last authority, for peasant as for prince, on all that touches the duties of the true believer. A mighty power this, in any land; imagine what it means in

Morocco. Here we smile incredulously at the mere possibility of doubt; and the question, "Do we believe?" which has of late been agitating so many good folk in the old country, has no meaning. Pathetic as it may seem, the Moslem of Sunset Land believes in his God as implicitly as in his own existence. He believes, too, that his invincible Alláh has granted the rule of ocean to the accursed Nazarenes, and victory on dry land to Islam. Grotesque, perhaps; but there are eight millions of this believer, including half a million grown men.

POWER OF THE AUTOCRACY.

We are accustomed to speak conventionally of Morocco as a despotic monarchy. Try to imagine what that is. As it touches the bulk of the people, it means mainly taxation without representation. It means, too, that the pettiest official,—say, the deputy captain of a third-rate port,—is appointed by royal commission, for which somebody at court pockets a hundred dollars; that, in some districts, the farmer may not thrash his grain until permission is granted from Fez. Picture, if you can, a nation of eight millions, of natural intelligence—all things considered—above the average, and with the keenest appetite for news, not possessing one single newspaper in the vernacular. The only appeal from a judge's decision in the remotest corner of the sultanate is the monarch in Fez, involving a wearisome, costly, and, probably, dangerous journey of fourteen days. The proudest chieftain may not, technically, pay a visit to a seaport without royal sanction. If he were to embark for the shortest sea trip without that permission, his castle and all its contents would assuredly be confiscated. On his periodical visits to the capital, for the purpose of handing in tribute, he is liable to be thrust into life-long captivity for no greater crime than having failed to extract cash from bare flesh. Such is the power wielded by the ruler of Sunset Land.

But behind, around, and above the throne is the power of the men of the pen, the interpreters of the Koran. Whether they be members of the supreme



THE "THURSDAY" GATE, BAB-EL-KHANUS, OF MARRÁKSH, LEADING TO THE WEEKLY MARKET.



INSIDE "RED MARRÁKSH," MARRÁKUSHA-EL-HAMRA.

council of *aulama*, or mere village scribes, their teaching is one, and their combined influence far transcends, within its natural limits, even that of the Society of Jesus. This is the force we have to reckon with in weighing the probable issues of the existing deadlock between France and Morocco. The direction in which this dread influence will be applied seems to be the question of the moment.

THE CHALLENGE OF THE LEARNED CLASS TO THE FOREIGN INFIDEL.

Their position was recently summed up by a typical member of the class as follows :

What do you want of us, you Christians? Do we owe you money? We can, and will, pay you. Have we invaded your land? Did we beg you to come and reside on our soil? Have we not continuously discouraged your so doing? You say our country is "disturbed," that the government is weak, and so on. Is that your affair or ours? Surely your steamers, which brought you here, can take you back to your own shores. What have you done that we should love you? You have taught many of us, a nation of water-drinkers, to be drunkards. You have also smuggled into our country magazine rifles by the thousand, and sold them, at 100 per cent. profit, to our rebels, causing

the very mischief you complain about. You have, first, duped and then betrayed our Sultan. Now you say you will help us to govern. We decline your help. We are told, in the writing of Alláh, "Oh, true believers, take not the Jews or Christians for your friends;" and, again, "Oh, true believers, take not the unbelievers for your protectors." You would help our Sultan to repress rebellion; and we are to allow you to slaughter our erring brethren? Never! When we have declined your pacific intervention, what then? You will use force. So be it. We also shall fight, for our land, our families, our dead saints, and our living faith. With this difference, we trust in our God; you have none.

THE COUNTRY AND ITS PRODUCTS.

So much, all too imperfectly, of the people and their passionate faith. What of the country itself, its salient characteristics and capabilities? With a coast line, washed by the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, of nearly 1,300 miles, and a total area nearly double that of Great Britain and Ireland combined, the empire of Morocco possesses a soil which for the variety of its products is, perhaps, without a rival. On the great plains and undulating champaigns of Shawia, Abda, and Dukala you may travel for days through unhedged fields of wheat, barley, beans,

and maize. Hemp and coriander seed, tobacco, and nearly all the fruits and flowers of the Mediterranean littoral flourish in profusion. From the Atlas spurs and the province of Soos, one port alone has shipped a million dollars' worth of almonds in a year. The same port, Mogador, sends annually half a million dollars' worth of Morocco leather, in the shape of goatskins, to London and Hamburg, the bulk of which is trans-shipped to the United States of America. In a year of normal fertility, this same port furnishes half a million dollars' worth of olive oil, a total which a really "good" year doubles and trebles. In the same list of exports we find precious gums of the Sudan to the value of \$500,000, the resin of the *arar* tree, sandarac—grown nowhere but in Morocco—eggs (mainly for London), ostrich feathers, *argan* oil, garbanzos, and a host of minor items, all of which point to a productive power far exceeding that of any of the countries on the southern shore of the Mediterranean sea.

THE BURDEN OF TAXATION.

Yet the total trade of Morocco, approaching \$20,000,000 annually, gives no idea of what it will be under other conditions. The Moorish agriculturist guides a plow which might have been used in the days of Abraham. Machinery, outside the treaty ports, is absolutely unknown. The unmuzzled bullock is still the only means of thrashing the corn. Anything like state or other encouragement to plant trees and breed fine cattle is undreamed of. "Why don't you imitate your fathers, and lay out a new orchard?" I asked a farmer friend, in my days of ignorance. Pitying which, he remarked gently, "And have my taxes doubled?" Add to these obstacles the total absence of canals, of roads fit for wheeled traffic, of rivers navigable (though to make them so would be a simple task), and of any general system of irrigation. We see the amazing spectacle of a government taxing its own exports, twenty dollars per ton on oil, nearly two dollars per quarter on maize and beans, and treating most of the other kindly fruits of the earth in like fashion. But we do

not see the working of the iniquitous taxes placed on these same goods on their road from the grower to the seaport, taxes levied at every few miles of the route on the pretense of "protecting" the caravan. The marvel is, not that Morocco to-day exports so little, compared with its boundless capacity, but that it gives us so much.

DEVELOPMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES.

In the proposed reconstruction of Morocco [writes Mr. M. Aflalo,* in his deeply interesting summary of



MOULAI HAFID, VICEROY OF SOUTHERN MOROCCO. ON HIS RIGHT, A TALEB (SCRIBE); ON HIS LEFT, HIS DOORKEEPER.

the present situation], quite apart from the ordinary commercial imports, there will be needed immense quantities of plant purchased with the resources of Morocco itself, such as steel bridges, mountains of cement for the construction of breakwaters at the ports, machinery, rails, locomotives, railway carriages and trucks. Barrages will have to be constructed. Dredgers will be required for the removal of silt from the bar ports and for deepening the existing harbors. Steam launches and lighters will be needed for the eight Moroccan ports. Lighthouses will have to be erected along the coast. Clothing, arms, ammunition, and artillery will be in demand for the use of the native troops. It is quite probable that for many years to come the value of all this imported material may equal, or even exceed, the total value of Morocco's present commercial imports and exports.

Not less important will be the development of her

* "The Truth About Morocco." John Lane: London and New York.

undoubted mineral resources, which are positively known [says Mr. Aflalo] to include iron, nickel, antimony, argentiferous galena, copper, silver, and gold.

Little wonder, then, that the powers and individuals concerned in the promised opening up of such a region are watching with intense interest every step taken by France, an interest not unmingled with anxiety as to the turn events may take in the immediate future. Fully to apprehend the underlying factors at work in the drama now about to be presented in the world's arena, we must glance briefly at the latest page, albeit a sad one, in the history of the Sunset Land, written from the inside, ere the curtain rise.

THE ILL-FATED REIGN OF ABD-EL-AZIZ.

Since the death of Sultan Moulai el-Hassan, in 1894, the internal affairs of Morocco have been gliding from normal to bad, and from bad to worse. For some years, indeed, the iron-handed vizier, Ba-Hamed, preserved some semblance of authority over the great tribes of Rahamna and Soos, in the south, and the equally turbulent elements in the northern and central provinces. He quelled a rebellion which threatened to end in revolution. He succeeded in collecting tribute and taxes, whereby the treasury was able to support an army sufficiently strong for the preservation of order in and around the capitals, Fez and Marráksh, and among the tribes near the treaty ports from Tetuan to Mogador. So far as the foreign representatives located at Tangier were concerned, there was a govern-



ABD-EL-AZIZ, THE SULTAN OF MOROCCO.



KAID SIR HENRY MACLEAN, THE OLDEST EUROPEAN DRILL-MASTER IN THE SULTAN'S ARMY, AND KAID-EL-MENEHHI, RECENTLY MINISTER OF WAR.

ment with whom they could treat; a *makhzen* able to make its decisions respected by its subjects on all questions in which foreigners had any concern.

Meanwhile where was the young Sultan, Abd-el-Aziz? Ba-Hamed's nominal master—then a lad of about fifteen—rarely emerged from the seclusion of the palace; and when he did come before his people, every word he uttered was prompted in a low tone by the watchful vizier. "Tell me what it was like," I said to a friendly courtier (no admirer of Ba-Hamed), who had just come from the reception of a deputation by his Majesty. He smiled. "Try to imagine," said he, "a raven teaching a little canary to sing."

While Ba-Hamed lived he was almost universally suspected of an intention to make himself Sultan, and the concealment of his royal lord was pointed to as evidence of this ambition. We have every reason now to believe that his motives were honest. He had detected in the young monarch a most un-Moorish trustfulness of character, combined with a liberality in money matters which may mildly be described as extravagant.

Vizier Ba-Hamed once dead and disposed of,

the real power, such as it is, was shared for a time between Fadool Gharnit, champion of the old school and formerly minister of Moulai-el-Hassan, and his younger rival, Kaid-el-Menebhi, representing what we carelessly call reform. Gharnit was backed by the conservative, ultra-religious element, nowhere so strong and so passionate as in Fez.

El-Menebhi, on the other hand, far more accessible to outside, non-Moslem influences, played the graceful part of medium between the foreign adventurers who flocked to the Elevated Court and the now emancipated young Sultan. For a season all goes merrily as marriage bells. Sunset Land is to be regenerated from within, on the initiation of a liberal-minded monarch whose chosen friends and advisers are in the main European. So much we learn from the inspired paragraphs of our London journals. What are the facts? One great "reform" is inaugurated. The unpopular *freeda* tax,—or, rather, tribute,—is abolished, with the result that the treasury, in Moorish parlance, "empties itself," the provincial governors continuing to collect the tribute—for their own account.

Plans and estimates are received, and all but accepted, for the laying down of a railway, and for the building of a Christian quarter in the city of Moulai Idris, the founder of Islamism in Morocco. All of which, false or true, is wafted by rumor, and told in letters, to the wild men of the plains and the hills; from Riff to Atlas, from Tangier to Tafilalt; to be discussed in bazaar and tribal market, at first in ominous whispers and bated breath; and, as time goes on (every travel-stained courier bringing confirmation), with a growl which grows to a roar, as yet unheard in the palace, lulled by strains of piano and gramophone.

The storm was precipitated by a lamentable occurrence. A British missionary—by name, Cooper—to Moors the living emblem of the threatened Nazarene *régime*, was murdered by a fanatic (whether mad or sane does not appear), who took "sanctuary" in the shrine of Morocco's most revered saint, Moulai Idris. Now, the unwritten law of sanctuary is so terrific a power in this country that a criminal, taking refuge in the doorway of a mere infidel Nazarene, like you or me, dear reader, will at least secure something like a legal trial,—possibly a free pardon. On only one recorded occasion has the Sultan himself dared to violate the sanctuary afforded by a tenth-rate little saint-house, of which Morocco has thousands. Here the offender, held by the people to be half mad—and for that reason a saint—appealed to the very father of western Islam, the ghostly protector of all Sunset

Land's faithful believers. Urged by one of his wholly irresponsible European advisers, Abd-el-Aziz had the sublime courage to have the murderer dragged from the sepulcher of Moulai Idris and forthwith shot.

This act of somewhat hasty justice, naturally applauded in Europe, had but cost the young Sultan his crown. Through the length and breadth of the empire rang the cry, "Moulai Idris will be avenged." As instrument of the divine retribution arose the Pretender, and with the undisciplined tribesmen, who flocked by thousands to his standard, routed not only the half-hearted imperial cavalry, but the boasted *aaskar*, or "regulars," trained though they have been for twenty years by French and English drillmasters. For ten months, Fez remained practically in a state of siege. Small loans were raised and exhausted. The army melted away. The one imperative need of the moment was money. It was supplied by France, her not very lavish advances being secured by a lien on 60 per cent. of the customs' dues, which she is now collecting. To-day, the Pretender is in triumphant possession of the once imperial fortress of Taza, three days' easy journey from Fez, the treasury is again empty, and the army non-existent.

THE PERDICARIS EPISODE.

Contempt for the *makhzen*, or royal cabinet, and for the rights of foreigners, is no longer confined to the northeastern provinces. Has any reading American forgotten how, within gunshot of the legations at Tangier, a United States citizen, Ion Perdicaris, perhaps the most distinguished private individual in the whole country, was kidnaped by an enterprising chieftain, who, despite the intervention of the Francophile family of Wazzan, equal in sanctity to any in Morocco, insisted on terms of release the acceptance of which revealed the utter impotence of the Moorish Government to control its own subjects at the very gates of its leading seaport, the residence of the foreign plenipotentiaries? The example set so energetically and with such complete success by Raissuli opened the eyes of the lawless tribes all over northern and central Morocco, with the result that brigandage, rapine, and murder have become of every-day occurrence throughout the land which native official correspondence describes as the "Happy Realm" of his Shereefian Majesty.

WHY FRANCE UNDERTAKES INTERVENTION.

This is France's *locus standi* for intervention: It is intolerable that in the twentieth century



GATE OF THE CITADEL, MARRÁKSH.

some eight thousand Europeans in Morocco should continue to exist in terror for their lives, and for their property, because the nominal lord of the country is no longer able to make the treaties respected by his subjects. We have the mandate of the powers most interested. Of England, whose position as mistress of the rock beyond the narrow straits, and of no little voice in Mediterranean affairs, cannot be ignored. Of Spain, your neighbor on the north, not to speak of her "sphere of influence" Rio de Ouro way, beyond your southern borders. We ourselves are tired of your turbulent tribes near the Algerian frontier. The day of misrule must have an end, and promptly. We are willing—nay, anxious—to help you govern your country, with all our influence, all our force. Accept our assistance and we will guarantee your throne. If you decline it, we shall have, most reluctantly, to employ other measures.

Between the two fires stands the poor young Sultan, surely one of the most pathetic figures in the history of royal personages. Abandoned

by England, whom he trusted; awake, at last, to the peril of his situation, to his own weakness, and to the fierce determination of his eight millions of Moslems to defy foreign intervention, pacific or otherwise; if he so much as dallies with France, revolution; if he scout her proposals, war; military occupation of every seaport now, annexation later, and the inevitable collapse of his dynasty.

Nor is the task undertaken by France a light one. If she requires an Algerian army of one hundred and fifty thousand men to overawe her native subjects of that colony, in Morocco she has to face this solid fact: Half a million of men, of the plains and of the mountains, hardy and enduring, accustomed from early youth to carry arms, inured to long marches by night and by day, and every man of them resolved to fight to the death for the land and the faith. A people which believes in its heart of hearts that there is an Almighty God battling for Islam, and that, should death come, to fall in the holy war is a passport to Paradise.



THE FLEET, LED BY THE U. S. S. "ALABAMA," STEAMING TO PORT, SHOWING FORMATION, EACH SHIP 400 YARDS APART.

THE MANEUVERS OF A WAR FLEET IN TIME OF PEACE.

BY G. UPTON HARVEY.

(Representative of the *Army and Navy Register* at the Naval Maneuvers of 1905.)

TOWARD the end of December, each year, we read in the public prints that the fleet has been reviewed by the Secretary of the Navy or some other officer high in command, and that it has departed for the Caribbean for the winter maneuvers. Usually, nothing more is heard of the fleet until about April 1, when it arrives off Pensacola for target practice. It is not strange, then, that the public has but a hazy idea of the relation of these winter cruises to the preparedness and efficiency of our navy.

The maneuvering of a ship is of an importance on a par with accuracy of gun-fire. A ship that can make a hit with almost every shot but is badly handled may be—nay, often is—more dangerous to its friends than to its enemies; and a ship that can make but few hits is almost useless, however well it may be maneuvered. Thus, it will be seen that a ship's fighting value is equally dependent upon its handling and the accuracy of its gun-fire, and hence the months of hard work devoted to ship and fleet maneuvers and target practice.

Civilian opinion of the life of the officers and men of our navy is all too commonly founded upon the actions of jackies on shore leave,—their first liberty, perhaps, in months,—and what may be observed by visiting the ships in one of our navy yards. The writer is fortunate enough to be in a position to record the impression made upon a civilian who has seen something of the life of officers and men who in time of peace are preparing themselves and their ships to meet any emergency in time of war.

The thing that most impresses the civilian, perhaps, is the manner in which the ships of the fleet are handled. He has often marveled at the skill exhibited in the management of a troop of horses made to march in column, change to double column, turn and wheel, and then charge to the front in line. Imagine, then, his feelings when he sees these same evolutions performed by a squadron of mighty battleships and cruisers of from 10,000 tons' to 16,000 tons' displacement, manned by from 500 to 800 men,—and this, too, when the tumbling sea is ham-

mering and smashing at the line. Here, if you please, is an exhibition of skill that makes the maneuvers of a cavalry troop seem like child's play; here are monsters of death and destruction prancing, wheeling, driving ahead with almost irresistible force, yet seemingly obeying like live things the word of command from the pygmy-like being on the bridge. This is one of the results of the months spent in maneuvering—which is but another way of saying training for ships and men.

When the admiral in command desires that a day be devoted to maneuvers, the last thing at night he signals the ships of the fleet to bank fires and be ready to get under way by eight o'clock on the morrow. Every detail of the ship's equipment is examined and properly disposed, and long before the hour set the banks of smoke pouring from the funnels of the various ships indicate that only the signal is awaited to set the fleet in motion. On the after bridge of the flagship stands the admiral. The forward bridge is reserved for the ship's captain

and the navigating officer. The admiral's command, "Prepare to get under way," is repeated by the signal officer, and within a second the signal boys are hoisting the number which conveys the command to the other ships. Almost instantly the same signal number flutters at the peak of every ship in the fleet, showing that the admiral's command has been received.

There is, by the way, great competition among the ships as to this matter of repeating signals. Usually, one quartermaster on each ship constantly keeps his glass leveled on the flagship, and the instant he sees any movement among the signal boys he sings out, "Stand by, signal boy." In a flash the signal is read, and up goes the corresponding flag. Expressions of satisfaction fly about if the other ships are beaten.

When the order of the admiral is to be executed, the signal on the flagship is hauled down. By this time the marine guard is on deck, the ship's flag has been removed from the quarter-deck and hoisted above the after fighting top, and the ship is in motion. The flagship signals



THE ADMIRAL AND THE CAPTAINS OF THE BATTLESHIPS.

(Reading from left to right: Capt. William H. Reeder, commanding the U. S. S. *Alabama*; Capt. Edward D. Taussig, commanding the U. S. S. *Massachusetts*; Capt. Raymond P. Rodgers, commanding the U. S. S. *Kearsarge*; Rear-Admiral A. S. Barker, commander-in-chief of the North Atlantic fleet; Capt. John A. Rodgers, commanding the U. S. S. *Illinois*; Capt. Benjamin F. Tilley, commanding the U. S. S. *Iowa*; Capt. William S. Cowles, commanding the U. S. S. *Missouri*, and Capt. William J. Barnette, commanding the U. S. S. *Kentucky*.)



FIRING A 6-POUNDER AT TARGET PRACTICE ON THE "ALABAMA."

the course, the speed, and the formation, and the fleet steams for the open.

In steaming out, the formation is usually in column, with the flagship leading and the others in their allotted positions, about four hundred yards apart. When the fleet is well out, signal after signal is shown and repeated, and the ships begin to twist and turn in all directions. The old formation is abandoned and a new one accomplished.

At an unexpected moment the signal for full speed ahead for a mile or two may be given. Then there is great excitement, for the race will go, not to the speediest ship, but to the one that chances to be best prepared,—that is to say, the one that is at the time carrying the greatest steam pressure. This is a good test of the efficiency of the engineer's department. After the race, the ships again fall into position and fleet evolutions are resumed.

These maneuvers are not accomplished without danger, especially when they are executed in heavy weather, for a failure to properly read a signal, a mishap to a ship's steering gear, or a slight mishandling of a ship may result in the loss of one or more of the \$5,000,000 fighting

machines and many valued lives. For, remember, the ships during fleet maneuvers usually steam at 10 knots and are seldom more than 400 yards apart, and often are much closer when twisting and turning rapidly into new formations. But they accustom officers and men to danger, and help to fit them to meet any emergency that may arise in time of battle, when everything may depend upon the prompt execution of a maneuver ordered by the commanding officer, whose signals at such a time may be extremely difficult to catch. All maneuvers that might be practicable in battle are tried again and again, so that any of the various formations may be accomplished rapidly.

Steaming from one port to another, formation is usually in column. The flagship leads, followed by the battleships, armored cruisers, second-class cruisers, destroyers, monitors, torpedo-boats, colliers, and supply ships. With the ships maintaining the 400 yards' distance, the column is sometimes five miles long. But more impressive is the battle formation, where the destroyers are flung far out in a semi-circle, protecting the advance of the heavier ships, and are followed by the cruisers; next comes the



A NAVAL TARGET, SHOWING WORK DONE BY THE "ALABAMA'S" 6-INCH GUN.

broad line of battleships, followed, in turn, by the monitors and the torpedo flotilla, with the colliers and supply ships clustered in the rear.

The invention of a new system of training for gun-pointers, the secrets of which are carefully guarded, and which has led to the abandonment of the sub-caliber gun practice, has improved marksmanship in our navy almost beyond the hope of the most ardent officers and

men, certainly beyond the expectation of the majority, and improved ammunition hoists and breech mechanisms have greatly increased rapidity of fire. To-day, the records of our ships for rapidity and accuracy of fire are the envy of the navies of the world.

In former times, target practice was chiefly confined to shooting at a barrel or buoy with sub-caliber guns, with occasional shots with the



A DIVISION OF BATTLESHIP SQUADRON UNDER ADMIRAL BARKER.



ON THE BRIDGE OF THE "ALABAMA" DURING EVOLUTIONS, SHOWING CAPTAIN REEDER, SIGNAL OFFICER, AND SIGNAL BOY.

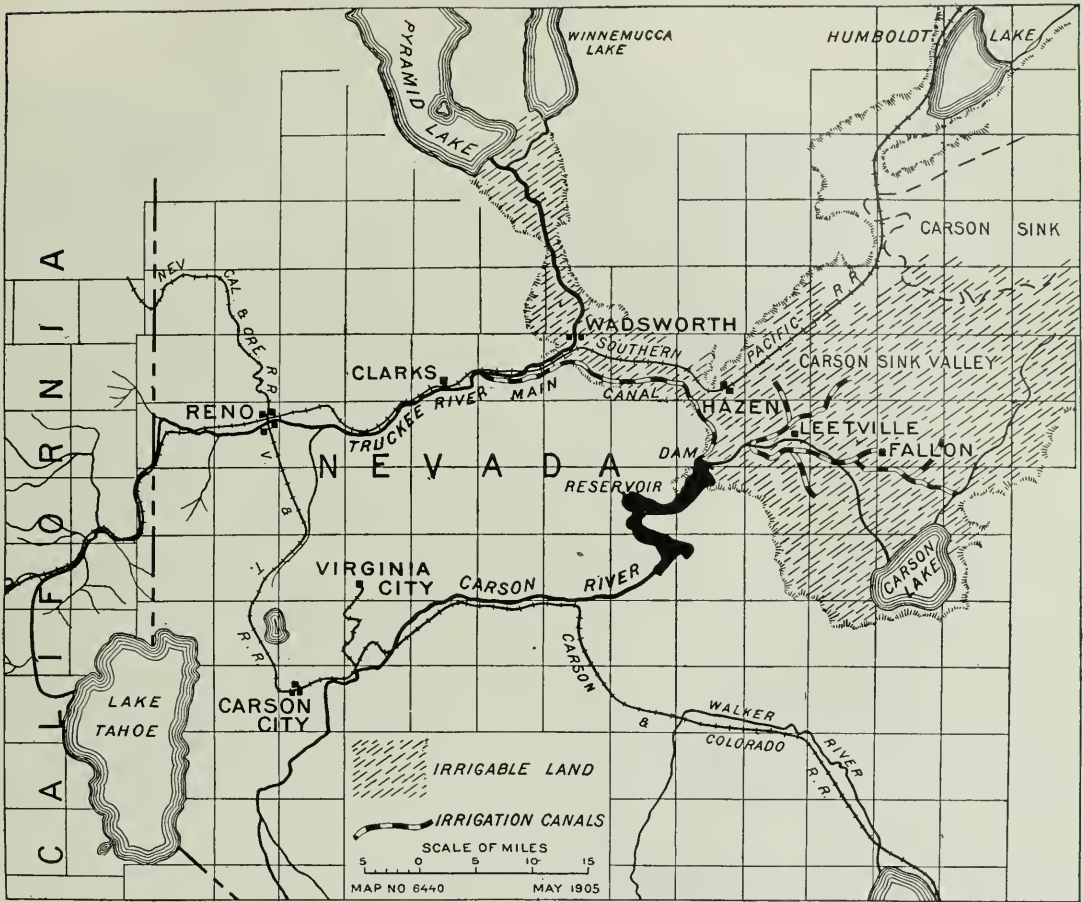
regulation projectile and a reduced powder charge. Observation launches were stationed comparatively near to the target to judge and record the shots. Under the new system, the gun-pointers get almost constant training, but without any waste of ammunition. Then when the time comes for the annual target practice, the regulation ammunition is used in all except the very largest guns, and in these the powder charge is only slightly reduced.

The range is laid out in the form of an equilateral triangle, the target marking the apex and the angle of the base being indicated by flag-buoys. For guns of six inches and over, the triangle is 1,500 yards on a side, and the target is 16 feet high and 22 feet long. For guns under six inches, the side of the triangle is 1,000 yards, and the target is reduced one-half in height. Practice is had with but one gun at a time, and as each gun and gun crew has its turn at the target, it requires from a week to ten days, even in the most favorable weather, for each battleship or big cruiser to finish its turn on the range.

The test is for rapidity of fire as well as for

accuracy, therefore firing must begin and cease at given signals as the ship steams at 10 knots along the base of the triangle. In the case of 13-inch guns, the time limit is 5 minutes. A few years ago, this time limit would have admitted of but one or, at the most, two shots. The record to-day is 11 shots, and scores of 9 or 10 shots within the 5 minutes are common. The record for 13-inch gun speed and accuracy is 11 shots and 10 hits. This was made under exceptionally favorable weather conditions in Manila Bay. This loading record was equaled during the recent target practice off Pensacola; but, owing to the roughness of the sea, there was a considerable deficiency in point of accuracy.

Target practice is expensive, the cost of each shot from a 13-inch gun being about \$500, but the public has no cause to grudge the expenditure. Such work as our men are doing makes for peace; but if our navy is ever again called into action, the expenditures made now for target practice will be saved to the nation a thousand times over, for upon the efficiency of our gunners depends to a great extent the safety of our ships and all that that implies.



MAP OF THE TRUCKEE-CARSON IRRIGATION PROJECT, NEVADA.

AN OBJECT-LESSON IN IRRIGATION.

THE GREAT TRUCKEE-CARSON SYSTEM.

BY CLARENCE J. BLANCHARD.

(Statistician, United States Geological Survey.)

THE national-irrigation movement, which has been steadily growing for several years, finally crystallized into the Reclamation Act passed by Congress on June 17, 1902, an act which President Roosevelt declares is one of the great steps, not only in the forward progress of the United States, but of all mankind.

The operations of the Reclamation Service, a bureau created by the Secretary of the Interior out of the hydrographic branch of the United States Geological Survey, have expanded rapidly. Notwithstanding the magnitude of the

works projected, the vast area of the country investigated, and the innumerable questions of detail, organization, and administration, actual construction is now under way on seven large projects, and on one of these, in Nevada, has progressed to a point where fifty thousand acres of land will be supplied with water and formally opened to the public on June 17, 1905, the third anniversary of the Reclamation Act. The event is to be properly celebrated in the presence of distinguished scientists, engineers, legislators, and hundreds of settlers.



HIGH-LINE CANAL OF THE TRUCKEE-CARSON PROJECT.

Especial interest attaches to the Truckee-Carson project in Nevada, partly because it is the first actual demonstration of the Reclamation Act, and also by reason of the fact that it includes the largest body of public land embraced in any of the several irrigation projects. The Truckee-Carson system is only a part of the great scheme which is being undertaken for Ne-

vada. In their entirety the vast plans involve the expenditure of \$9,000,000 and the intensive cultivation of 350,000 acres of land.

Not less interesting than the splendid achievement of the government engineer, L. H. Taylor, who is responsible for this work, is the locality in which he is constructing it. The reclaimed area is situated in the bed of ancient Lake Lahontan, which in recent geologic times occupied many of the valleys of northwestern Nevada. It is a region at present which must be compared with the parched and desert areas of Arabia and the shores of the Dead Sea and Caspian, but which when irrigated will rival in productiveness any valley in the temperate zone.

The Truckee and Carson rivers rise on the eastern slopes of the forest-clad Sierra Nevada Mountains in California, and flow in a general northeasterly direction into Nevada. The drainage basin of the former contains a number of beautiful lakes,—Lake Tahoe being the most important,—all of which are to be utilized for flood storage. In Nevada these rivers flow for some distance parallel to each other, and at one point not more than twenty miles apart. The Truckee River then veers sharply northward, emptying



A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE TERRITORY COVERED BY THE TRUCKEE-CARSON PROJECT.

(1, Reno, Nevada; 2, diversion dam in Truckee; 3, Wadsworth; 4, Hazen; 5, Leetville; 6, Fallon and canals; 7, Carson Reservoir; 8, Upper Carson Reservoir; 9, Carson Sink; 10, Virginia City; 11, Truckee canals; 12, Carson River; 13, Soda Lake,—this lake has made its own cone.)



THE CEMENT-LINED CANAL OF THE TRUCKEE-CARSON PROJECT.

into Pyramid and Winnemucca lakes, and the Carson River, separating into three channels, ultimately disappears into Carson Sink.

Engineer Taylor conceived the plan of carrying the waters of Truckee River over into the Carson drainage, and by means of a diversion dam and a large canal thirty-one miles in length successfully accomplished it. Truckee River now empties into Carson River, the point of union being in a long depression of the valley of the latter, which has been converted into a reservoir with a capacity of 286,000 acre-feet. Four miles below the reservoir, and above the three forks of the Carson, another diversion dam directs the combined flow into two large canals, one on each side of the river, which are the feeders for a distributing system of ditches hundreds of miles in length.

Under these comprehensive plans, flood-waters which for ages have passed unutilized into sinks to evaporate now render fertile thousands of farms, while the depressions themselves, drained and laid out into farms, will soon support in comfort hundreds of families.

As drainage is almost as essential as irrigation in the valley, owing to the quantities of salts deposited in the soils of the old lake bed, the river channels in their lower reaches are to



A PIONEER'S IRRIGATION PLANT.



ONE OF THE NUMEROUS GOVERNMENT TUNNELS IN NEVADA.

be used as drainage canals, carrying the surplus and seepage waters far out into the desert. Their tortuous courses have been straightened, their beds deepened and broadened in places, and narrowed in others, until the configuration of the delta has been greatly altered.

Viewed from an elevation, the government works remind one of a gigantic octopus, its body being the vast reservoir from which, radiating in all directions, distributing canals reach out like tentacles to embrace every farm in the valley.

The lands in the Truckee-Carson valleys, as shown by careful analyses extending over a period of years, are strongly fertile, rich in the necessary elements of plant food, and adapted to the successful production of a wide variety of crops. From experiments conducted by the Department of Agriculture, it is shown that these valleys are especially favorable, when irrigated, to the cultivation of fodder crops, which will promote animal and dairy industries. On account of cold nights, the region is not suitable for corn, but is adapted to the growing of hardy fruits, such as apples, plums, pears, peaches, grapes, and berries, while oats, potatoes, and alfalfa are the principal crops. Sugar beets will certainly do well in this section.

A careful study of the climatology of this region destroys the popular but erroneous impression that it is unfit for civilization. Briefly stated, the climate is extremely arid, and is distinguished by a short cool summer and a long mild winter. Evaporation is rapid, so also is

the radiation of heat after sunset. The contrast between the records of the dry and wet bulb thermometers is great, and although the ordinary thermometer often registers a temperature of over 100 degrees, the actual sensible heat felt by man is lower than the summer temperature of New England. Nights are invariably cool, and frost is apt to occur in the higher parts of the region any day in the year.

The mineral wealth of Nevada is beyond all question, and it is safe to predict that with irrigation the agricultural products of this region will find a profitable home market, and will

largely promote the exploitation and development of the mineral resources.

Under the provisions of the Reclamation Act, the farm units under this project are limited to forty and eighty acres, the lesser areas being located near the towns, three of which have been established since the work began.

Any citizen of the United States who has attained the age of majority, and who has not exhausted his homestead right, may take up a homestead under this project, under the provisions of the homestead law and the Reclamation Act. No payment for the land is required beyond the cost of filing and recording,—about \$15. Each entryman is required by law to take water from the government irrigation system, and to pay in annual installments not exceeding ten, the proportionate amount charged against the land included in his entry. In the Nevada project, this amount is \$26 per acre, payable \$2.60 per acre each year for ten years without interest. Title to the land does not pass to the settler until the entire charges are paid and at least half of the total irrigable area of his land is reclaimed for agriculture. Failure to pay any two payments when due renders an entry subject to cancellation, with forfeiture of all rights, as well as all money paid. Entries cannot be commuted, and actual and continuous residence is required.

Lands in this valley now under irrigation from private ditches are held at \$75 to \$200 per acre, and the annual products average in value from \$15 to \$50 per acre.

PHILADELPHIA'S CIVIC OUTLOOK.

BY JOSEPH M. ROGERS.

FOR full forty years the civic administration of Philadelphia has been very much in the public eye. It used to be the "Gas Ring," which was as much talked about as Tammany Hall. That reign came to an end almost twenty years ago, when what is commonly called "the Bullitt bill" went into effect. This was an entirely new charter, drawn by an eminent lawyer, into which were supposedly injected the very best elements of administrative potentiality as exemplified by experience in this country and in Europe. The mayor, who before had been simply chief of police, was made the controlling force in municipal government. Elected by the people, he had, through his appointments, practically absolute control over every city department. It was intended to give him all power, and thus hold him to a stricter accountability. To the two branches of councils were left the raising of taxes and appropriation of moneys, and to the upper branch was given the power to veto appointments. It was also provided that there be erected a civil-service system which should curb the mayor in attempting a personal domination of affairs.

All restrictions have amounted to nothing. Councils have been in almost every case willing tools of mayors, appointments have almost invariably been approved, while the civil-service regulations are a farce. The mayor has had just exactly as much power as he has chosen to exercise. Some mayors have been moderate in their rule, and some have been arbitrary to an extent that would make an autocrat envious. To the Gas Ring succeeded a triumvirate, which was followed by the so-called "Hog Combine" of ward leaders, and finally the present organization, whose grip is apparently the strongest of all. The mayor was in or out of these combinations as he chose, but he has never very vigorously fought them. Originally, there were three great departments. The Department of Public Safety included the fire and police bureaus; that of Public Works looked after the streets, gas, water, construction, and the like. Each of these had a director. The public charities were in commission until recently, when a director was placed over them, and finally a purchasing agent for city supplies was made a director and a full member of the cabinet.

The upper branch of councils consists of one member from each ward; the lower, of mem-

bers according to assessed voters. Recently, the lower body became so unwieldy that it has been cut down one-half. At present, councils are almost without exception under the control of the "organization," composed of five or six Republican leaders, with Israel W. Durham at their head. There is no politics in councils, and of late there has been only the very slightest opposition to any measure that has been indorsed by the "organization." Bills are passed in short order, very often without the slightest debate. Philadelphia no longer has what may be termed a deliberative assembly.

THE GAS LEASE AND "THE ORGANIZATION."

Eight years ago, the city gas works, which had shown a constant deficit, were leased to the United Gas Improvement Company for thirty years, with a possibility of termination in ten years, after paying the cost of improvements, the company paying the city ten cents a thousand feet for a term of years, running up to twenty-five cents before the end of the lease. The city may remit this to the consumers, but, so far, has kept it. Recently the leaders of the organization who originally fought the lease have secured from the company an offer to pay twenty-five million dollars down in payment of all rebates and a long extension of the lease. A new corporation has offered what appear to be much more favorable terms. As this is written it appears that the organization will secure the passage of the United Gas Improvement bill without modification. The mayor is opposed to it, but it can be easily passed over his veto. This issue bulks large in the public mind. It may lead to a political revolt. If some new arrangement is not made, taxes soon must be raised, and that is what the organization seeks to avoid. Public improvements are needed, and the city is close to the limit of its borrowing capacity. A proposal to postpone the gas matter entirely is urged by many as the best solution of the issue.

THE "RIPPER" BILLS.

Interest in the city has been stimulated by the remarks of many publicists concerning the character of the administration. Much of the criticism has come from outside, but a great deal of it from prominent people in the city. The climax came in April, when the Legislature passed

three bills amendatory of the charter which greatly affected the administration of the city. The first bill took away from the mayor and gave to councils in joint session the power to elect the directors of Public Works and Public Safety. In other words, the mayor is no longer to have control of the police or fire departments; neither is he to have any control over city contracts for construction, or for keeping the streets cleaned or paved, or for distributing the water. The only potentialities which he preserves,—because the governor refused to sign the bills depriving him of them,—are through his appointments of directors of public charities and of supplies, neither of which is of vast importance, and both of which are, as we have seen, recent offices. The mayor is shorn of his power, and becomes hereafter a respectable figurehead at twelve thousand dollars a year, while his subordinates, over whom he has no control, do all the work and may thwart his desires at every turn. It will be interesting to discover what sort of man will accept such a position.

Because this so-called "ripper" bill has been signed by the governor, he has been greatly abused by newspapers and others. The governor pointed out that the legislators from the city, and, in fact, from the whole State, were practically unanimous for the measures; but he vetoed two of them, and expressed a wish that he could have vetoed one-half of the first, so as to give the mayor the police power. In his message on the subject he went into the history of civil government in a fine literary vein, citing instances all the way from Jacob and Esau to modern times, and including a quotation from Pope. As the changes do not go into effect for almost two years, repeal is possible, though not probable.

THE PROBABLE OUTCOME.

It is of interest to see just what these changes will mean, supposing they be finally carried out. In the first place, it would seem as if an organization which could elect a mayor might find a mayor that would suit it quite as well as two directors. This has not been the case. There have been many rival interests of late. The organization (which, by the way, is the term always used in speaking of those in control) did not get along with the last mayor. It was not in control when the previous mayor was elected. The present mayor does not satisfy it, and it is hard to find whom he does satisfy, since he is at alternate moments called, by public censors, a tool of the ring and a foe of the organization. He is an English-born young man, and it is an open secret that though he was expected to suit those

who politically made him, he has not done so, and the "ripper" bills were passed to prevent another such failure. The point is made that a mayor with power can always set up in business for himself, as some have done, while directors chosen by councils can be handled effectively.

So far as legislation is concerned, it is not likely that the new system will affect the conduct of affairs very greatly. Those who oppose the present organization say it is the worst that ever existed in the history of the world, and that a revolution is necessary to secure an improvement. In any event, if this is so it is hard to see just where the situation has been changed for the worse. With a bad mayor and good councils, the situation would be improved. With bad councils and a good mayor, the situation would be virtually unchanged. It is agreed by many of the ablest and best men of the city, those who have for years given of their time and money for the betterment of any good cause, that there is a chance of better things under the new *régime*. It is certain that some who have most loudly objected to it are practical politicians, who fear that here is a chance to split the organization and make a new deal possible.

Those who believe that the situation is somewhat better, and at most no worse, do not base their opinions upon the abstract question of a system. They have seen the best system fail in achieving what was so fondly hoped. They see in the possibility of electing new and better councilmen a better chance for reform than in a contest over the mayoralty. Partisan lines are strong in the city, and it has been many years since a Democrat has been elected to city office, no matter what the issue or the relative qualifications of opposing candidates. There is still a desire to maintain party organization for national purposes, so as to "save the tariff" and "keep in line with Washington."

IMPORTANCE OF THE WARD SYSTEM.

But there have often been contests in wards which have resulted surprisingly. In fact, the present organization got into power through a combination of wards which the former gang believed impossible. The ward system counts for more in Philadelphia than in any other American city, for the reason that very largely it represents the old divisions before the city was consolidated, fifty years ago. Then there were some fifteen corporations which were entirely independent. Germantown was as distinct from Philadelphia as Brooklyn from New York before consolidation, or Milwaukee from Chicago to-day. These fifteen or twenty little cities represented, largely, manufacturing foci where, as a rule, a

single interest or a few predominated,—carpets in one section, cotton textiles in another, locomotives and machinery in another. All had distinct social institutions of their own. In course of time all these have been joined together, not only politically, but by extension of municipal improvements, so that the city is fairly compact. But the independent spirit of the localities is largely preserved. Thousands grow up and die in one section without more than an occasional visit, if any, to the center of the city. This tends to conservatism, to a narrowness of perspective, though it is not without its compensations.

A CITY OF HOMES.

There is only one modern flat-house in Philadelphia, perhaps half-a-dozen modern hotels, and no tenements such as all other cities have by the acre. There is no large proletariat in the city, and such as exists is due to the influx of derelicts from abroad. As a rule, the Philadelphian is well employed the year round. There are about three hundred thousand residences in the city,—more than in Greater New York and London combined,—and most of them are owned by the people who live in them. Almost two hundred thousand of them are two-story houses with six or seven rooms and a bath, generally a sizable back yard, and in the newer portions a little front yard and a porch. Mechanics buy these houses through the building associations and mortgages from the trust companies. Such houses cost from two thousand to four thousand dollars apiece,—the latter would seem like mansions to many New Yorkers. They rent at from twelve to twenty-five dollars a month, with an average of about sixteen dollars. Those who are aware of what rents are in other cities can see that in this respect the Philadelphian is much better off than most of his neighbors.

This insularity, due to the original village system, is enhanced by the home feeling. Philadelphians, as a rule, are sober and hard-working men with families. When a man comes home from work it is not necessary to fly to the nearest saloon to get a comfortable place to sit. He has his little parlor, his back yard, or his front step. There are hundreds of miles of streets to be seen on any summer night in Philadelphia where the father and mother sit on the porch or steps and enjoy the sports of the children in the streets. The man does not care for the street corner. The home spirit seems to be dominant. If he were not comfortable at home he would go where he could enjoy himself, and many of them do. But it ought to be plain that people who stick so closely to the hearthstone are more conservative than those who flock out of human

beehives to the streets as soon as they have their meals. The Philadelphian is called slow because he is not prone to run off after some new idea. He is like the farmer in the recesses of his homestead, who ponders before he acts. Because the home is so largely developed, and because the city is composed almost exclusively of native Americans and Germans, the women have a much wider influence in Philadelphia than anywhere else in America, and they exercise it.

CAN HONEST COUNCILMEN BE ELECTED ?

Now, this is no argument for or against existing conditions. It is a statement of what is the case. If reform or change is to come, it must be in the light of such facts. There are those who think that a raise in the tax rate is inevitable, and that this will bring about a revolution. It will make the owner and the renter angry, and lead to electing new councilmen, who, being in control of the purse and the sword in the new *régime*, will achieve civic righteousness. They think this easier than electing a mayor under the old rule. It ought to be said, however, that this is not the general view of the press or of those who are best known to the public as political reformers. It is certain that the people of Philadelphia can be stirred up, that they have been, and surely will be once more. But it ought to be said in fairness that there is very little in recent legislation which can have very much effect on the future. A solution of the problem lies deeper than a mere charter change. It is perhaps very unfortunate for Philadelphia that her evil manners have been enshrined in brass, while her virtues are too generally writ in water.

Probably most communities get the sort of government they deserve. It is certain that the great experiment begun almost twenty years ago through "the Bullitt bill" has failed very largely of accomplishing what was fairly expected of it. If the fault lay in the fact that something more is needed than a system, then present criticism, destructive as well as constructive, ought to be directed toward a better way to accomplish the things so desirable. And at the same time it ought to be remembered that there are other sinners in civics, and that if the people of Philadelphia are "corrupt and contented" one may not be the cause of the other. There are more than a million inhabitants of the Quaker City who are quite ignorant of their alleged relative decadence and look with pity upon the condition of those who live in cities which are so highly indorsed by themselves. For it seems certain that the further you get from a city the worse its reputation is.

THE ATLANTIC FISHERIES QUESTION.

I.—A STATEMENT OF NEWFOUNDLAND'S ATTITUDE.

BY P. T. M'GRATH.

(Editor of the St. John's, N. F., *Herald*.)

THE smothering of the Bond-Hay treaty of fishery reciprocity between the United States and Newfoundland by the United States Senate, at the behest of the New England fishing interests, promises to revive in an acute form an imbroglia as grave as the Alaskan boundary dispute. Canada and Newfoundland have been granting American fishermen certain valuable concessions along the Atlantic seaboard during the past fifteen years, a withdrawal of which would be disastrous to them in the pursuit of their occupation.

These liberties include the procuring of bait fishes in the littoral, to be used in luring the larger denizens of the Grand Banks,—the cod, haddock, halibut, and mackerel,—for which bait Newfoundland's coastline is famous; and the trans-shipping privileges somewhat utilized through Canadian ports; while outfitting, crewing, and kindred concessions are obtained from both indifferently.

THE ORIGINAL TREATY RIGHTS.

This Atlantic fisheries question arose from the fact that prior to the War of Independence England dominated the fisheries on the Newfoundland Banks. The American colonies shared in them as her subjects, but in 1775, when the colonies became aggressive, Lord North introduced a bill in Parliament to deprive them of this privilege. France had already been forced from the region, and in 1778, in recognizing the "United States," demanded from them fishing rights on these Grand Banks. The Treaty of Paris, in 1783, which closed the war, restored to the Americans equal fishing rights with British subjects, a condition which prevailed until the War of 1812 abrogated these treaties. At the Peace of Ghent, in 1814, England refused to continue the privileges, so quarrels arose between the rival fishermen, to end which the treaty of 1818 was negotiated,—the root of the difficulty as it exists to-day.

That compact granted United States subjects the rights (1) to fish in the inshore waters of the southwest coast of Newfoundland and the west coast (better known as the "French shore"), the Magdalen Islands, and Labrador; (2) to dry and

cure fish on the uninhabited southwest coast of Newfoundland, and on Labrador, this right to cease on any portion thereof as such became settled unless by agreement with the possessors of the ground; (3) to hold the fishing and drying privileges in common with British subjects.

In return the United States agreed to renounce forever all right to fish within three marine miles of the coast of British North America not included in the foregoing areas, or to enter there for any purpose except wood, water, shelter, or repairs.

RECIPROcity ARRANGEMENTS.

This clause created the "headland" dispute,—*i.e.*, whether the three marine miles should follow the sinuosities of the coast, as the United States contended, or be measured beyond a line drawn from headland to headland, across the mouths of bays, reserving as territorial waters all within that line, as England maintained. She claimed Fundy Bay, between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, Gaspé Bay, in Quebec, and Fortune Bay, in Newfoundland, as absolutely within her jurisdiction, and seized many United States vessels in subsequent years. In 1839, President Van Buren negotiated for an adjustment of the difficulty, but without result. In 1842, American fishing vessels could not approach within sixty miles of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. In 1847, England permitted United States fishermen to ply their vocation in Fundy Bay, but not as a right. In 1851, Secretary Webster proposed a conference on the subject, which England accepted, and in 1854 was arranged the Elgin-Marcy reciprocity treaty. It gave United States fishermen full privileges with the residents in British American waters, and British American fishermen the same right in United States waters and coasts north of latitude 39, with free entry to many British American products. In 1866, this treaty was abrogated by the United States, but, trouble being renewed, another arrangement was made in 1871,—the Thornton-Fish treaty, by which these inshore fishery privileges were arbitrated upon. In 1877, the arbitration tribunal met at Halifax, and awarded British America \$5,500,000 for granting United States fishermen fifteen years'

fishery privileges, of which sum Canada took \$4,500,000 and Newfoundland \$1,000,000.

Another section of the Washington treaty provided for the famous "bonding privileges," an agreement for the transit in bond of Canadian goods through the United States without paying duty, which is still operative, though the fishery clauses were abrogated by the United States in 1886. The strife between the fishermen was then resumed, and in 1887 Newfoundland sought an arrangement with the Republic, regardless of Canada. England intervened, being then preparing the Chamberlain-Bayard treaty of 1888, which the United States subsequently rejected. It provided for reciprocity in fishery products between the United States and British America; for the former's vessels to enter the latter's waters, practically on the "headland" basis, certain bays up to twenty miles in width, on the British American seaboard, being reserved for British American fishermen. Pending action by the Senate, both sides agreed to a *modus vivendi* for two years, by which United States fishing vessels were granted the foregoing privileges by paying a license fee of \$1.50 per ship ton. This agreement was continued until now, for Canada or Newfoundland could not risk terminating it, as negotiations, in one form or another, were in progress ever since. The failure of that treaty induced Newfoundland to seek again a distinct arrangement, and Mr. (now Sir Robert) Bond, her colonial secretary, framed a compromise with the late Mr. Blaine, known as the "Bond-Blaine" convention, which granted Newfoundland's fishery products free entry to American markets, on United States fishermen being allowed inshore privileges in Newfoundland waters. Canada protested to England that she should have been included, as the pact now prejudicially affected her fishery interests with the United States, and the British Government, owing to Canada's importance, pigeonholed the treaty until Canada had an opportunity to make another. In 1898, the Joint High Commission met to adjust all differences between the United States and British America, but it failed of result, and in 1902 England permitted Sir Robert Bond to revive his suspended arrangement and negotiate the Bond-Hay treaty which Senatorial action recently burked.

THE FISHERY NO LONGER AN AMERICAN INDUSTRY.

The strongest arraignment of fishery reciprocity is that it would ruin the fishing industry of New England. In this the New England fisherfolk rely upon the ignorance of the actual status of the enterprise which prevails in the

United States, and on the plea that it is a nursery for the American navy. This is not so. The fishery is not an American industry in the true sense of the term, for very few Americans are employed in it. It is really the instrument of an offensive and venal monopoly; the American people are needlessly taxed on their fish food to maintain it, and it may now precipitate a dangerous international entanglement. That nine-tenths of the crews of the Gloucester fishing fleet are foreigners is notorious. The fishing fleet would never put to sea if it had to depend upon native-born Americans to man it, for these will no longer take to fishing with less arduous employments available on shore. The crews are chiefly Canadians, Newfoundlanders, Scandinavians, and Portuguese. The Gloucester *News* of recent date, noting the return of the schooner *Aloha*, Capt. John McInnis, "one of the most noted codfish-killers that ever sailed from this port," observes that "the plucky and popular skipper is a native of West Bay, Cape Breton, while his fisher lads are the flower of Shelbourne County, Nova Scotia." Capt. Sol Jacobs, the prototype of "Captains Courageous," is a Newfoundlander, and American-born masters are as rare as American-born sailors. The alien-born skippers are supposed to be naturalized, and some are, but this is not indispensable, for a Newfoundland fishing-master was offered a vessel in Gloucester two years ago, and told, "All you've got to do is to go down to the custom-house and swear you're an American citizen."

DECLINE OF THE NEW ENGLAND FISHERIES.

The last canvass of the New England fisheries, made in 1899, published in the United States Fish Commissioner's Report for 1900, shows that the industry suffered a marked decline in ten years, the catch dropping from 653,170,000 to 393,457,000 pounds, or 39.76 per cent. The value only shrunk from \$10,550,000 to \$9,682,000, or 8.23 per cent., so the cost of this fish food to the American people therefore increased 31.53 per cent., though "Yankee" fishermen enjoyed the protection of a tax of $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound on all alien-caught fish. Says the report:

The fishing vessels of Massachusetts decreased 199, or 24 per cent., in number, and \$1,332,320, or 43 per cent., in value. The net tonnage has also decreased 48 per cent. An instance of the gradual decrease in vessels during the past ten years is furnished by the fishing fleet of Gloucester, Mass. From July, 1897, to November 15, 1898, 27 vessels were sold and 24 lost; in the same period, 11 vessels were purchased and 7 built,—the net decrease in the fleet in the $17\frac{1}{2}$ months being 33 vessels. The vessels sold and lost have generally been larger

than those taking their places, and the percentage of decrease in number has, therefore, not been so large as in value and tonnage. The decrease in boats is 25 per cent. in number and 30 per cent. in value, and in the value of the apparatus of capture, 44 per cent.

The truth really is, that the "New England Fisheries," as a fine-sounding phrase, only means nowadays the outfitters and shipowners engaged in the business, who play upon American patriotic sentiment to their own profit, and are even permitted to perpetrate an audacious fraud on the national treasury.

This fraud is effected through the American fishermen doing an extensive trade in herring every winter from Newfoundland. The Fish Commissioner's report, already quoted from, says on this point :

The herring fisheries furnish another instance in which the products are derived largely from waters outside the State jurisdiction, the Newfoundland herring fishery alone yielding about half the entire catch of this species. This fishery is apparently increasing in importance. In 1896, it was engaged in by 43 vessels from Gloucester, 3 from Beverly, and 1 from Provincetown. The quantity of fresh frozen herring and salted herring secured was 8,441,842 pounds, valued at \$117,649 ; and of salted herring, 1,807,575 pounds, valued at \$18,150. In 1898, the fleet had increased to 56 vessels,—51 from Gloucester, 2 from Beverly, and 3 from Boston. The quantity of fresh frozen herring obtained was 9,398,872 pounds, valued at \$197,490 ; and of salted herring, 5,545,199 pounds, valued at \$72,862,—a total of 14,944,071 pounds, valued at \$270,352.

EVADING THE DUTY ON HERRING.

Salted herring are used exclusively for food, and frozen herring also very largely. This herring industry occupies the winter months, when it is too stormy to fish on the Banks. The herring largely resort to the west coast of Newfoundland, and are netted, and salted, or frozen, by the coast folk, and sold to the American vessels, which come for cargoes. The United States fishermen have the treaty right themselves to take the fish there, but cannot do so profitably, and find it cheapest to buy them ; yet on taking them home, enter them as "the product of United States fisheries," and get them admitted free of duty. But if a Newfoundland vessel, with herring from the same place, takes them to the United States, she must pay three-quarters of a cent a pound. Still this fraud is trivial compared with that perpetrated over the herring brought from the southern seaboard, where the United States have no fishing rights. Many of the American vessels procure cargoes there. In this region United States vessels cannot fish at all, of right, but secure permits from the colonial government to purchase cargoes of herring, as on the western shore. Yet these fish, of

which there is not a pretense that they have been taken by American fishermen, or in American waters, are also granted free entry to the United States markets, while herring from the same nets, conveyed there in Newfoundland bottoms, are obliged to pay the duty. On the total shipments of Newfoundland herring in 1898, as given above, the duty would be \$112,000. The Treasury Department sent an agent to Newfoundland in 1895, who investigated the whole matter, and the department attempted to collect the duties, but the fishing interests involved had sufficient influence to procure the overruling of this decision and a continuance of the existing practice, which prevails to this day, and robs the United States Treasury of at least \$100,000 a year.

SHUTTING US OUT FROM NEWFOUNDLAND WATERS.

For the right to carry on this herring business the Newfoundlanders make no charge, though these are the only waters where herring are obtained in the winter. Part of the frozen-herring output goes to bait the Gloucester vessels fishing on the southern Banks, and in April these come north, when Newfoundland enforces the *modus vivendi*, and compels them to pay license fees ere they can obtain bait, outfits, or crews. The Bond-Hay treaty having failed, it is urged that not alone should the *modus vivendi* be abolished, but that the Americans should be deprived of the food-herring fishery privileges besides. They would thus be thrown back upon the treaty of 1818, the concessions under which are comparatively valueless to them now. When it was drafted there were large fisheries in the St. Lawrence Gulf, upon which the west coast fronts. At present the chief fishing is done on the Grand Banks, off the eastern coast ; the western seaboard, being remote from that, is worthless to the Americans even with its treaty rights, they having to rely for bait and landfall on the eastern shore, where they have no status except such as the *modus vivendi* grants them. Clearly, then, if that is canceled, they will be shut out from Newfoundland waters and deprived of all privileges, as theirs is a deep-sea fishery ; and as bait and outfits are necessary for the success of the enterprise, exclusion from these waters must leave them helpless and cripple their industry. These conditions also apply, though in a less degree, to the Canadian seaboard, as the bait supply there is small and the coast much farther from the Banks than Newfoundland, so the latter country holds the key to the whole position and overshadows Canada in the effecting of any arrangement. This she can do because she is an independent,

autonomous country, having an equal voice in the matter with Canada, and being able to veto any proposal not acceptable to herself.

If the Newfoundland government were to enforce its renowned Bait Act against the Americans, as it does against the French, and forbid its own fishermen to sell them herring for food or bait, the death-knell of the New England deep-sea fishing industry would be sounded. Though theoretically the Americans can fish on the western coast, it does not pay them in actual practice to attempt it. They only seek in the inshore waters bait or food herring. To capture these requires special appliances. The American fishing industry now is essentially a deep-sea one, and the apparatus employed therein is totally unsuited to the catching of bait. Thus, for the latter task an apparatus would have to be carried, not alone useless, but very inconvenient to the main enterprise. This increases the condition of dependence of the United States fishermen on Newfoundland in their annual seafaring operations.

A POSSIBLE INTERNATIONAL DISPUTE.

What invests this difficulty with special seriousness is that it may provoke an awkward complication between Great Britain and the United States. The New England fishermen try to deceive the American statesmen with the idea that the rejection of the Bond-Hay treaty disposes of the matter quietly, and for all time, as Newfoundland, finding she cannot obtain reciprocity, will accept the inevitable and allow the present state of things to continue. The very

contrary will result. The action of the United States Senate only serves to revive a contention the most vexatious that the British and American governments have had to deal with since the birth of the Republic. In a word, it will provoke a recrudescence of the Atlantic fisheries dispute, with all its prospects of embittering the relations between the two countries and bringing about such an international deadlock as would be regrettable at any time, but must become doubly unfortunate at the present juncture, when John Bull and Uncle Sam are on such satisfactory terms otherwise, as we see them to be.

The advocates of American "rights" seem to disregard the British position altogether, and forget that the compromise by which United States vessels now obtain bait and other concessions in these waters is merely a temporary one, arranged in 1888 for two years only, but renewed from season to season by Canada and Newfoundland in the hope of an abiding agreement being completed, though terminable by one or both of them at any time when it seemed evident that such an understanding was not possible. The steady refusal of the United States Senate to treat with Canada demonstrates that there is no hope of a compromise being reached in that quarter, and the rejection of the Newfoundland pact means that Britain and America will have another vexatious complication on their hands.

[NOTE.—Since this article was put in type the Newfoundland Legislature has enacted a law canceling the privileges hitherto enjoyed by the American fishermen under the *modus vivendi* and restricting them to their treaty rights alone.]

II.—THE AMERICAN VIEW.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

IT is not fair to New England, or true to recorded facts, to say that New England influence, and the influence of one single industry at that, has now alone defeated the plan, long cherished by far-seeing men, of reciprocity with Newfoundland. The Hay-Bond treaty in the form in which the United States Senate recently considered it was acceptable to the Maine and Massachusetts fishing interests. It had been so modified that cured and preserved fish was no longer on the free list, but fresh fish, uncured, was non-dutiable. This was not all that Newfoundland had desired, but it was an important concession to the ancient colony, for the fresh fish of Canada pays, in the United States, a

duty of three-fourths of a cent or a cent a pound. To admit cured and preserved fish also free of duty would inevitably transfer the packing establishments of the New England coast to Newfoundland, with its cheap labor, and thus destroy, not only the calling of those New Englanders who catch fish from the sea, but the calling of those who, on the land, put this fish through processes akin to manufacturing.

There are one hundred thousand persons in Maine and Massachusetts who are dependent, directly or indirectly, on the ocean fisheries. New England was willing to yield something for the certain commercial, and the possible political, advantages of reciprocity with New-

foundland. But New England was not willing to yield everything, to reduce a hundred thousand of her people to ruin, and to see her fishing fleets vanish like her deep-sea merchant fleets.

That was too much to ask; the price was excessive and intolerable. As the event proved, the only real concession to Newfoundland in the entire treaty was this concession of free fresh fish by the New England fishing interests. No other industry in competitive trade would grant anything at all. Yet so frank and genuine was the New England desire for reciprocity with Newfoundland that, in spite of the fact that the only real sacrifice on the American side of the treaty was made by New England interests, the only voices raised in the Senate for the treaty when the time for action came were the voices of Senator Hale, of Maine, and Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, champions of the fishermen and sailors of these two ocean commonwealths.

OPPOSED BY SOUTH AND WEST.

The treaty was torn to pieces, not by New England, but by the South and West. Senator after Senator arose to object to this or that clause and to demand consideration for his State's coal or iron interests or agriculture. Very soon the fisheries were forgotten. New England had made her concession all in vain; the treaty was doomed to rejection in any event. Maryland and Alabama and Minnesota did not know or care anything about the "French Shore;" they did not care whether Newfoundland was British or American; there was no appeal to them in the "larger statesmanship." They simply did not mean to have Newfoundland competing with their mines and farms, and after the first day's debate it was manifest that the Hay-Bond treaty and the fine hopes which inspired it awoke almost no response away from the North Atlantic coast line.

It is, therefore, a strangely illogical course which the Newfoundland government has seized of "punishing New England" for the rejection of the treaty. New England, as a matter of fact, seems to be almost the only section where the treaty has won any considerable interest and favor. Unquestionably, if Sir Robert Bond and his colleagues enforce the Bait Act against the Americans as they have long enforced it against the French, a serious blow will be dealt to the fishermen of Maine and Massachusetts. The Newfoundland threat to confiscate every American schooner found within the three-mile limit unless she can show that she did not procure her bait and supplies within the colony,—thus reversing an historic principle of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence and assuming that the accused are

guilty until they can prove innocence,—is a procedure more worthy of Fiji or Patagonia than of an English-speaking community in the North Atlantic. But it is altogether premature to boast that even this will destroy the New England fisheries. Our New England sea-folk are shrewd and tenacious men. Already schooners are being equipped with special appliances to catch their own bait, while long-mooted plans of supplying the fleets at sea from steam tenders may now be attempted. Newfoundland must not forget that there was never a commercial war which did not cut both ways. There will be desperate poverty on her coasts if her people are forbidden to sell their bait to the only fishermen who have the means to buy it.

THE VALUE OF THE FISHERIES.

Just as ill-founded as the assertion that New England alone killed the reciprocity treaty is the further statement that the New England fisheries are a fraud and a delusion,—that they are American only in name, and that the complete obliteration of this historic industry would be no loss to commerce or naval strength. The statistics of the New England fisheries show that a large majority of the men engaged in this calling are thorough Americans, native or naturalized. Nearly all of the seventeen thousand fishermen of Maine are native-born,—and it must be remembered that if foreign-caught fish crowd our markets the loss falls upon the boat-fishermen and the smaller craft as well as on the "Bankers."

Canada has taken the \$5,500,000 of the Halifax Award and turned its income into subsidies and bounties to her fishermen. The British Government, for the sake of its naval reserve, is fostering in every possible way the fishermen of Newfoundland. Meanwhile, six hundred men desert from our North Atlantic squadron at a single port because we are following Russia's blind policy and endeavoring to man our warships with men who lack that prime requisite of a sailor, the "sea habit." New England has stood by while her merchant ships have disappeared. She has lost most of her merchant seamen,—the best seamen that ever served in peace or war.

Is it strange that New England clings to her fisheries and is reluctant to part with her schooners and her crews, even for the benefit of Nova Scotia and of Newfoundland? She was willing to make a concession for the sake of the reciprocity treaty, and she did so,—the only real concession granted by any industry or any section. But sacrifice her fisheries she will not. Nor will the rest of the country ask it or permit it.

THE AMERICAN ACADEMY IN ROME.

BY F. D. MILLET.

FOR nine years the American Academy of Fine Arts in Rome has carried on its work quietly and without ostentation. The results have not only justified the cost of the experiment, but have established the fact of its great utility,—of its necessity, indeed, in the development of a high standard of taste and accomplishment among our artists. Its recent incorporation by act of Congress, the purchase of a villa for its permanent home in Rome, and the raising of a large endowment fund for its maintenance have called public attention to its existence and have stimulated public interest in its aims and its purposes. With the rise of this interest comes, naturally, the accompanying desire to know what has been done by it, and what it proposes to do, in the way of art education. Without going into details, it may be said that during the few years of its existence the Academy has chiefly devoted itself to the administration of a certain number of scholarships in architecture, sculpture, and painting, and has given to the beneficiaries in each of these branches the advantages of a residence in Rome, studios and other facilities for the pursuit of studies, and a limited but effective supervision or direction of these studies. The students who have gone through the regular courses and have profited by the immeasurable advantages of constant association with the great masterpieces of ancient art under competent and intimate direction have met with appreciative recognition on their return to this country, and by their success as artists have encouraged the continuance of the Academy, even under adverse conditions, until it has at last passed the experimental stage and is established on a permanent basis.

The Academy was started by a group of artists shortly after the close of the Chicago World's Fair of 1893, and has been supported by them since, sometimes with the assistance of a few friends, but oftener by their own contributions, which have been cheerfully and freely given for the cause of art. The struggle to keep the infant Academy on its feet has been at times severe, but the conviction of its great utility has been a constant stimulus to effort and a warrant for self-sacrifice. The simple statement that a small body of artists have carried this burden for so long a period is in itself sufficient to carry weight as an argument in

favor of that special training which the Academy affords.

THE NEED AS DISCERNED BY AMERICAN ARTISTS.

The project originated in the revival of the forgotten belief in the sound lessons of antique art, which was the most valuable result of the Chicago exhibition; in the revival, after a period of worship of ignorant originality and the perverted spirit of invention in modern art, of a sane and healthful respect and veneration for the masterpieces which have stood the test of time and have remained for centuries superior to caprice and fashion.

This revival was a natural reaction from a long period of almost hysterical scramble for novelty as an important element of value in art. In this period there flourished in a popular degree the apostles of intuition in art, the prophets of the easy way to fame and fortune, the scoffers of training and study. The result is seen in the productions of the period. Governmental architecture degenerated to the Mullett type, sculpture became anecdotal, historical painting had no followers, and mural decoration was a lost art. It was a widespread belief that knowledge fettered genius, that the artistic temperament was stifled if it was submitted to any rigorous training, that there were no rules and no canons of art except those which each individual in his heaven-born inspiration invented for himself. Meanwhile, the old sacred flame was kept alive by a comparatively small number of men in the artistic professions, and it is due to them that it now burns brightly again.

THE FRENCH INFLUENCE.

Much as we owe to France for her teaching in art, we must confess that from her came also the spirit of iconoclasm, which has long been the artist's bane. From her, in spite of the strong element of conservatism, which has fought a good fight for the old standards, came the adoration of originality, of novelty in technique, the indifference to idea and to ideals. The result has been, in France, that art has confessedly degenerated; witness the decorations in the Hotel de Ville, which as a lesson in discord runs a close second to the Congressional Library; witness, also, the annual exhibitions of the two salons.

We in this country have not advanced in art

as fast or as far as the talents of our young artists promised. Of the multitudes who have studied abroad, of the large number who have gained honors in the schools and the exhibitions there, a very small proportion have made good their reputation. It has long been remarked that the young men who have shown great brilliancy abroad seem to have lost their grip shortly after they returned home. This has been a strong argument, and one which has been used to some purpose, against the establishment of traveling scholarships. The reason for this falling from grace has been commonly attributed to the character of the art atmosphere, which is said to exist in an attenuated degree, if it really does exist at all; it has been attributed to the commercial spirit of the age, which has swamped every sentiment to which art can hope to appeal; it has been charged also to the busy, nervous, bustling life, which leaves no moment free from cares and worries of trivial occupations and makes meditation and quiet study impossible.

DEFECTIVE TRAINING OF OUR YOUNGER ARTISTS.

But the founders of the American Academy in Rome, artists all, discovered the *fons et origo* of the whole difficulty, and they recognized it through their own individual experience. They saw that the whole trouble lay in the training of the young artists, both in the superficial character of it and in the degree of it. The rudiments of the different branches of the artistic profession are taught as effectively in this country as anywhere else, although under somewhat different conditions. When the young artist goes abroad to continue his studies and enters a school there, he practically continues to work in the same direction, advancing only toward a better acquaintance with methods and processes, and not progressing definitely toward the recognition of the great principles which govern all art. This is not surprising, because, in the first place, he seldom stays long enough to emerge from the stage of incubation to that riper period of experience when he has such a command of his tools that he can forget them, when his effort is directed, not toward methods, but toward results, and, in the second place, from his environment, and from the influence of his associates, his ambition is turned toward the speedy achievement of popular success.

One reason for this is that aliens are not permitted to take advantage of the facilities for advanced education in art which are granted to a limited number of students by the different governments, and another reason is that for the most part our students abroad, not provided

with means for further study, even if they had the inclination and opportunity, find it necessary to turn their art to account in earning a livelihood.

Briefly and frankly, then, our young artists are only half educated. In this statement there must be taken into account the fact that they have not had the traditions of art as a birth-right, they have not had the inestimable privilege of intimate acquaintance with the masterpieces which are the glory of European countries, they have not had the stimulus which every foreign artist enjoys,—the consciousness that the profession of art is highly esteemed as an honorable and a worthy pursuit. On this latter point it may be as well to remark, in passing, that one has only to read the newspaper accounts of the presentation of portraits or the unveiling of statues to find out where the artist stands, for his name as the author of the works is rarely, very rarely, printed. Further, in any great function, when the politicians, the soldiers, the educators, the writers, are honored, it is seldom indeed that an artist, because he is an artist, is offered the distinction of an invitation. This may be trivial in weight of argument. Let us consider it only a straw.

THE DEMAND FOR ART CULTURE.

Those who declare that the commercial spirit of the age is responsible for the apparent neglect of art often add to this statement the opinion that art can flourish only in a monarchy. They forget Venice and Florence. Those who see in the busy turmoil of modern life no hope for thoughtful production have forgotten how art flourished in the Elizabethan age. It is not that we do not want art in this country, and the best art there is; our museums and our private collections settle this question at once. It is because we are only just beginning to demand of our artists that they be something more than followers of ephemeral fashions, that they show by their works that they have something in common with the great masters, something more than brush work, or skillful modeling, or the employment of the orders of architecture. They must show that they have ideas, that they have an appreciation of beauty, a love of distinction of style, and a sense of proportion. They must prove in their works that they have so far taken advantage of the accumulated experience of the past that they have instinctively avoided obvious faults, even if they have not actually invested their productions with the most eminent qualities. In fact, what we want in our artists is cultivation. That we must have, as has been well said, as a substitute for tradition.

CLOISTRATION AND TRAVEL.

What the Academy in Rome proposes to do is to provide the opportunity for an artist to cultivate himself,—to give him the advantages of clostration for a period long enough for him to absorb the ideals of the great art of the past, and to stimulate his imagination and his invention by diligent study and by close acquaintance with the masterpieces with which Rome abounds in overwhelming profusion. Rome has been selected because there, more than in any other place in the world, the allied arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting can be studied to the best advantage and under the most favorable circumstances, and the sister art of music can be studied to great profit. Besides the clostration, which consists of residence in the villa belonging to the Academy, with the uninterrupted pursuit of studies under competent and sympathetic direction, a certain amount of travel is also an important part of the curriculum. The period of travel varies, of course, according to the branch of the profession. Music, for example, which is one of the departments, as it is in various foreign academies, requires more study away from Rome than the other branches.

ADVICE, DIRECTION, AND STIMULUS.

The American Academy has been established, professedly, on the lines of the French Academy in the Villa Medici, which was founded in 1666, and which numbers in its long roll of honor the names of Duc, Ginain, Labrousse, Daumet, Duban, and Vaudremer among the architects; of David, Houdon, Falguière, Mercié, and Rude among the sculptors; of Boucher, Fragonard, David, Ingres, Flandrin, Baudry, Poussin, Gérôme, Besnard, Dagnan-Bouveret, and Regnault among the painters; of Massenet, Gounod, Meyerbeer, Berlioz, Bizet, Adam, Halévy, Saint-Saëns, and Thomas among the musicians. There is, however, one essential difference in the two institutions. The students in the French Academy carry on their work without supervision, the government relying on their singleness of purpose and their intelligence to follow their own tastes to the best advantage. The results of this system have not been altogether satisfactory, and the American Academy has established, as a principle of its management, that the beneficiaries in the different branches shall be advised and directed in their studies as far as practicable. The best that can be done in art education is to show a student what to look at, how to see, and how to study. The rest he must do for himself. He can be taught the mechanics of the profession. His taste can be developed and stimulated

by calling his attention to the qualities of fine works of art, but no one can teach him to produce those qualities in his own work. He must arrive at it by enriching his mind with the knowledge of what has been done in the past, and by perfect familiarity with the sources of all great art. It is the aim of the American Academy to furnish to the student exactly this kind of stimulus.

It will be understood that the course is, so to speak, a post-graduate one. It is not the province of the Academy to teach the rudiments of art. The beneficiaries will be selected by competition from among the best in the country, without regard to locality, and with a liberal age limit, so that a class of advanced students may be counted upon. They will receive a subsidy of sufficient amount to free them from the necessity of other pecuniary aid, and the courses of study will be so arranged that at the end of the period the student will at least have had the opportunity of developing everything there is in him which makes for progress in his profession.

AMERICA NO LONGER NEGLECTFUL OF ART.

It will doubtless be some years before the influence of the Academy will be felt as an important factor in the art of America. We are building for the future, and not for the present alone. The demand for competent and skillful, trained and cultivated, architects, sculptors, and painters increases with great rapidity. Sixteen cities in the United States are engaged in municipal improvements by the erection of monumental public buildings and by the orderly rearrangement of streets and avenues. Scarcely an edifice of any importance is now planned without consideration of its probable embellishment by sculpture and color decoration. The art treasures of the world are pouring into the country from the west and from the east in inconceivable profusion. This does not look as if art were being neglected. Perhaps it is the artists who are neglecting art.

Charles Gounod, who was a student in the French Academy in Rome when it was under the direction of Ingres, testified in his "*Mémoires d'un Artiste*" to the great advantages of study there, and in one sentence epitomized the sentiments of those who enjoyed the privileges of the institution. He wrote: "Let us guard with all our strength that sacred retreat which shelters the artist's growth, far away from an early subjection to the material needs of life, and fortifies him against the temptations of commercialism as well as against the commonplace triumphs of an ignoble and ephemeral popularity."

AMERICAN "RHODES SCHOLARS" AT OXFORD.

BY PAUL NIXON.

(Rhodes Scholar from Connecticut.)

[Under the terms of the bequest made by Cecil J. Rhodes, there are now in residence at Oxford University, England, forty-three American students who competed successfully last year in the examinations for scholarships. All but five of the States and Territories of the Union are thus represented. One of these American Rhodes Scholars, a grandson of Bishop Andrews, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and a graduate of the Wesleyan University, at Middletown, Conn., sets forth in the following letter some of his impressions after a term's residence at Balliol College. It will be noted that his comments are restricted, in the main, to a comparison of the scholastic equipment of the English Oxonians with that of their American colleagues. Other considerations might tend to modify Mr. Nixon's very generous concessions of superiority to the British students.]

IF one were to form his conclusions concerning Oxford life from the observation of Oxonians during a single term, and that the first, of "residence," those conclusions would inevitably be that wining, dining, and athletics were the English undergraduate's vocation, and his use of books and dons an heroically resisted avocation. To a certain degree this inference is correct. During term, the Oxonians are remarkably gregarious animals. I should say that in college the average student does not work three-fourths as hard as the average American collegian. The interminable breakfast and luncheon parties; the athletic games, in some one of which nearly every Englishman participates for two or three hours in the afternoon; the ensuing "teas," often protracted till the seven-o'clock bell summons host and guests to "dinner in Hall;" the hilarious evening "wines,"—all these, in addition to the ordinary informal calls on friends, consume a prodigious amount of time. While not every English undergraduate engages every day in every one of these social functions, the total number of hours so spent justifies my statement.

All this, if one were to summarize hastily, would induce one to believe that the American collegian must imbibe more learning than the Oxonian of the same formal standing, or that the Oxonian must possess some quicker insight into the mysteries of knowledge.

Luckily, the horns of the apparent dilemma may be avoided. If it were not so, the situation would be rather objectionable to one party or the other. We Americans are finding trouble enough already in keeping our heads above the scholastic stream here without the influx of any such new tributary; and the Englishman,—well, the Englishman likes as little as we do to admit his inferiority in any respect to any creature on earth.

WORK-TIME AND VACATION TRANSPOSED.

There is, however, a consideration that impairs the value of such a delightfully simple logical deduction. Roughly, the American's work-time, the college term, is the Englishman's slightly interrupted play-time; but the American's play-time, the vacation, is the Englishman's slightly interrupted work-time. During his eight months or more of term, the average collegian in the United States may get in something like six, seven, or eight hours' study a day, including lectures and recitations which he must attend; during the vacations, he earns money, "kills time,"—does everything but "read," in the Oxford sense of the word. The average Oxonian, not usually obliged to attend many lectures, having practically no recitations and only three real examinations during his three, four, or five years' course, spends his six months of term in cultivating the amenities of life, with only a two or three hours' daily dab at the dusty tomes on his shelf. But during the long vacations, covering more than half the year, that Oxonian, free from financial care and surfeited with "slacking," sows his seed for the harvest of knowledge which he is expected by his tutor to stow away in the barns of "Colleckors,"—certain informal but detested examinations awaiting him on his return to college. Eventually, then, throughout the year, English and American collegians study approximately the same number of hours.

THE ENGLISHMAN'S SUPERIORITY IN GENERAL CULTURE.

Although this is so, and although the radical differences between the educational pursuits of the two countries afford us some solace in puzzling the Englishmen to ascertain our intellectual avoirdupois, the conviction is being pungently forced upon us Rhodians that in many

respects the amount of information we've assimilated is not to be compared with that of the brighter of our cousins. It is a fact that in general reading the more studious Oxonian has us at his mercy; in every form of classical scholarship except that of painstaking investigation of minute obscurities, a favorite pastime in Germany and America, we are "down and out." The ordinary American collegian, maybe, has heard such names as Murillo and Titian. He's an exception if even the names come to his mind spontaneously. If he should be asked whether they were sculptors or painters, he'd probably think it a "catch" question, and answer, "musicians." I don't think I'm slandering the American "Rhodes Scholars" when I say that not one in five of us could tell the difference between a Raphael and a Guido Reni, and I'm sure that previous to this vacation not one in ten could have spoken intelligently of a dozen, or even half-a-dozen, great painters. The Englishman can; nor does he stop with a dozen. In knowledge of artists, ancient and modern, and in appreciation of their productions, we American collegians, as a class, are immeasurably inferior to the Oxonians. Sculpture and sculptors, and, in a less degree, perhaps, music and musicians, are comparatively *terre incognite* to us. Even our college glee-club members are occasionally unable to tell how Mozart differs from Wagner, while, so far as the majority of our collegians can say, Michael Angelo and Damp't might have been compatriots, contemporaries, and compeers. The Englishman can usually tell a better story; and his information is not exhausted at precisely that advanced stage, either.

WHY THE ENGLISH BOY IS BETTER READ.

Our first deficiency, then, a comparative scantiness of general reading,—how are we to account for it? At least three possible reasons occur to me, the last of which also partly explains our professed classicists' inferiority in the classics. In the first place, the vast majority of Oxonians are the sons of men well situated financially and socially (and in England the possession of these two *desiderata* often implies a certain amount of scholarship),—men whose houses contain large libraries. The son has from youth had, at least, the omnipresent opportunity to browse. This is by no means so frequently the case in the homes of American collegians. Secondly, the Oxonian is not the offspring of one of that numerous class of fathers in the United States who believe that their youngsters should work with their hands as well as play, and accordingly set them tasks to perform about the house and

grounds. The American boy does the work, and then hunts up the "gang," to engage in the game of baseball, or what not, that boy nature demands. The English boy, the prospective Oxonian, has his play, and then naturally relapses into an easy-chair in the library and picks up some novel (probably not a "popular" one), without having consumed a couple of hours of his day in currying a horse, pulling weeds, or raking the lawn. Undoubtedly we get something out of our manual labor that the Englishman's mind or body or general nature lacks, but it isn't knowledge of books.

THE LACK OF CONCENTRATION IN AMERICAN EDUCATION.

The third and chief reason for the Oxonian's greater breadth of general reading is connected with his superiority to our collegiate classicists in the classics, and its causes. We irritably ask ourselves how it is that these Oxonians can allude with such exasperating frequency to books and authors of whom we have hitherto remained in blissful ignorance. Part of the answer is found when an American refers to a chemical formula, physical law, or mathematical principle. The same dull stare of abysmal ignorance,—rarely the same attempt to veil that ignorance in a knowing smile,—that we had worn when the books and authors were under discussion instantly clothes the Englishmen's countenances. From their early days at Harrow, Eton, and Rugby till now, those Englishmen have been expected by their tutors to join their almost exclusive reading of classical literature in school with its natural complement, modern literature, out of school. From our early days in the public or private schools at home, we have been "taught" nearly everything under the face of the sun, from "Ring around a rosie" to botany. A smattering of nearly every form of knowledge has been thumped into us, and, like most smatterings, has oozed out through our cranial pores or such exits as my own smattering of psychology does not allow me technically to name.

Swamped by a great number of subjects, in his pre-collegiate days especially, such as a juvenile form of astronomy and geology, the American boy is apt to become temporarily interested in one and then another of these studies, and to devote his odd hours to out-of-school reading on his momentary hobby rather than to reading Scott, Dickens, or Thackeray. This is all very well if he has any decided taste for one or two of these subjects which may develop with advancing years. Such is often the case, to be sure, but far oftener he loses his puerile interest in successive ephemeral favorites; forgets all

but the last; and, finally, discovers his life-work without having the knowledge of literature that attends so naturally a more confined field of study in which the literature of the ancients is the most prominent feature. The difference between the English and American systems of, especially, preparatory education, then, seems to me a fairly reasonable third cause for our first deficiency.

THE ENGLISHMAN'S GROUNDING IN THE CLASSICS.

To come to our closely allied frailties in the classics. The classical scholars in America may be roughly divided into two species,—those who have studied their subject in the German manner and those who have studied more according to the English method. Both kinds are experiencing certain discomfiting sensations at Oxford.

The "smattering" education we have received in our home schools is their origin. We have not really begun our classical work soon enough to be on a par with the Oxonian. The Englishman does not get glimmerings of countless subjects throughout his pre-collegiate days or in college. What he gets first he keeps getting repeated doses of, and at the completion of his university course in *Littere Humaniores* he is saturated with literature, philosophy, history, and economics, ancient and modern. Within these bounds,—not such narrow bounds, after all,—he thoroughly dwarfs us "classical" Rhodians. Moreover, whether because we are an unrepresentative body of American collegians or because the human mind refuses to retain "smatterings," we are often led to doubt the scholastic value of our fleeting glimpses of vast subjects of which the Englishman never hears in school.

Of course, it is rather consoling, when overborne by references to Aristotle's theory of Peripeteiai, Sardou's latest play, Pindar's Fourth Pythian, or Shakespeare's Sixteenth Sonnet, to be able to ask the paralyzed Briton to pass the N^oC, to work in an allusion to Boyle's law, or craftily to mystify him by a casual quotation of some formula in analytic geometry. The trouble is that we American "classicists," forced to get these inklings of many subjects which we never enjoyed and never mastered, but upon which we have spent an unconscionable amount of time, are haunted by the disturbing reflection that we've forgotten nearly every chemical formula save this one, reserved for state occasions, that we couldn't to save our lives clearly define Boyle's law, and that analytic geometry means nothing to us but a hazy array of once-memorized pages; while the Englishman, having passed un-

trammled years in mastering just the subjects that appeal especially to us, but which we have not had so much time to absorb, could probably discourse for hours on Peripeteiai, could compare Sardou with Pinero and Sudermann in detail, could quote much of the Pindaric ode in question and point out its excellences and defects in comparison with odes of Milton, Gray, and Cowley, and could edify us with an extemporaneous harangue on the sonnet.

Perhaps this statement of the case is a trifle exaggerated. We don't tell the Oxonian that our knowledge of mathematics and the sciences is pitifully limited to such learned terms as those quoted, and it is just possible that there are still a few things which he does not know about the matters in which his profundity seems unfathomable. In general, however, this version is not the delusion of a despairing admirer; the Englishmen are far ahead of us "classicists" in our own particular field, owing to their long, consistent training in just this department, while our early study at home has been scattered over a wide range of subjects which, we must reluctantly admit, have made no lasting impression upon our minds.

This, I say, is the position of our classical students, as a whole, in relation to the Oxonian classicists. (I should have stated previously that my use of the term "Oxonians" in this discussion has been limited to the majority of Oxonians, who are reading for the classical "Schools," and does not include the comparatively few scientific students.) The position of the small number of our classicists, trained during their senior year and during their graduate years in colleges at home according to the German method, has some additional features. These men are handicapped even more than we English-method scholars, in their general classical knowledge, from having devoted much time to such detailed study, and here they have little opportunity to display their talent for this microscopic inquiry.

THE AMERICAN EQUIPMENT IN SCIENCE AND LAW.

The situation of the one or two scientists in our number, and of our prospective lawyers, is not so disheartening as that of our classical and literary students, yet even they are somewhat out of touch with the Oxonians by reason of their lack of the more thorough ancient and modern literary-historical-philosophical education of the Englishmen. The scientist is the better off of the two. He doesn't profess or need much knowledge of the classics; neither does the Oxonian scientist. But it must be remembered that a considerable study of classical

literature, philosophy, and history precedes and is necessary to even the scientists' admission to the university. Our American scientists, to be sure (those who are in Oxford), have done enough of classical work to enable them to pass the Oxford entrance examinations, but this amount is usually much less than that done by the Oxonian scientist. So, among his scientific Oxonian acquaintances he is apt to be a silent partner in conversation where classical knowledge is called into requisition. In his general reading, too, he is ordinarily behind the English scientist. But in his own field, science, he is likely to find that he really knows more,—not merely pretends to know more, as does the American classicist, with his forgotten "smattering" of science,—than his English co-workers, much of whose time has been spent in obtaining a rather limited knowledge, but yet more than a "smattering" of classics. The American, however, has to reconcile himself to the fact that there are relatively few Oxonian scientists to startle by his superiority, and that Oxford is distinctly inferior to the best American institutions in its scientific equipment. I should say, then, in brief, that our scientists are better informed than the English scientific students in their particular field, but have not quite the same breadth of scholastic attainments.

A large number of the Rhodians from the United States are studying law. The Oxford law school admits only men who have taken their degree in arts. This fact has afforded our incipient lawyers the same embarrassment that we classicists feel. The Oxonian law student is a man who has usually either read exclusively for the "School" of *Literæ Humaniores* or for the "History School." The former is this combined study of ancient and modern history, economics, philosophy, and classical literature, which the additional reading of modern literature so readily follows. The latter, a constantly more popular "School," though still less distinctively Oxonian than the first, is, as the name signifies, historical,—political and economic. Our American law students have, as scholastic information to pit against this formidable equipment, their pre-collegiate and collegiate "smatterings," which are valuable to them in their profession if they remember them,—which is usually not the case, I fear. They also have such accumulations of facts as their ordinarily diversified courses in their home colleges have afforded. This is the extent of their scholastic preparation; and our relative *scholastic* status,—not the more comprehensive *mental* status, be it remembered,—is all I am discussing.

THE OXONIAN'S INTEREST IN POLITICS.

Although I have tried to confine myself as nearly as possible to the scholastic side of the Oxonian's mentality, I wish to touch upon another. In the "common rooms" of the different colleges, and at the Oxford Union, are all the leading English newspapers, and every day these, or personally bought papers, are carefully perused by seemingly all the undergraduates. The keenest sort of interest in British politics is manifested, and each succeeding phase is closely watched. Oxford, of course, has now, as it has had in time past, within its walls men who are to shape England's future; and these men, whether through birth or taste likely to enter public life, endeavor,—so far as reading goes,—to understand the internal condition of their country and its relations with other nations. (Such a class of collegians, already more or less definitely marked as the politicians of the next generation, exists here, a fact which seems odd to an American.) But the interest in state affairs does not stop with this body of men. A large number of students are fitting themselves for the civil-service examinations; and these men, too, narrowly observe the political, economic, and social situation of their country from day to day. Even here the careful reading of the papers does not end. The great mass of students who are reading for the classical "Schools" subjects which the American often derides seem to turn, quite as a matter of course, from Demosthenes to Chamberlain's latest speech,—or, rather, from the latter to Demosthenes,—for knowledge of current affairs is evidently considered to be of paramount importance. The history students, also, keep in touch with history in the making.

One cannot but compare this practice with that of the American undergraduates. At home, we have, of course, no such class of prospective politicians known during their college career, and by virtue of their college career, as almost certain to play a large part in ruling their country. With the evils of such a condition we also lose the benefit,—the having a number of intelligent, well-educated men who have been from youth afforded a special incentive to making themselves acquainted with their country's government, its internal and external relations, and its needs. The second class, also, of collegians particularly interested in current affairs we lack. My own experience leads me to believe that most of our students catch only a glimpse of the headlines of a daily paper,—if that, with the exception of the sporting news, which collegians everywhere read avidiously,—and have a correspondingly hazy notion of the significance of passing events.

THE CHURCH-UNION MOVEMENT IN CANADA.

BY THE REV. J. P. GERRIE.

THE progress of church union in Canada is interesting and suggestive. Thirty years ago the different sections of the Presbyterian Church were united, and to-day nearly the whole of Presbyterianism is ranged under one banner. Eight years later the Methodist, the Methodist Episcopal, the Primitive Methodist, and the Bible Christian churches came together as the Methodist Church, which, with very few exceptions, embraces the entire Methodism of Canada. The Baptists are also one body, and have never been separated, as they are in the United States and other lands. The denominations are therefore practically one among themselves, and this augurs well for the wider union now considered by the Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists.

This movement dates back many years in friendly good-will, fraternal exchanges, and resolutions and standing committees of annual gatherings, but it was not until the quadrennial conference of the Methodist Church in September, 1902, that anything practical was done. At that time a letter was addressed to the two other bodies, but for nearly eighteen months nothing more was done, when an informal conference was held in Toronto. It was then agreed to call meetings of the separate denominational committees, and subsequently a joint meeting of the committees. This joint meeting was held in the same city in April, 1904, and was an historic gathering. After an earnest and varied discussion, the meeting unanimously committed itself to union as both desirable and practicable, and referred the matter to the annual gatherings in June.

The Presbyterian Assembly meeting first took the matter into thorough and sympathetic consideration, and appointed a large committee to deal with the question. A week later, the Congregational Union did likewise, and were supported in their action by the Maritime churches in their gathering a few weeks afterward. The Methodists, inasmuch as their general gathering would not be held for two years more, had recourse to the constitutional power of the Conference, and named a committee corresponding with the committees of the other denominations.

The next stage in the movement was a three days' conference separately and jointly of these committees in Toronto in December last. That conference will long be memorable. The dis-

cussions were frank, cordial, and earnest, and a significant fact was the part taken in them by the older men, who might naturally be regarded as inseparably wedded to their own church life and thought. Among these, however, union found some of the most earnest and enthusiastic advocates, and in consequence there can be no misgivings about the reality of the movement. Five representative sub-committees were appointed to deal with questions of doctrine, polity, the ministry, administration, and law.

That these committees have great difficulties to meet must be admitted. It is one thing to talk about and resolve on union and quite another to make out a common acceptable basis. Much has been done, but the real problem is yet to be faced, though there are good reasons for believing it can be satisfactorily solved. For years the three denominations have been coming closer together, and the points of difference are often in theory rather than in practice. The Congregational churches have long been seeking closer coöperation through their district associations and other organizations. Standing committees are regularly appointed, through which help and counsel can be obtained as occasion may demand. Instances—apart from ordination to the ministry—are quite common where ministers and churches have refused to act in important matters without the counsel and sanction of the associations. On the other hand, both the Presbyterians and the Methodists show a marked approach toward Congregationalism in the self-management of their congregations, and in the advisory rather than in the authoritative in the deliverances from their church courts. This movement toward centralization on the one hand and the recognition of democracy on the other will greatly help in reaching a basis of union.

Nor should the question of creed present any insuperable barrier, as there is an unwritten one which in reality represents the theological position of the three denominations. By this is meant that the regularly accepted denominational standards do not control doctrinal conclusions, which are as varied in the churches possessing them as in those without them. In all three bodies are representatives of both the conservative and the radical schools, opponents and advocates of higher criticism, and men with diverging views on other great questions

of doctrine and theology. The unwritten creed covers the great essential facts of a common religion, but leaves doctrines of baptism, inspiration, evolution, and other debated questions to the individual mind and conscience. There should, therefore, be a readiness to put aside standards as authoritative which are inconsistent with this liberty of thought and belief. Unless this be done there can be no general or permanent union, and in doing so recognition will simply be made of the doctrinal attitude of each of the three bodies as it is to-day. It should be easy then to formulate a statement covering the essential position of the churches, and around which the fullest liberty of thought and conscience will be possible.

But a difficulty seemingly far more serious in the minds of some has arisen in connection with the famous Free-Church decision in Scotland. Might not a minority of any one of the uniting denominations hold back and subsequently claim the property of that denomination? This question is asked, and some hear an affirmative answer which, for them, effectually bars church union. The cases, however, are not parallel. In Canada there is no Church and State connection, as in the old land. And more, there is a precedent which shows the impossibility of such a crisis as the Scottish one. After the Presbyterian union in 1875, seven ministers of the Old Kirk, who stayed out, claimed that the unionists were seceders, and that to themselves belonged the large property of the Old Kirk Synod. A legal battle forthwith began, which resulted in setting aside the provincial legislation secured in Quebec for union. The united church then carried the matter to the Dominion Parliament, and obtained legislation upholding the union, which at the same time provided for the individual interests of the minority. Like legislation could be obtained again if needed. At any rate, the committees on union are going forward, fully assured that if there be any difficulty it can be easily overcome.

Out in the field and among the general following of the churches greater hindrances will be found. There is a conservatism which clings to the old name, forms, and dogma. Prejudices linger with good people up and down the land, and these may be found harder to deal with than diverging views on polity and doctrine. Already murmurs are heard that "we will have none of union," but these so far are few in number and not very formidable in tone. Time, however, is working great changes. Union holiday arrangements are becoming more common, in which churches of the different denom-

inations unite, one minister taking the first month and the other the second. The subject is favorably discussed from pulpit and platform as never before. The regular denominational papers are opening their columns to a free and frank consideration of the subject. The *Westminster*, a strong and influential undenominational magazine, is in the field, doing good service by occasional articles on union, and in the regular "Church Chronicle and Comment" department, in which the life and thought of the five principal denominations are dealt with in every issue. The leading daily papers, such as the *Montreal Witness* and the *Toronto Globe and News*, have given wide attention to the movement. Before all these influences and agencies the walls of prejudice and bigotry must come down and give place to a united church which will be a triumph for Christianity, not only in Canada, but in the world.

The benefits of union will be many and varied. In the denominational publications, some of which are good and others far from what is desired, there should come a wonderful improvement. A first-class paper, equal to the best in the world, could be easily obtained. To educational work there would come a great economy of men and means, as well as untold progress in efficiency and power. As an example, let one great college be substituted in Montreal for the three which now stand side by side, overlapping one another in the greatest part of their curricula, and it is easy to imagine the immense benefits which would come to ministerial education. The overlapping in the ministry everywhere apparent would become a thing of the past. It is no uncommon thing to find in villages of a few hundred inhabitants these three and other denominations where ministers have two or three more outside appointments, and in filling them are often obliged to travel much the same ground. One strong church where the three now stand, with a more capable and better maintained ministry, would add incalculably to the moral and spiritual well-being of the community, which the present divided and oftentimes inefficient forces are unable to do. A response could be made to the great and rapidly growing west, where the demand for men and money far exceeds the supply. Foreign missionary enterprises would receive an impetus not now accorded them, and enlargements made on every side. Nor is it unreasonable to suppose that union in Canada would have its influence on denominations in other lands, and help in bringing about a corporate union for their common Christianity.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE CENTENARY OF SCHILLER'S DEATH.

SCHILLER died on May 9, 1805. One hundred years later, he is recognized as one of the few really great poets of the world. In the main, his message still rings true to our ears and to our hearts. The German magazines are full of Schiller articles, chiefly biographical, and the press of the rest of the world is also eloquent. In the *North American Review*, Dr. Wolf von Schierbrand has an interesting and sympathetic appreciation of Schiller, whom he regards as preëminently the national German poet, the favorite of German youth and German women. The popular notion that Goethe holds the first place among German poets is, he maintains, disproved by the fact that millions more of Schiller's works have been sold than of those of any other German writer. Schiller's dramas are always on the stage, and quotations from Schiller are found on every German tongue.

Goethe has never been "popular" in Germany, though a few of his works have been. He has always been, and he remains to-day, the poet of the select few; and not only Heine, but such second-rate stars as Uhland, Theodor Körner, Kleist, Hauff, have been, during nearly all this time, successfully vying with him for the prize of popularity. If ever a poet could be termed "national," in the broadest sense of that word, it is Schiller.

Schiller was the poet who, until the German Empire was unified, inspired the whole of the German nation.

The Schiller conception of the world: his notion of country, home, and family, of love, honor, and duty; his belief in the brotherhood of man, the oneness of the universe, and the inherent goodness of the human heart; his idea of divine government,—these things, within a decade of the poet's death, became part and parcel of the German soul.

After the war, Schiller was dethroned, and nearly every young German deemed himself a Bismarck, a disciple of Nietzsche. During the last fifteen years, this false god has been dethroned. "Once more the German people, high and low, recognize in him the poet who most admirably expresses the German soul at its best, the national consciousness at its truest." It is somewhat sad to remember that although the German nation has almost deified Schiller since his death, he spent his life in extreme poverty

When the Körners offered him an asylum in Dresden for a time, in 1785, he was almost at starvation point: this was the time when he wrote his magnificent "Song



JOHANN FRIEDRICH CHRISTOPH SCHILLER.

to Joy," as well as his "Don Carlos." When Goethe secured for him a professor's chair of history in Jena the salary was 200 thalers (about \$145) a year. In those days, and until his death, apples and strong coffee had become his inexpensive passion. The apples he usually kept in a drawer of his writing-desk, and their odor, he claimed, furnished him inspiration. When he wrote his last, and perhaps most finished, drama, "William Tell," a year before the end came, he was so overworked and badly nourished that at night he kept himself from falling asleep at his work by munching apples and steeping his bare feet in cold water. When he wrote his "Fiesco," while a fugitive at Mannheim, he lived joyously on a diet of potatoes—potatoes baked, boiled, fried; potatoes, of which he had bought a cartload from a peasant, and which with their bulk took up about half the floor space in his garret. No wonder his health broke down! Even Chatterton affords no more pathetic spectacle. Abject penury was Schiller's portion through life.

Schiller's Modern Significance.

"Schiller's Message to Modern Life" is discussed by Prof. Kuno Francke in the *Atlantic Monthly* (May). However widely opinions may differ as to the greatness of Schiller the writer,

the thinker, the historian, or even the poet, says Professor Francke, "there can be no difference of opinion as to the greatness of Schiller the apostle of the perfect life." The central idea of Schiller's literary activity, continues this writer, is bound up with his conception of the beautiful.

Beauty was to him something vastly more significant than the empirical conception of it as a quality exciting pleasurable emotions implies. It was to him a divine essence, intimately allied, if not synonymous, with absolute goodness and absolute truth. It was to him a principle of conduct, an ideal of action, the goal of highest aspiration, the mark of noblest citizenship, the foremost remedy for the evils besetting an age which seemed to him depraved and out of joint. Art was to him a great educational force, a power making for progress, enlightenment, perfection; and the mission of the artist he saw in the uplifting of society, in the endeavor to elevate public standards, in work for the strengthening, deepening, and—if need be—remodeling, of national character.

Unfortunately, Schiller felt that his ideal could be attained only in direct opposition to the spirit of the age. The eighteenth century was too narrow and shallow for the development of an harmonious, well-rounded, inner life.

To Schiller, life appeared as an unending opportunity for penetrating into the essence of things, for finding the unity lying back of the contrasts of the universe, of matter and spirit, of instinct and reason, and for expressing this unity in the language of art; striving for inner harmony, for oneness with self and the world, was to him the supreme task of man.

Schiller's conception of art, says Professor Francke, further, if carried out, would revolutionize our conceptions of to-day. How different, he asks, would the American stage be to-day if the managers of all our theaters worked for the elevation of the public taste instead of most of them being driven by the desire for private gain?

How different our literature would be if every writer considered himself responsible to the public conscience, if the editors of all our newspapers and magazines considered themselves public educators; how different our whole intellectual atmosphere would be if the public would scorn books, plays, pictures, or any works of human craft, which did not make for the union of our spiritual and our sensuous strivings; if, in other words, the cultivation of beauty had come to be acknowledged, as Schiller wanted it to be acknowledged, as a duty which we owe, not only to ourselves, but also to the community and the country; if it had come to be a regulative force of our whole social life.

In the same number of the *Atlantic*, Mr. William Roscoe Thayer considers "Schiller's Ideal of Liberty." This ideal love of liberty, he declares, accounts for the vitality of Schiller's reputation, which is one of the noblest factors in German literature.

Goethe overtops him in almost every field, and Heine surpasses him in lyric perfection, and yet it is Schiller, and neither Goethe nor Heine, whom the German people have taken into their hearts and foreigners have agreed to honor as the spokesman of many of the finest traits in the German nature.

Other American magazines contain Schiller articles, among the most notable being Dr. J. Perry Worden's paper on "The Personality of Schiller," in the *Outlook*. The significance of this German idealist-poet is set forth by the *Outlook* in this editorial paragraph:

The country of great thinkers and dreamers [Germany] has become, like the rest of the modern world, a resounding workshop; its energies are dedicated chiefly to-day to dealing with the material needs of man. But though the times have changed and for the moment or for the century the emphasis of interest lies elsewhere, nevertheless Schiller, like all the other idealists, will have the final word to say. Society will not achieve the idealism of which he dreamed by the paths which he marked out. The course is to be more arduous than he foresaw; for society must achieve its ideal organization, not by escaping from the real, but by mastering it. The hope and inspiration of the idealist of to-day is his belief that in dealing on a great scale with material realities men are testing to the full the capacity of those realities to satisfy the human soul, and, having mastered them, will ultimately put them under foot and find, as Schiller found and taught, that the only real joy in life is the joy of the spirit.

Some interesting Schiller reminiscences appear in *La Revue*, contributed by C. A. S. de Gleichen, a descendant of the poet. Madame de Staël's judgment of Schiller, says this writer, has never been equaled or surpassed by any biographer of the poet. She wrote:

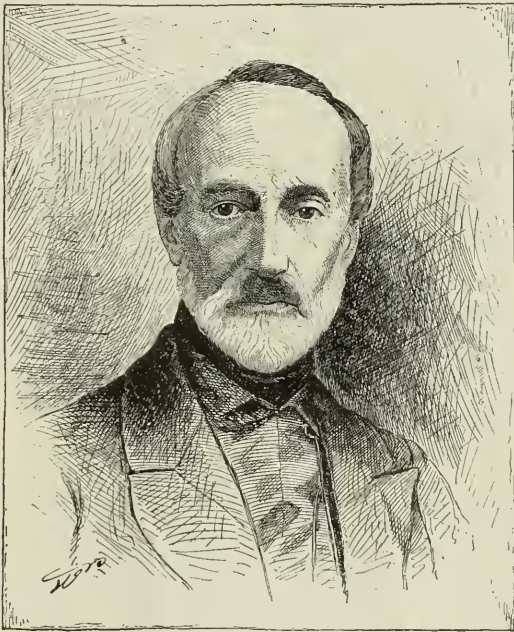
Schiller was a man of rare genius and perfect good faith. No career is more beautiful than the literary career when it is followed as Schiller followed it. He was admirable for his virtues as well as his talents. His conscience was his muse. His writings were himself; they expressed his soul, and he did not conceive it possible to change a single expression if the inner thought which inspired it had not changed. He lived, he spoke, he acted, as if the wicked did not exist, and when he depicted them in his works it was with more exaggeration than if he had really known them.

The writer recalls the interesting mark of sympathy accorded to Schiller by the revolutionary government at Paris in nominating him a French citizen. The document was wrongly addressed, and did not reach the author of "The Robbers" till October, 1793! He acknowledged it as a document from the dead, for Danton and Clavière signed it, a letter accompanying it bore the signature of Roland, and Custine had charge of it during his first German campaign; and all were dead before the document reached its destination.

THE CENTENARY OF JOSEPH MAZZINI.

JOSEPH MAZZINI, the Italian patriot, was born in Genoa, June 22, 1805. It is proposed to celebrate his centenary by public festivals and national demonstrations in many European cities. A brief sketch of Mazzini is contributed to the London *Review of Reviews* by Mr. D. T. Davies, and from this sketch we glean the following facts :

Mazzini ranks with Garibaldi and Cavour in the great trio of Italian liberators. Mazzini and Garibaldi, unlike Cavour, were both exiled from their native country,—the one compulsorily, the other voluntarily,—to escape the consequences of their liberal views. Mazzini was of middle-class parentage, Garibaldi was a son of the people, and Cavour's lineage was noble. Mazzini's



JOSEPH MAZZINI.

father was a distinguished professor of anatomy in the University of Genoa, and his mother was known for beauty of both person and character. Delicate health interrupted Mazzini's earlier studies. He deserted the study of anatomy for literature. However, he took his degree at the University of Genoa, and practised as an advocate gratuitously for the poor. Because he was a member of the Carbonari, the largest secret society of Europe, the government banished him from the larger towns of Italy. As police supervision in the smaller towns, at that time, was intolerable, Mazzini went to Marseilles, where he

wrote the series of pamphlets which were secretly smuggled into Italy, where to be found with a Mazzini pamphlet meant imprisonment for life, or banishment, or being shot in the back as a traitor. Compelled to leave France, he lived for a time in Switzerland, and later in London, where he experienced the bitterest pangs of poverty.

In 1848, Garibaldi accepted Mazzini's invitation to return to fight for Italy. The following year saw the short life of the Roman republic, with Mazzini as chief triumvir and Garibaldi as second leader of the forces. The French sought to capture the Imperial City, but without success. An armistice was agreed upon, but the French treacherously broke it, and, after surprising the troops of the republic, occupied the city. Finally, after a twenty years' fight, in which Cavour played a deep diplomatic game alternately with Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Louis Napoleon, the year 1870 saw Italy free at last and Victor Emmanuel king of the united country.

But the man who had been chief in its accomplishment, who had spread broadcast those writings which electrified the youth of Italy, who had sown the seed of which Garibaldi reaped the harvest, only to be gathered in by Cavour—Mazzini—remained an exile from the country he had created. Estranged from home, from parents, from friends—even from Garibaldi—he occasionally visited the scenes he loved, but only in disguise. At one time he traveled as an old woman; another time he might be seen dressed as a Capuchin friar; yet again, when a ship was overhauled, none of the searchers suspected that the man they sought was washing crockery in the cook's galley. On one occasion, disguised as a footman, he opened the door of a house to the police who came to arrest him. Sometimes he traveled as an English gentleman, but his favorite disguise was the dress of a dean of the English Church, with his shovel hat and gaiters.

Mazzini at heart was a republican, and he had not felt that he could take a vow of allegiance to a king, although he had been elected to the Italian Parliament. His main contention was for Italian unity, after which the people might select their own form of constitution. He died at Pisa, on March 10, 1872, and eighty thousand people followed his remains to the grave. He was buried in the Campo Santo, Genoa, where a statue was recently erected to his memory, and where also a Mazzini Museum is to be found.

In spite of his refugee existence, he yet found time to give the world those admirable writings which have charmed all who read them. Lumi-

nous were the essays which came from his pen, dealing with art, music, Victor Hugo, Lamennais, Byron, Goethe, Carlyle, Renan, and Dante. In these he exhibited a philosophic and deeply thoughtful tone, with phrases finely turned. Possessing a taste for setting his moral truths in epigrammatic form, his message is attractive, and he never hurls at us those vague and nebulous sentences which are the delight of so many philosophers. Had he never been inspired with the dream of nationality, his genius as a literary critic would alone have won him world-wide recognition.

Mr. Davies embodies in a paragraph some of the comments on Mazzini that have been made by eminent writers :

It is a fine tribute to his character that one class claims him as preëminently a religious teacher ; that

another regards him as supreme in the world of literature ; that a third claims him as the modern genius of political philosophy ; while a fourth ignorantly and vulgarly writes him down as a conspirator and an associate of assassins. To Carlyle he was "a man of genius and virtue, a man of sterling veracity, humanity, and nobleness of mind." To Jowett he had "a genius beyond that of most ordinary statesmen," and he prophesied that Mazzini's fame would increase when that of contemporary statesmen had passed away. Swinburne sang him into undying fame in his "Song of Italy." Mr. George Meredith clothed him with eternal glory in his fine novel "Vittoria," and so competent a judge as Mr. John Morley has pronounced him as "probably the highest moral genius of the century." Italy intends to recognize her indebtedness to him by the issue of a national edition of his writings, and a royal commission appointed for the purpose has recently issued a circular asking for letters to be forwarded to the secretary, Signor Mario Menghini, at the *Biblioteca Vittorio Emmanuele*, Rome.

WILL THE RUSSIAN CHURCH BE FREED FROM THE BUREAUCRACY?

A REMARKABLE historic document of capital religious importance to the Russian people appears in the *Contemporary Review* for May. It is nothing less than a translation of the preamble of a memorial address to the Czar by Mr. Witte, president of the Council of Ministers, in favor of the liberation of the Greek Orthodox Church from the despotic control of the state, and of restoration of spiritual and ecclesiastical freedom to the Russian Church. No state document of more transcendent importance has been published for many a long year. Here is probably the real deadly malady of Russia. One condition of a religious revival is freedom—freedom not only for the nonconforming sects, but especially freedom for the Greek Orthodox Church itself.

Mr. Witte traces the history of the Orthodox Church since the days of Peter the Great.

After two centuries of a policy of religious repression, Russia is now entering upon a path of broad tolerance. The impulse to this step has been given, not only by a feeling that religious oppression is inconsistent with the spirit of the Orthodox Church, but also by such proof of its futility as a long experience has afforded. Not only official reports, but also, and more particularly, the private communications of persons closely connected with missionary work, make it certain that oppression contributes to the growth of dissent and by no means to its enfeeblement. It is evident that even under conditions of entire external freedom, not to speak of state protection, the internal life of the Church is fettered by heavy chains which must also be re-

moved,—their effects are distinctly observable in the religious life of our time.

THE PARALYSIS OF THE RUSSIAN CHURCH.

The result of this reduction of the Church to be the mere serf of the state is paralysis. Mr. Witte continues :

Both the ecclesiastical and the secular press remark with equal emphasis upon the prevailing lukewarmness of the inner life of the Church,—upon the alienation of the flock, particularly of the educated classes of society, from its spiritual guides ; the absence in sermons of a living word ; the lack of pastoral activity on the part of the clergy, who in the majority of instances confine themselves to the conduct of divine service and the fulfillment of ritual observances ; the entire collapse of the ecclesiastical parish community, with its educational and benevolent institutions ; the red-tapism in the conduct of diocesan or consistorial business, and the narrowly bureaucratic character of the institutions grouped about the Synod. It was from Dostoyevski that we first heard that word of evil omen, "The Russian Church is suffering from paralysis."

How comes it that the Russian Church is practically dead ? The reply is that Peter the Great killed it. He made it a department of the police. This "Transformer of Russia," as he calls him, meaning thereby the Revolutionist, destroyed the ancient canonical system of the Orthodox Church, in which the faithful elected their clergy and the Church was ruled by councils in which both laity and clergy were represented, and substituted in its stead the bu-

reaucratic rule of the Holy Synod. He emphasizes the pernicious influence of these changes.

These efforts to subject to police prescription the facts and phenomenon of spiritual life, which lie altogether outside its competence, undoubtedly brought into the ecclesiastical sphere the mortifying breath of dry bureaucratism. The chief aim of the ecclesiastical reforms of Peter I was to reduce the Church to the level of a mere government institution pursuing purely political ends. And, as a matter of fact, the government of the Church speedily became merely one of the numerous wheels of the complicated government machine. On the soil of an ecclesiastical government robbed by bureaucratism of all personal elements the dry scholastic life-shunning school arose spontaneously. This policy of coercing the mind of the Church, though it may have been attended for the moment by a certain measure of political gain, subsequently inflicted a terrible loss. Hence that decline in ecclesiastical life with which we now have to deal.

THE PRIEST A MERE POLICE SPY.

It is almost incredible to what lengths Peter went in subordinating the spiritual to the temporal powers. He imposed upon the clergy police and detective work that was entirely inconsistent with the clerical office. The priest was obliged to see that the number of persons subject to taxation was properly indicated, and, in addition, to report without delay all actions revealed to him in confession that tended to the injury of the state. "Thus, transformed from a spiritual guide into an agent of police supervision, the pastor entirely lost the confidence of his flock and all moral union with them." In order to rid the Russian Church of this nightmare, it is necessary, Mr. Witte urges, to begin with the parish.

The unfavorable turn taken by the career of the

Church in the eighteenth century revealed itself, perhaps, with the greatest clearness in the decline of the parish, that primary cell of ecclesiastical life. This change is the more noticeable as social existence within the Church in the old Russian parish was distinguished by great vitality. The Russian parish formerly constituted a living and active unit. The community itself built its church and elected its priest and the remainder of the church staff. Of this living and active unit there now remains nothing but the name. In order to secure a revival of parish life, it is necessary to give back to the ecclesiastical community the right, of which it has been deprived, of participating in the management of the financial affairs of the Church, and the right of electing, or at any rate of taking part in the election of, members of the clerical staff.

"SUMMON A NATIONAL CHURCH COUNCIL."

He puts forward various minor suggestions, such as a reform of theological seminaries, and concludes as follows:

For more than two hundred years we have not heard the voice of the Russian Church,—is it not time now to listen to it? Is it not high time to discuss what it has to say in regard to the present structure of Church life, which has become established against her will and in opposition to the traditions bequeathed to her by a sacred antiquity? In a national council, where it will be necessary to arrange for the representation of both the clergy and the laity, those changes in the structure of ecclesiastical life must be discussed which are necessary in order to place the Church on the level on which she ought to stand, and to secure for her all needful freedom of action. In view of the present unmistakable symptoms of internal vacillation both in society and in the masses of the people, it would be dangerous to wait any longer.

Will the Czar have the courage to say to this Lazarus of a Church, laid in swaddling-clothes for two centuries in the tomb of the state, "Loose her and let her go free!"

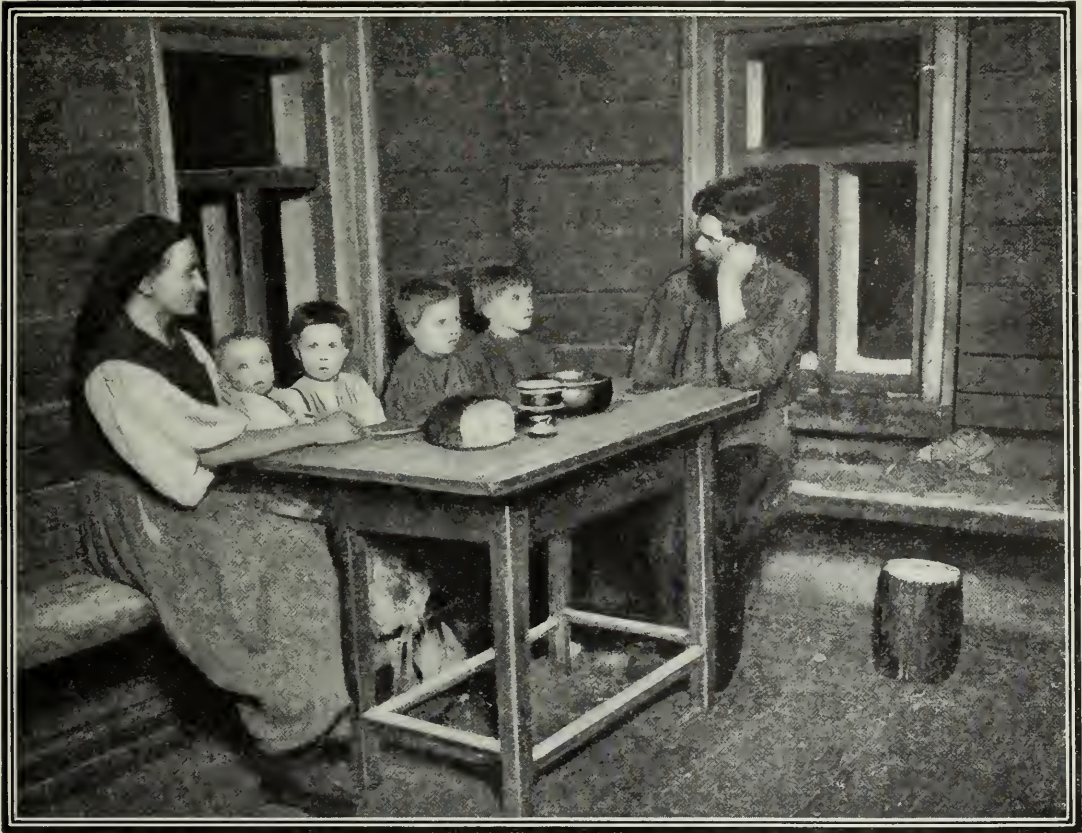
THE DEEP SHADES AND SHADOWS OF RUSSIAN LIFE.

THE existing *régime* imposes its burdens on all classes of Russian society. "Their relentless weight rests most heavily, however, on the peasantry and the factory labor. Years of repression and suppression, of mental and spiritual darkness, have reduced the Russian masses to a pitiful state. He who would paint a true picture of present-day Russia," says a recent contributor to the *Nedyelya* (St. Petersburg), "must dip his brush in somber colors. The question 'what next' may be difficult to answer, but the question as it is is truly hopeless."

All is somber and gray; the peasant huts are leaning outward, the roofs are half rotted. In the huts there is darkness, and an oppressive, tainted atmosphere. Beyond the huts there are miserable gardens,

and farther still the expanse of fields full of weeds where groans the exhausted earth, incapable of bearing,—a nurse deprived of all strength. Against this background one sees the heavily laden peasant. It is his lot to be oppressed. In order to breathe a little more freely, he at times oppresses others. Such is the Russian village. People move about in the huts, near the huts, and work in the fields. On their sodden, yellowish-dark faces there is the stamp of deep, dumb sorrow, and of resignation. No illuminating intelligence shines in their actions. The herd-like life destroys in them everything living,—it destroys ability, and subjects the individual to the instincts of the blind masses. Accidents and habits hold sway, and blind instincts triumph; but there are no guiding principles to direct the work. There is no knowledge creative of enterprise. Such is peasant labor.

The wretched poverty of the peasantry, the



From the painting by S. Saitov.

A RUSSIAN SOLDIER-PEASANT'S LAST EVENING AT HOME WITH HIS FAMILY BEFORE JOINING THE ARMY.

writer goes on to say, is rendered more oppressive by the fearful sanitary, or, rather, unsanitary, conditions which prevail in the villages. The same applies also to the towns, where the condition of factory labor is scarcely better than that of the peasants. We find sanitary defects in our fatherland wherever we turn, says another writer in the same journal. The sanitary conditions under which the factory employees live are frequently in an awful state, and their evils are multiplied by overcrowding.

As to village life, it is like an awful nightmare. The population is dying out in many places. Let us, for instance, consider the question of drinking-water, the contamination of which is widespread. The Volga and its tributaries are covered with naphtha to such an extent that in some places the water is totally unfit for use. Complaints concerning the contamination of drinking-water,—its bad taste, odor, etc.,—are heard from most of our large cities,—Kazan, Tomsk, Nizhni-Novgorod, and others. Even the filter plants, where they exist, frequently fail to help matters. The population is using water unfit for consumption, and falls a prey to various diseases. . . . But it is difficult to imagine, at times, how the village populations manage to exist on poisoned water which even cattle refuse to drink.

The factories and mills are largely responsible for thus poisoning the water-supplies of many villages. For example, in Ivanovo-Voznesensk, with a population of sixty thousand, there is no filter plant, and the river water is thoroughly contaminated. The fish, and even the frogs, have entirely disappeared, and one enterprising individual earns several hundred dollars a year by collecting the naphtha from the river. The grass refuses to grow on the meadows along the river, and the pastures have disappeared. The mortality is 37.3 per 1,000.

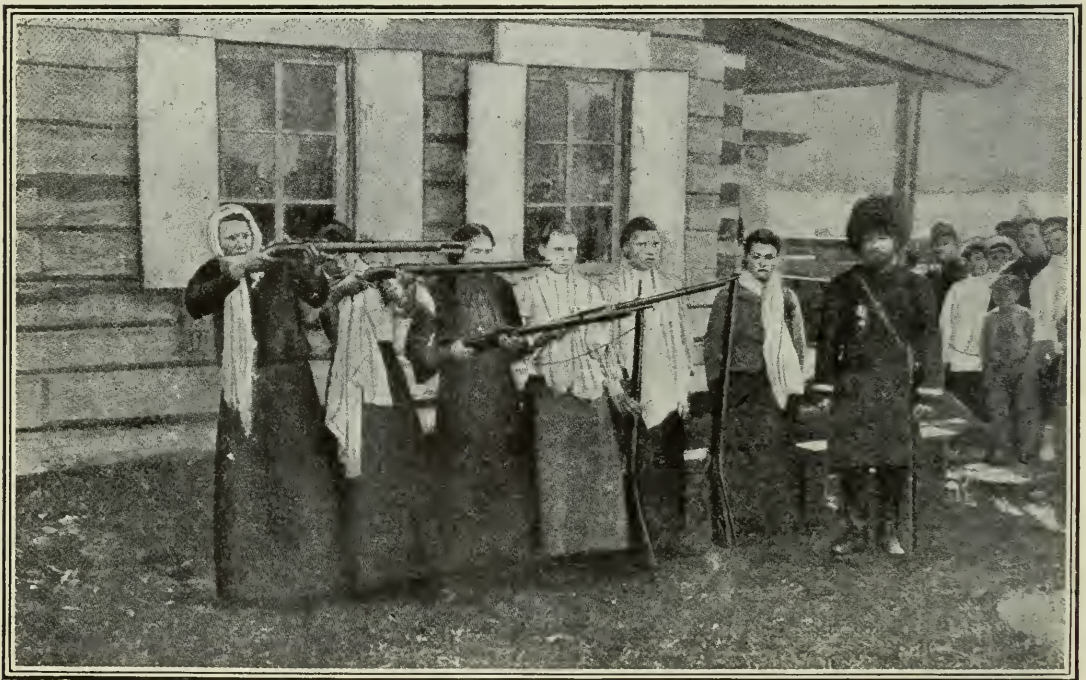
The disappearance of the fish and the deterioration of the pastures have deprived large numbers of peasants of their main source of income, and have at the same time added to the cost of food for factory labor. The unsanitary life of the latter, and the high mortality rate, as noted above, are due in part, also, to the miserable wages paid to the workmen. According to the report of Mikhailovski, the chief factory inspector of the St. Petersburg district, the annual earnings of the average factory employee in the government of St. Petersburg amount to 232 rubles (\$116); to about the same in the government of Moscow; to 255 rubles in the government of Khereson; and to 268 rubles in Baku. These aver-

ages include the comparatively high wages of the masters, and also of the much lower wages of the unskilled or common labor, whose annual earnings do not exceed 150 to 170 rubles. Notwithstanding these low wages, the Russian workmen are obliged to pay as much, or more, for their provisions as is paid by the workmen in England or America. Thus, the factory employees in the Russian cities must pay three cents for a pound of flour, nine to ten cents for a pound of meat, and ten cents for a pound of sugar. Everything considered, therefore, the American workman is paid five times as much for his labor, and the English workman four times as much. The economic conditions, normally bad, have grown immeasurably worse on account of the general depression due to the war. In many of the agricultural districts there is no bread, and not even seed for the following season. Numerous families have lost their supporters, who were called to the front, and the resulting situation in not a few Russian villages is well illustrated by a letter to the *Yuzhnoye Obozryeniye* from Slavyanoserbsk, district of Tiraspol. "It is war, war,—war of the unarmed and helpless against a pitiless foe," writes the village Starosta, Boris Sychenko.

The name of this foe is hunger. There walk on our streets, not men, but the resemblance of men. And

who can describe their anguish? Help us! We received here only six thousand poods for thirteen hundred persons. People here can scarcely stand on their feet, and the children are dying like flies (fifteen in fifteen days). Hasten with your help. Make it possible for people to get something to eat. We have families here who live we know not how. There are some who obtained some Indian corn somewhere. They boil it in water and eat it without salt or bread. At the gatherings there is gloom, confusion, and resentment. In the homes—hell.

In view of these facts, it is not surprising that the peasants are frequently goaded to desperation. Their wretched life, their ignorance and superstition, make them an easy prey to agitators. Thus, the *Russkiya-Vyedomosti* reports that in the governments of Orel and Kursk the peasants have been holding meetings. They agree upon a certain plan of action, and at night attack the estates of wealthy landlords or merchants. The storehouses where the grain is kept are attacked and plundered, the buildings destroyed, the forests cut down. Many estates have thus been pillaged. The *Kievlyanin* (Kiev) reports similar outrages in the governments of Orel and Chernigov. A number of large estates have been pillaged, important sugar refineries burned, and thousands of pounds of sugar destroyed. The losses are enormous, it being estimated that the Mikhailovsk refinery alone suffered to the extent of three million rubles. The peasant



RUSSIAN PRISON WOMEN IN SAGHALIEN BEING DRILLED FOR SELF-PROTECTION.

mob engaged in this work of destruction numbered about three thousand. The *Russkiya Vedomosti* also reports that the peasants near the town of Dagda, government of Dvinsk, have been made desperate by hunger. They have pillaged and destroyed several estates, carried off everything that was portable, and destroyed the rest. The cattle from some of the estates was driven off; the surviving landlords have escaped with some of their property, and have sought protection with the soldiers who were sent from Dvinsk. The local police does nothing. The inhabitants of the town do not sleep at night, fearing an attack by the peasants.

The fermentation among the factory employees still continues. The *Pravo* reports that five hundred striking artisans attacked the police in Sukhum. A demonstration by the unemployed occurred in Kiev. Similarly, the *Syevero-Zapadny Krai* recounts the strike disorders in Dvinsk. The *Vyestnik Yuga* reports rumored street disorders in Yekaterinoslav. A far-reaching strike has paralyzed all industrial activity in Byelostok. "Factories, mills, printing houses, small industrial establishments, stores, street-car lines, express carriers, etc.—everything is idle." Conflicts between students or workmen and the police or military have occurred in Smolensk, Turiya, Oryekhov-Zuyev, Warsaw, and many other places; and attempts to assassinate police or other officials have occurred in Minsk, Dvinsk, Warsaw, Ochernchiry, Potti, Tiflis, St. Petersburg, Kremenchug, etc. The reign of anarchy is at times hastened by the overzealous government officials, who organize counter-demonstrations and try to array class against class, or race against race.

The Kishinev and Baku massacres are but prominent instances of such activities. Similar incidents on a smaller scale have occurred elsewhere. Thus, on March 11 a drunken mob

armed with axes and clubs surrounded the schoolhouse in the village of Yelani, in the government of Saratov, with the avowed purpose of killing the schoolmaster. It appears that for several days previously a number of suspicious persons appeared among the peasants, telling them that the teacher was an anti-Christ; that he did not believe in God, since he claimed that the earth revolved and that there are spots on the sun. The agitators implored the parents not to send their children to school, and thus save them from ruin. On March 4 there was a great gathering of peasants, at which whiskey to the amount of 600 rubles (\$300) was consumed. After this the mob marched to the school, drove off the children, and destroyed the school furniture. The schoolmaster escaped as if by a miracle.

It would seem that the agitators were carrying out instructions which they had received from others in pursuance of the general policy of suppressing enlightenment and independent judgment. This same policy is made manifest in a recent order of the governor of Vladimir, whereby the postmaster of the city of Vladimir was to report the names of all the residents of Vladimir who were subscribers to the papers *Nasha Zhizn*, *Nashi Dni*, and *Syn Otechestva*. One of the students of the local gymnasium found reading *Nasha Zhizn* was placed by the director in the detention cell for five hours. Such, in brief, are but a few of the innumerable facts, reported in censored Russian journals, which may serve to show to the outside world the burdens of the Russian men and women.

Ignorance and superstition among the peasants and workmen, tacitly encouraged by the powers that be; official corruption and intolerance, disrespect for the law, disregard of human rights,—these and other ills make Russian life what it is, a great burden to the many, and a round of heedless pleasure to the few.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S IMPRESSION OF MAXIM GORKY.

WHEN the famous Russian Liberal author, Maxim Gorky, was released from the fortress prison in St. Petersburg he consented to be interviewed by an English writer. This writer (in a character sketch in the *Fortnightly Review* signed "R. L.") describes the novelist as very unlike the flighty, irresponsible figure that looms so grotesquely in the imagination of Europe. He says:

Gorky's physical type is maligned by most of the photographs published. In these photographs he looks nervous, anæmic, hunted, sentimental. The Maxim

Gorky whom I left a week ago among the evergreen woods of Bilderlinghof, on the Baltic coast, is a tall, straight, deep-chested, large-boned man who towered like a giant over the squat Germans and stunted Lettish peasants who are now struggling for racial dominion on the Livonian coast. In features he is as far removed from the refined, weak-faced intelligents as from the submissive, apathetic muzhik. The forehead is broad, furrowed deeply when he talks, and surmounted by a mop of dark hair; the eyes gray, serene, slightly defiant; the nose big, not unlike Tolstoy's, but even more shapeless; the mouth big, somewhat grin; and the jaw, now fringed with a scanty red-brown beard grown in jail, square, massive, and resolute. You feel

at once that this is a self-possessed, masterful man,—a man in whom character is even more remarkable than intellect.

In his conversation he spoke cautiously, weighing every word, and revealing the real moderation and dignity of his character. He is a strong individualist, and is very far from being the champion of barbarism. He only made two observations that indicated a belief that anti-social or barbaric instincts were anything but unnatural and a peril to mankind.

The first of these remarks was that "the vagabond instinct is strong in all Russians;" the second, that "modern society is beginning to decay. It is tired, outworn, conscious of its insufficiency. Like the later Roman Empire, it needs new blood,—a barbarian irruption." Having affirmed these two propositions, each outside the domain of polemics, Gorky appeared a man of modern, progressive, cultivated sympathies, passionately devoted to advancement, and enthusiastic in eulogy of those nations which in civilization and citizenship have led the van. He has, indeed, never been out of Russia, and speaks no foreign language. But his survey of the comparative cultural condition of Russia's numberless races showed how his sympathies lie.

His chief hostility to the existing system lies in his conviction that under the present system progress, culture, and national unity are impossible.

The government's worst offense was that it was an enemy of civilization, not that it was harsh and tyrannical. Indeed, Gorky seemed to have little hope for the

redemption of Russia by any mild and benevolent system of rule. "I have seen too much," he said, "and lived through too much, to think that love between men as brothers can be relied upon as a basis for a reformed society. But each man must respect humanity." All, therefore, he demanded from the Russian or any other government was that it should respect human personality, and that it should not shackle the progressive instincts natural in all men.

Although he could only read Russian, he has read in Russian translation as much English literature as nine out of ten educated Englishmen. When he was a cabin boy aged fifteen on a Volga steamer he read "The Tempest" and "A Midsummer Night's Dream," and was immensely impressed by them.

But, as he loved the literature of England as a whole for its sanity and joyousness, he rejected everything tinged with asceticism or Puritan restriction of human joy. Thus, he could not appreciate Dante, or even Milton, though his failure to understand the English poet he attributed partly to the badness of the Russian translation. Admiring both, he compared Shelley to the varicolored, glittering Alps, and Byron to the menacing Caucasus. For Bret Harte, for Kipling, and—among humorists—for Mark Twain he expressed unbounded love. But he could not understand the later Kipling, and denounced the excesses of imperialism, whether British, American, or Russian, with vigorous contempt. "The national ideal," he said, "should be to be strong, not to be perpetually proving one's self strong. Strength is shown in restraint." For revealed religion, and in particular for the religion of states and established churches, he had no respect.

THE FUTURE OF THE RUSSIAN NAVY,—A BRITISH VIEW.

WRITING in the latter half of March, before the Russian Baltic fleet had entered Chinese waters, Mr. Archibald S. Hurd, an English naval expert, contributes to the *United Service Magazine* (London) a study of the problem before Russia in her task of building a great navy. The Muscovite Empire, Mr. Hurd believes, can never become a great naval power. Her people are a land people, and they have never acquired the "sea habit." Mere ships do not make a powerful navy. Russia, says this writer, never is, but always to be, blessed.

She is always big with schemes; her friends and sycophants are continually talking of her "might" and conjuring up phantom pictures of what she could do if she would. Just now little is heard of the millions of men under arms of whom it was the custom to boast a year or so ago, but the world is asked to marvel at what the navy of Russia will be when it has been built up once more. It is an idle task to anticipate the events of the inscrutable future, but this form of prophecy is one of Russia's most valuable national assets. She is, and always has been, feared, not for what she has

shown that she can do, but on account of what her apologists claim she could do. She was thus exaggerated into a great naval and military power at whose threats chancelleries trembled. It remained for the smallest, poorest, and least "civilized" of the powers to prick the bubble which Russian agents had industriously blown, with the result that Russia's military prestige for months past has been sinking in the eyes of the world, and she has ceased, for the time, to be a naval power of any consequence.

Russia, Mr. Hurd continues, has been forced to abdicate her naval position in the West in order to deal with the situation in the far East. But she has never really been a maritime nation. Since the time of Peter the Great, she has had a navy, "an exotic and purely political instrument." She won her naval prestige wholly by her wars with Turkey and Sweden in the last century. It was a bad day for Russia, we are told, further, when mechanical propulsion for vessels was introduced. She has never had many born mechanics.

She had a fair supply of sailors of splendid courage

and magnificent hardihood, but she possessed no system of education and no trades to provide the seamen of the new type, instinct with mechanical aptitude. As the years passed and the domination of physical science on board men-of-war became more and more pronounced, the Russian deficiency became increasingly apparent. No nation without high technique can maintain a great fleet in efficiency in these days. Russia refused to face the situation. The admiralty at St. Petersburg still looked upon the mere ships as synonymous with sea power, and additions were made to the fleet with little or no regard to the most important factors,—properly educated and well-trained crews. As the demand for more seamen increased, men were called from the fields in districts far removed from the sea. They had no love of the life, the sea was to them a force which they did not understand and did not wish to understand, and at the same time they were lacking in intelligence and in all mechanical knowledge. They were agricultural laborers, that and nothing more. The greater the fleet became,—the more rapidly ships were built in French, German, American, and Russian shipyards,—the more apparent became the difficulty to obtain crews, and year by year the quality of the personnel fell. It is not suggested that the Russian sailor has been or is devoid of courage. On the contrary, he has always been brave and daring, and in the present war he has shown his metal on many occasions. But the day has passed when brute courage, unallied with an active, trained mind and mechanical skill, counted for much in naval warfare. While Russia should have been concentrating attention on the means of training men for her fleet, she was satisfied with building ships, or ordering them abroad,—ships, still more ships,—under the delusion that these vessels, however inadequately manned, meant power.

When we remember, also, Russia's geographical position, we can well understand her difficulties in creating a powerful navy.

She had to organize four navies,—one for the far East, one for the Caspian Sea, one for the Baltic, and another immured in the Black Sea by the treaty of Paris. She had to utilize the Baltic for the training of her main sea forces, and here each year the winter closed up the waters early and failed to release them until late in the spring. All the months which Great Britain and the United States employ in training were useless to the Russian admiralty.

The dispatch of these ships to the East, the *United Service* writer admits, was an unparalleled event. "It is the most imposing force which has ever passed in full fighting trim from West to East,—indeed, the biggest squadron of modern ships which has sailed any ocean on a warlike mission." Yet Russians will probably never make good sea fighters, in Mr. Hurd's opinion.

The men who are available for the Russian fleet have no technique, nor have they the mechanical aptitude, nor, again, love of the sea. They are dumb driven cattle, whose hearts are not in their work. Russia may go on building ships of war, but these vessels are not sea power. Sea power is a weapon far less easily obtained. Russia must go back over her whole administration and remodel it; she must recognize that mechanical skill is even more essential in the personnel than brute courage, and that before her ships can be rendered fit to meet an efficient and adequately trained fleet at sea the whole character of the personnel must be raised.

JAPAN'S TERMS OF PEACE AND HER NEGOTIATORS.

A GREAT many old scores will have to be settled by the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan if this peace is to be satisfactory and permanent. In a brief but vigorous paper in the *North American Review* (May), Mr. Adachi Kinnosuké recounts some of these old scores and outlines the probable terms of peace that Japan will exact. He begins by quoting Article II. of the Shimonoseki treaty, which closed the war of 1895 between China and Japan, thus bringing up the subject of the "friendly advice" given Japan by Russia, Germany, and France, in accordance with which Port Arthur and the Liao-Tung peninsula were retroceded to China—and, later on, handed over to Russia. The diplomatic relations between Nippon and Russia, says Mr. Adachi, are "worse than a woman with a past." He goes over the tortuous Muscovite diplomacy which secured the island of Saghalien, and asserts that the retrocession of this island, with its adjacent valuable fishing waters, to Japan will be a *sine qua non* of peace. On this point he says:

For many a year it has been no secret with us, the people of Nippon, that there is one wish somewhat dearer to the heart of his majesty the Emperor than others. On the day when he received the dais from his imperial father, the empire of Nippon contained the island of Saghalien; on the day when he will vacate the dais in favor of his heir, he would see on the map of Nippon at least every inch of the soil which had known the gracious rule of his august father. And, to-day, a wish of his majesty,—I do not care how slight or remote it be,—is nothing short of a passion with the people of Nippon.

As to the disposition of Manchuria, continues Mr. Adachi, "through the weary months that have fertilized its plains with her blood Nippon's wishes have never been altered."

She wishes Russia to evacuate Manchuria; she has not the slightest desire of remaining in it herself. In making a present of Manchuria to China, Nippon in all fairness might be permitted to ask China to furnish her a joint guarantee from three powers,—namely, America, Great Britain, and Nippon herself,—that the territory thus turned over to its rightful owner, China, shall not be leased or ceded to a foreign power; that is one requirement. And the other boon she would be likely



Itagaki.

Yamamoto.

Komura.

Matsukata.

Ito.

POSSIBLE JAPANESE PEACE NEGOTIATORS.

to ask is this: That, in consideration of the return of the province wherein is the imperial mausoleum of the reigning house of China the Chinese Empire would consent to open a number of her provinces, ports, and towns to the commerce of all the world. This, of course, is important, commercially, to the interest of Nippon. The chief end in view, however, is to waken our neighbor to her national consciousness.

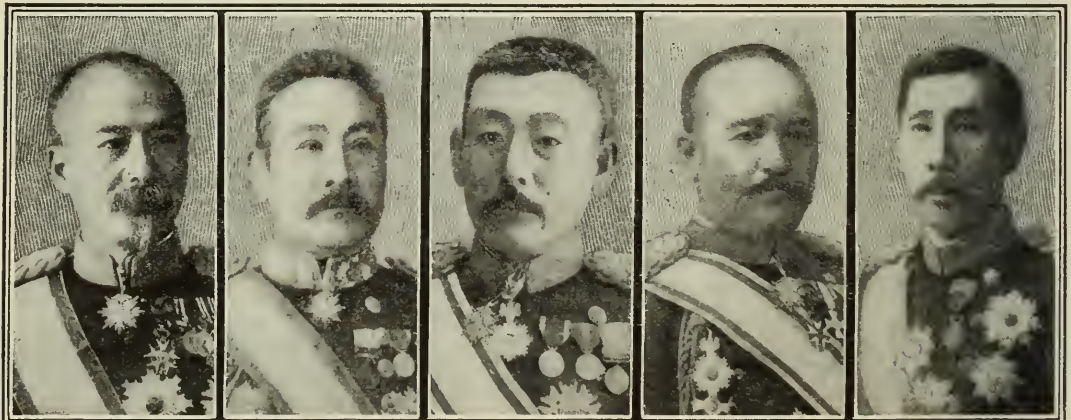
As to the Chinese Eastern Railway (from Harbin to Port Arthur and Dalny), Nippon will demand that this be turned over to her. This writer believes that the Tokio government will demand the cession of Siberian territory east of the Amur River, the line of demarcation to be drawn from the mouth of the river to Nicholaievsk, and then to follow the course of the river to the Manchurian boundary. This, of course, would include Vladivostok. The possession of this stronghold and naval base, he be-

lieves, is absolutely essential to the permanent peace of the far East and the future security of the national existence of Nippon.

As to indemnity, says Mr. Adachi, in conclusion, it is perhaps too early to speak of that. The question of indemnity depends solely on the duration of the war.

Who Will Negotiate Peace?

It is now becoming recognized in Japan that while the armies of the Czar may not be able to withstand the Japanese force in the field, the diplomats of St. Petersburg are astute enough to give Japan a hard fight for the fruits of her victory after it is won. Much depends upon Japan's choice of peace negotiators. An intimate account of Japanese politics and of the real leaders of the nation, some of whom will treat with the diplomats of Russia, is given by Mr.



Kodama.

Ito (Admiral).

Nishi.

Katsura.

Yamagata.

POSSIBLE JAPANESE PEACE NEGOTIATORS.

Jihe Hashiguchi in the *World's Work*. Mr. Hashiguchi admits that Russia's clever diplomacy in the past has many times been too much for Japanese statesmanship. He is not quite certain that Japanese statesmen have learned the lesson of ten years ago, or that they will be as successful as their admirals and generals have been. In considering the development of Japan's diplomacy he gives a rapid outline of the political parties in the Mikado's empire. To begin with, he points out that in Japanese politics the influence of men from four of the great feudal clans is paramount, since the members of these clans (Satsuma, Choshu, Tosa, and Hizen) were the principal actors in the restoration of the Mikado to power in 1869. Characterizing these clans, he declares that the Choshuan, "like the Athenian of old, is a man of cool head, eloquent, clever, fit to be a statesman; but his statesmanship lacks aggressiveness, and he is prone to compromise when a political dispute arises."

The representative Choshuans are Marquis Ito, Viscount Katsura (prime minister), and Baron Kodama, chief of staff with Oyama. The Satsuma clan may be likened to Sparta. The Satsuman is warm-hearted, eloquent, and quick. He does not compromise, and is a born fighter. The great historic Satsuman is Saigo Takamori, leader of the great rebellion. Among the representative living Satsumans are Field Marshal Oyama, Admirals Togo, Ito, and Yamamoto, Generals Kuroki and Nodzu, and the statesmen Matsukata and Nishi. The men of the Tosa clan (the influence of which is second to that of the two others) are resourceful and tenacious of principles, but not so shrewd or aggressive as members of the other clans. Prominent Tosans of

to-day are Itagaki, organizer of the Liberal party, and Goto, many times member of the cabinet. The last of the four great clans is the Hizen, which is represented by Counts Okuma, Oki, and Yeto Shimpei. The clan's influence depends now almost entirely upon Count Okuma, — a proud, shrewd, and patriotic man.

Characterizing the different individuals and their fitness to be peace negotiators, Mr. Hashiguchi declares that Itagaki has practically lost influence with his party, and that Count Okuma, although the foremost diplomat of modern Japan, is too proud and aggressive to be elastic when elasticity is required. Marquis Ito, who stands on a par with Count Okuma as one of the leading statesmen of modern Japan, has perhaps too great a fear of the power of the West, to which he has always been anxious to yield. Ito's three most prominent followers are: Baron Suyematsu, a diplomat, scholar, statesman, and author; Baron Kaneko, diplomat, minister, and economic writer, now in this country; and Baron Ito, at present a member of the privy council. The influence of the other field marshal, Marquis Yamagata, chief of the general staff, should not be forgotten. It was he who reorganized the Japanese army on the German system. His followers are Viscount Katsura, the present prime minister; Baron Kiyoura, minister of agriculture and commerce; and Baron Sone, minister of finance. Viscount Katsura is an all-round man, the author of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. Another man of action and great influence in the present ministry is Baron Komura, minister of foreign affairs, who won his eminence by shrewdness after the war with China.

THE SUGGESTED RUSSO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

IT appears that there has been some support in Japan to the suggestion, which was originally credited to the Emperor of Germany, that, after the war, a friendly understanding amounting to an alliance should be brought about between Russia and Japan. The Anglo-Japanese alliance has not, in the opinion of a number of prominent Japanese periodicals, come up to the expectation of the Mikado's government. Dissatisfaction with it has been concealed by the thin veneer of politeness which the Japanese express toward England so long as the alliance actually exists. Although the Japanese journals in general do not refer to this subject, many of the leading men are, it is claimed, looking forward to the time when the

island empire will readjust all her diplomatic relations.

The whole ground of these relations is covered in an article, entitled "The Conclusion of Peace Between Russia and Japan," which appears in the *Taiyo* (Tokio). The writer, Mr. T. Hayakawa, a member of the Japanese House of Representatives, begins by stating that Russia is not by any means so formidable a power as the world has heretofore believed. If you turn over the pages of the history of Russian expansion, he says, "you will at once perceive that the Muscovite has never played a fair game." Russian aggression, he goes on to say, has been directed, not against civilized nations with modern military equipment, but against backward races,

such as those in Siberia, or against such miserably equipped nations as Turkey and other minor peoples in the Balkans. Russia's real strength had never been fully tested until it came into collision with that of Japan. The secret of Russian success, this writer believes, lies in the fact that she has heretofore wielded her weapons only against weaker enemies, as well as in the fact that she enjoys a most favorable geographic situation, which prevents successful invasion. Her geographical situation also has stimulated her desire for expansion. In order to develop her commerce and to advance her civilization, Russia found it absolutely necessary to establish outlets on southern waters.

Intoxicated by her successes, which had been easily achieved in dealing with her weaker antagonists, Russia underestimated Japan's power and resources. Always modest, and generally too meek, Japan had always acquiesced in Russia's propositions. Thus, the northern bear robbed the island empire of Saghalien, and, in conjunction with Germany and France, took from her the Liao-Tung Peninsula at the close of the Chino-Japanese War. The negotiations leading up to the present struggle further impressed Russia with the patience of the island nation. Russia's arrogant and challenging attitude was due really to complete ignorance of the resources of her little enemy.

IS A RUSSO JAPANESE ALLIANCE POSSIBLE ?

A treaty of alliance between two nations on a close footing is impossible so long as one has no regard for the rights of the other. Up to the present moment, it has been utterly impossible for Russia and Japan to come to an understand-

ing of such a nature. But, now that the Muscovite government has become convinced of the prowess of the Japanese nation, it is quite possible that St. Petersburg would really desire to form an *entente cordiale* with the Tokio government. The gist of the proposition advanced by Mr. Hayakawa is found in his closing paragraph.

It is neither possible nor wise to entirely drive the Russians out of Manchuria. An attempt to expel them from northern China would mean the tremendously greater task of wiping them out entirely from Siberia, a task which no sane man would ever dream of accomplishing. So long as Russia holds Siberia, it is but natural that she will attempt to force her way to the Eastern seas. The danger of the Russian advance in the far East lies, not in the fact of the advance, but in its military nature. If this advance should be of a peaceful nature, aimed at the promotion of her commercial interests, without jeopardizing the sovereignty of China and Korea, there is no reason why Japan should not respect Russian rights in Manchuria. The present war is waged because Japan was forced to deliver Manchuria and Korea from the oppression of Russia. When Japan's protectorate over Korea has been universally recognized, and when Manchuria has been returned to the Chinese Government, Japan's aims have been well-nigh accomplished. If she insists on curbing Russian influence entirely in the far East, time, we believe, will tell that Japan has blundered. But if, generously casting aside hostile feelings after the peace treaty, the now belligerent nations enter into an alliance, together they might prove the strongest force in preserving the peace of the far East. Russia is now fully aware that as an opponent Japan is very formidable, but as an ally she could be made a strong and reliable friend. If Russia will renounce her ambition for military aggrandizement, and will extend her hand in friendly relationship to Japan, with the view of promoting her own commercial interests in eastern Asia, we Japanese will gladly welcome her as our friend and ally.

GERMANY'S NEW ECONOMIC POLICY.

THE recently negotiated renewals of Germany's commercial treaties are made the occasion of a review of "A Century of German Commercial Policy" in the Berlin weekly *Die Woche*. The present treaties are regarded as the culmination of decades of effort and struggle to strengthen Germany's economic position. The ups and downs of these efforts, and especially the various factors affecting the rise and fall of the famous Zollverein, are entered into with considerable minuteness. But the beginning of a real success in the establishment of a central European economic domain, with Germany as its leading factor, dates from the treaties negotiated by Caprivi in 1891. The following survey is given of the significance of these and of subsequent developments :

The treaties of 1891 have with justice been designated by Emperor William II. as a "saving act." For the problem of compelling Russia to break away from her medieval seclusive system was for the first time successfully solved, and the prospect opened of a union of the leading European states, at least in economic relations. The treaties promised to be advantageous, not only in the economic domain, but also in the field of politics. German industry and German commerce have, in fact, according to the general estimation, been indebted for extraordinary advantages to the treaties of 1891-94. They met with vigorous opposition, on the other hand, in the agricultural world, where the abrogation of the considerable increase of tariff rates upon food products, introduced in the struggle against Austria and Russia, was, from the start, very grievously felt. In view of the significance of the agricultural contingents in the economic life of Germany and their great influence in parliamentary concerns as well as in official circles, they were naturally in a position to secure the greatest con-

sideration for their wishes. For years, therefore, owing to their agitation, efforts have been made in Germany to secure, in the renewal of the commercial treaties, more satisfactory conditions for the needs of agriculture. The endeavor of the government has been directed solely toward preventing the interests of industry and commerce from being thrust too far into the background, to the detriment of the people. The aim, however, of drawing the states of Continental Europe into a closer economic union and enabling them to stand up against America and Great Britain, in case of necessity, with greater strength was abandoned.

Now, says the writer, the end aimed at for years has been attained. After severe conflicts within the German realm itself, as well as with other countries, the renewal of existing arrangements for twelve years with the hitherto treaty-contracting nations has been accomplished, and that with a comprehensive regard for the interests of agriculture.

The government entertains the conviction that this object has been attained without imperiling commerce or sacrificing German export industry. Whether this view is wholly sustained by the facts, it remains for the future to demonstrate. At all events, the treaties just concluded do not signify a new epoch in commercial policy. On the whole, they must be regarded only as a new edition of Caprivi's work, altered to conform to the wishes of the agricultural contingent. Whether, upon the basis of those treaties, it will be easier to incline the United States to readjust and develop its commercial policy in regard to the German Empire can, for the present, be as little determined as the question how the relations of the great English colonies which have not entered into treaty relations with Germany will be shaped, and whether there is a prospect that the still existing most-favored nation agreements will be replaced by tariff treaties. Under any circumstances, however, it is a matter for rejoicing that German agriculture is released from the condition of uncertainty under which it has sorely labored for many years and is now enabled to make arrangements for the immediate future.

DOES GERMANY REALLY AIM TO ABSORB HOLLAND?

THE idea that the annexation of Holland is one of the goals of German imperial policy has long been entertained in England and elsewhere. A sharp expression of English suspicion in this direction (in the *Westminster Gazette*) is made the occasion of an article in the *Deutsche Rundschau*. The writer, Lieutenant-General Geest, discusses the question whether the absorption of Holland, or even an alliance with Holland, would be of military advantage to Germany. This question he answers with an emphatic negative. He declares, further, that only "politically naïve Germans," misled by superficial considerations, entertain any such notions. "Politically mature men," he says,—and these are the men who will determine the course of events,—are thoroughly convinced both that the essential requirements of a durable union are lacking and that the union would, in any reasonably near future, not be a source of increased strength to Germany.

General Geest argues that in the first place the union would be weak on the economic side, and would accordingly not give that military strength which comes from increased economic strength. Holland is essentially a free-trade country, Germany a protectionist country; and the causes of this difference are irremovable, Holland being predominantly commercial, Germany predominantly agricultural and industrial. An interesting possibility of the future is, however, pointed out in this passage, which bears upon Mr. Chamberlain's programme of imperial federation :

Now, it is, of course, conceivable that, in spite of the obstacles which exist at present, the European Continental countries might follow the English, in the tendencies now making headway among them, and form closed commercial areas with their colonies or other trans-oceanic countries which would unite with them; and that a time may then come when Holland, compelled to join a greater tariff unit, will turn to Germany, with which even now it maintains closer commercial intercourse than with any other country. But would it not then be the English themselves who will have caused the economic absorption of Holland by Germany?

Even if a tariff union between Germany and Holland were effected, says General Geest, this would not be an economic strengthening of Germany in time of war. As to such a union being a mere preliminary to a military or political union, the writer goes on to show in detail that a military connection with Holland would impose upon Germany burdens and responsibilities far outweighing any possible advantages. On the other hand, a neutral Holland is of the greatest possible advantage to Germany.

Not only should we [Germans] then have no concern about protecting her, but a serious danger, during a great war, to our own social life would become more remote. If intercourse through our ports should be stopped, our manufacturing interests, which maintain nearly half of the German nation, would be deprived of their regular supply of foodstuffs, and, above all, of raw materials, and would be hampered in the disposal of their products. If even at present many factories in the industrial sections of the country are obliged to close because they can no longer hold their own in the competitive race with foreign lands, the army of the un-

employed in the large cities might swell to such proportions that no way could be found to employ them profitably.

Nothing, he continues, could afford Germans greater help than a neutral Dutch maritime trade, which, by means of its water connections with Germany's industrial west, can take the place of the trade that goes through her North Sea ports, especially if suitable tariff advantages and customs reductions should be granted. Under a Dutch or some other neutral flag, the Rhine ocean vessels would cover the river as far as Cologne, and the Rotterdam lighters would have an enormous business to handle. Belgium, in this connection, is only a secondary consideration, because it has no waterway to Germany; Ostend is not very available, and Antwerp could be crippled by an enemy under all sorts of pretexts, since the Scheldt discharges its waters between Holland and Belgium and the rights of neutrals in a naval war are capable of the most varied interpretation. The article closes with what English readers may regard as a somewhat

of burdens and responsibilities for the German Empire than of profit,—if it is, indeed, the neutrality of Holland which is the most desirable condition for us,—this does not, of course, imply that we would not, upon any so-



QUEEN WILHELMINA OF HOLLAND.



HENRY, PRINCE REGENT OF HOLLAND.

too spirited assertion of Germany's readiness to fly to the aid of Holland if necessary, though this is accompanied by a restatement of the total lack of any desire for annexation.

Even if we have shown that in a military union between Germany and Holland there is a greater prospect

licitation from the Dutch, willingly stake our last ship, our last man, to aid them in the defense of their home and their East Indian possessions. It might well be that after a long, arduous, common campaign the tried brotherhood would, by natural impulse, be riveted for all time. But it would, indeed, again be England's fault if she should suffer a threatening show of force on the part of the Dutch; for it is a necessary consequence of the overpowering naval dominion which England has maintained for a hundred years that no naval war is undertaken without her expressed or tacit consent, and this condition of things is not likely to be changed within a discernible time.

So long, then, as Holland is not attacked, concludes this writer, so long may the English drop their suspicions that the coast of Holland may be absorbed by Germany. The first lord of the English admiralty lately declared that the German marine was so greatly favored by circumstances that it could assemble almost its entire active forces in its home ports.

The Germans themselves have long been saying this, and they will surely not voluntarily do anything to forfeit this favorable state of things. The mere semblance of reinforcement through the addition of the power which a small contiguous country may develop will not entice them, closely akin though they feel to them through ties of blood.

GERMANY'S DESIGNS IN THE FAR EAST.

MORE than once has it been openly stated in French reviews that England is really responsible for the Russo-Japanese war. The French political writer, André Chéradame, in an article in the *Correspondant*, declares :

Russia believes, and believes rightly, that England and the adherents of Lord Curzon have made it their business to bring about the Russo-Japanese war. At the same time, Russia quite overlooks the policy of Germany, which for the last twenty-five years has been systematically directed to the definite object of getting Russia entangled in the affairs of the far East.

The game of Germany, played with so much skill and discretion, which M. Chéradame refers to is none other than that inaugurated by Bismarck. On many occasions the Iron Chancellor is said to have shown a passionate desire to oust Russia from all participation in European affairs and give her the fullest liberty of action in Asia. To his friends at St. Petersburg he is reported to have said : " Russia has nothing to do with the West ; her mission is in Asia, for there she represents civilization."

In 1880, during the most acute period of the negotiations between Russia and China respecting Kulja and the Ili territory, the action of the German minister, von Brandt, the writer explains, affords the most conclusive proof that at that time the chancellor of William I. was maneuvering to entangle Russia in the far East. Mr. von Brandt, who has taken so active a part in the affairs of eastern Asia and has done so much to introduce Germany into Chinese waters, was a disciple and an admirer of Bismarck.

In proof of his assertions, M. Chéradame proceeds to quote from the political correspondence of the minister of one of the great Western powers at Peking, then quite unknown to the public. When the Russo-Chinese conflict was at its height, and war was threatening, the diplomatist, whose name is withheld, wrote in effect to his government in the summer of 1880 :

Not only did Mr. von Brandt advise all the Christian powers to agree simultaneously to crush China and each seize what was most expedient, but he endeavored to push matters to the worst by exalting the advantages of a war between Russia and China. My recent conversations with my colleague, Mr. von Brandt, confirm me in the idea that encouragements to carry out such a strange policy must have been given by the cabinet of Berlin to that of St. Petersburg. As soon as the war should have broken out, Mr. von Brandt made no mystery of the intention of his government to lay hands on any well-chosen position whence the navy of Germany could usefully second the operations of her commerce or the action of her diplomacy at Peking.

Again, early in 1881, the Western diplomatist

pointed out that while Mr. von Brandt was driving Russia to war, Germany was supplying arms to the Celestial Empire. He wrote :

I learn that 100,000 Mauser rifles have been sold by German merchants, and that over 20,000 have already been delivered. It might be of use to send these particulars to St. Petersburg, if only to enlighten the government of the Czar as to the views which inspire German policy in the presence of the difficulties pending between Russia and China.

The next instance of German policy in China cited by M. Chéradame is the Kiao-Chau affair. Here he shows that in 1891 Germany was entertaining secret plans with regard to it.

Lastly, M. Chéradame deals with the Russo-Japanese war. He thinks that Germany desired war, but hopes that Russia will win, for a victorious Russia on the Pacific is expected to be



WHY THE GERMAN PRINCE DID NOT GO TO MANCHURIA.

THE HOST : " I regret exceedingly, your highness, but it is impossible for me to put you up. Everywhere is crowded."

THE GUEST : " That settles it. Good-morning."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

as profitable to Germany as the power of the Czar in Europe is disadvantageous. On the other hand, if Russia does not get Korea, and if she must abandon southern Manchuria to the Mikado, Germany will become the first enemy of Japan. Russia, embroiled in the affairs of the far East, will leave the Balkan peninsula, Constantinople, and Turkey in Asia almost free to German influence. Even if Russia triumph, it is certain that for many years she cannot be an " offensive " military danger to Germany, and thus the military power of Germany in the old world will be almost doubled without a farthing's extra expense for armaments. Germany seems to know how to deceive Russia, and Russia, concludes M. Chéradame, has always defended herself badly against her patient and tenacious German adversary.

HUNGARIAN STATESMEN AND THEIR PROBLEMS.

GEN. STEPHEN TÜRRETT discusses, in the *Deutsche Revue*, the recent important elections in Hungary. The crucial point of the campaign was the *Ausgleich* (adjustment) with Austria. Tisza, its champion, was defeated; Kossuth, one of the chiefs of the opposition, came out triumphant, but his ally, Count Andrassy, is accounted an advocate of the *Ausgleich*, and that policy is likewise favored by a majority of the Diet. The two great parties are the Liberal party, under the leadership of Tisza, and the coalition party, followers of the ideas of 1848. Both of them equally lack coherence; their adherents are not sufficiently united by common principles and interests to insure their steering the ship of state aright. What the ruling party must do is to act according to existing circumstances, the exigencies of Hungary's condition, and expedience. General Türr himself advocates the *Ausgleich*, though he was, prior to 1867, a champion of the Kossuth policy of opposition to Austria. Since then, the nation has expressed itself in favor of the *Ausgleich* at every election. Kossuth, too, is receding from his extreme position. The latest political developments, however, indicate that the struggle will continue until Hungary wins her demands of to-day.

Finally, General Türr thinks that Hungary should not set an example of discord at a time when Europe is threatened with grave dangers, if the nations continue in their attitude of mutual jealousy. He quotes the saying of the Japanese statesman, Count Okuma: "The great powers of Europe are crumbling; we are the people of the future." "The American giant, too, is stretching itself," General Türr adds, and Europe should present a united front. The following are some of the more striking passages of the article:

In the momentous campaign which came to a close on the 26th of January the leaders were Count Julius Andrassy and Francis Kossuth on one side, and Count Stephen Tisza on the other. These are the sons of the three men who, somewhat differently grouped, confronted one another in 1867. . . . The object of the struggle then was the *Ausgleich* of Deák, just as it is to-day. Count Stephen Tisza, the defender of the *Ausgleich*, has been defeated. But whether that means the defeat of the *Ausgleich* is still a question. . . . Before 1866, Louis Kossuth wrote to me:

For the Hungarian nation there are but two names which can serve as a rallying cry, which have a decided meaning and are understood by the whole people. One is that of Deák; the other, mine. Deák's name signifies a constitutional Hungary under the Hapsburg dynasty, therefore a reconciliation with Austria. My name, on the contrary, signifies the independence of Hungary without any qualification, therefore struggle and war with Austria.

That was clearly spoken. But the nation has spoken no less clearly in the succeeding elections. . . . The Hungarian nation should, of course, go on developing, but upon the present well-proved basis. To destroy is easy; to build up, difficult. . . . The result of the four years' fight is a significant triumph for the name of Kossuth. The success is, however, not a complete one. The Kossuth who is triumphant to-day does not announce "struggle and war against the Hapsburg dynasty." The opponent whom he has conquered is the son of that Tisza who in 1867 combated the *Ausgleich* the most violently, and eight years later became Deák's heir. That is an omen!

Francis Kossuth is very far, we are reminded, from realizing the pure Kossuth programme. The end is so much more remote, "since he does



COUNT ANDRÁSSY, HUNGARIAN STATESMAN.

(The most prominent advocate of the *Ausgleich* with Austria.)

not steer directly toward it, evidently slackens his pace in his onward march, and even turns into by-paths which may lead him into quite another road. This is, naturally, no reproach. On the contrary, Francis Kossuth would do well to rest satisfied with the conquests which have been made."

AN ENGLISH PROGRAMME OF SOCIAL REFORM.

THE failure of the British Labor party in Parliament to advance the cause of social reform is the burden of a great part of Sir John Gorst's article in "Governments and Social Reform" in the *Fortnightly Review* for May. Sir John Gorst is evidently in more sympathy with the Irish Nationalists than with any other party. They have got a leader and a cause. When the question of underfed school children came before the House of Commons few of the Labor members took the trouble to attend, and the debate was a fiasco. Immediately afterward, the question came up of Irish fisheries, and instantly the scene changed. The enthusiasm, the discipline, the leadership, of the Nationalists "produced upon the House of Commons the impression that the whole Irish people took a much greater interest in Irish fish than the mass of the workers of the United Kingdom in the condition of their children."

As for the regular parties, both sides readily make the most extravagant promises, and neither side makes any effort to perform them.

WHAT MIGHT BE DONE.

The House is the House of the rich; they care more about motor cars than about the starving poor.

But one thing is certain. The condition of the people can be speedily and effectively improved by measures well within the power of the people themselves, and the rulers and Parliament which they create. Other nations have entered upon the path of progress, and are already far in advance of us. It is high time for us to follow an example which we ought to have set, and do something to remove the reproach of letting preventable misery and injustice exist among a third of our people.

As Sir John would have the Labor party go to the Irish Nationalists to learn a much-needed lesson, so he would have slow-witted John Bull go to the Germans. The first article in his programme would be to make public provision for insurance against sickness, accident, and old age.

In our country, the first is entirely voluntary; the insurance societies are under no public control, nor is their solvency guaranteed. The prudent insure; the unthrifty do not, but rely on charity or the poor law. It is clearly to the interest of the state that the sick should be cured as speedily and as efficiently as possible.

Even without putting any additional burden on the taxpayer, a great deal could be done to remedy this chaos, which produces extravagance and inefficiency. If hospitals and workhouse infirmaries were coördinated, and thus placed on some logical basis of relationship, more satisfactory results would be achieved. Accidents are partially provided against by the Employers' Liability Act, of which the imperfection is admitted by

everybody, but for the amendment of which no parliamentary time can be spared. Old-age pensions are a monument of the pledges and broken promises of political parties.

THE FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Sir John Gorst would go to France and Belgium for suggestions as to feeding pupils in the schools.

In one most important section of the population, the children of the poor, governments could, with great ease, and at little cost, put an entire stop to destitution and suffering. The right to relief of a destitute starving child, forced by society to go to school and learn lessons, has never received proper attention. If a starving horse or ass were treated in the same way as hundreds of starving children are daily treated by public authority in our public elementary schools the offender would be taken up and punished by the criminal law.

THE SLAUGHTER OF THE INNOCENTS.

He would act upon the recommendation of the Berlin Conference, and legislate against allowing women to earn their living a month before and a considerable time after childbirth. He does not say, although he might have borrowed a hint from Denmark, how he would insure the mother against starvation during that period. He would facilitate the supply of milk, and train girls in the art and science of motherhood.

THE UNEMPLOYED.—LABOR COLONIES.

In dealing with the unemployed, he would again go to the foreigner for hints.

In Germany, there are colonies for the physically or mentally deficient and for the unemployed, besides experimental farms under the designation *Heimatkolonisten*, where unskilled laborers are taught agricultural work, fruit farming, building, and other useful occupations. They have not all of them proved an unqualified success, owing to the percentage of criminals and vagrants who find their way into these refuges. But perfection cannot be attained all at once, and when a better system of classification has been introduced it may be anticipated that a great advance will be made in Germany toward a solution of the unemployed difficulty. In France, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium, there are many institutions of a similar character.

LABOR REGISTRIES.

He would add to his labor colony his labor registry.

Such registries secure that such labor as is being offered shall be made to go as far as possible, and they put an end to the anachronism of good workmen having to tramp in search of work in these days of telegraphs and telephones. In different parts of Germany there

are public labor bureaus managed jointly by employers and workmen, besides numerous relief stations and other institutions. These are in telephonic or telegraphic communication with one another, thus enabling a man in search of work to ascertain without

delay the locality where there is a prospect of his finding it. Some labor registries have been instituted here by private effort, and latterly by municipal bodies. But the central government has established no clearing house to bring local effort into coördination.

A STUDY OF THE CHICAGO TEAMSTERS.

OUTSIDE of Chicago, little was known of the teamsters' union prior to the strike which began last month. It happened, however, that a well-known economist and expert, Prof. John R. Commons, had made a thorough study of the organization that had been effected by the Chicago teamsters, and the facts that he had elicited are set forth at length in the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, of Harvard University.

It appears that the teamsters, who had always been classed as unskilled labor, have discovered their power only within the past three years. At first, the old-line trade-unionists were inclined to ridicule and discourage those who attempted to organize a union among them. An International Team Drivers' Union was chartered by the American Federation of Labor in 1899; this organization admitted to membership a team-owner if he operated not more than five teams. In 1902, the Chicago teamsters seceded from the national organization and formed a new union, including only teamsters and helpers. A driver who owned the team he drove was admitted, but if he owned a team driven by some one else he was excluded. Then followed the organization of the drivers by crafts, which is thus explained by Professor Commons:

Teamsters are employed in every industry. No craft is so necessary and universal. But teaming in one industry is distinct from teaming in another. The laundry driver has little in common with the coal teamster except horses and streets. His problems of unionism, such as methods of payment, hours, and discipline, are different. In 1894, coal teamsters, truck-drivers, and others were in a general union, just as they are to-day in smaller towns. But that union quickly disappeared. In 1886, something similar had occurred under the Knights of Labor. But in 1902 each industry was organized separately in its own "local." Though each is called a local union, it is more than local in the geographical sense. Each local is a distinct craft, with jurisdiction over the entire city for all workmen of its craft, and the principle recognized for all is the same as that explicitly stated by the Ice Wagon Drivers: "Our local union has the powers of self-government, known as local autonomy, and, if deemed advisable, to make such by-laws that will be beneficial to the local organization, such as admitting persons who own and operate one team, regulating initiation fees or dues, honorable withdrawal cards, trials, fines, suspensions, and expulsions in conformity with the general laws."

There are, of course, many cases where locals overlap; and, in order to avoid conflict of jurisdiction, each stable is assigned to the local to which 51 per cent. or more of its work belongs.

Thus, the teamsters of Chicago were the first to establish two principles new to the occupation,—craft autonomy and wage unionism. Starting with these principles, within two years there were organized 47 locals, from the Truck Drivers with over 5,000 members to the Dye House Drivers with 46. Afterward, this differentiation was found too fine, and some of the smaller locals were merged into others. Nearly all were organized during the first year. They created a joint executive council of seven delegates from each local with power over strikes; and in 1903 they amalgamated with the International Team Drivers, which meanwhile had changed its constitution to exclude employers. The organization now is known as the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, with 821 locals in some 300 cities.

INTEREST OF TEAM-OWNERS.

In order to understand the strategic position of the teamsters' union, it is necessary to consider the peculiar nature of the business. An important element of the rapid growth in recognition of the organization was the peculiar interest taken in it by some of the team-owners, whom Professor Commons classifies in two groups,—those who follow teaming for a living and those whose teaming is an adjunct to their general business. The latter group includes the proprietors of department stores, the meat markets, grocers and butchers, brewers, the largest manufacturers, the milk dealers, lumber dealers, railway express companies, ice companies, and some of the wholesale merchants. The former group includes truck-owners, expressmen, van-owners, liverymen, commission team-owners, and, to a lesser degree, coal team-owners, ice-wagon owners, and smaller teaming contractors. Many of the manufacturers, and most of the wholesale merchants and commission houses, do their teaming through contractors. In the case of the manufacturers and wholesale merchants, the teamsters' wages form but a small part of the total expenses. With the retail merchants, the proportion is larger, but with the contracting team-owners the wages of teamsters and helpers are from 50 to 75 per cent. of their total expenses. Competition among these contractors is chiefly a question of the wages and hours of the

competing firms. Thus, as Professor Commons points out, the manufacturer and wholesale merchant are interested in keeping wages low; the team-owner in keeping them equal.

The team-owner has, therefore, welcomed and encouraged the organization of the teamsters, notwithstanding an extraordinary increase in the rates of wages, because the union equalized competition. In taking this attitude, his position has not been the same as that of the merchant or manufacturer, whose cost of trucking was increased, whether done directly or by contract. One consequence is that the team-owners,—by which will be meant those with whom teaming is their business and not an adjunct,—have organized associations, not only as employers to negotiate with the unions, but also as contractors to regulate rates of cartage and livery. The principal associations of this kind are the Chicago Team Owners, dealing with the truck-drivers; the Furniture Movers and Expressmen's Association, dealing with the Van Teamsters and Helpers and the Baggage and Parcel Delivery Drivers and Helpers; the Commission Team Owners, dealing with the Commission Drivers; and four liverymen's associations, dealing with the Hack, Coupé, and Livery Drivers. These associations, by joint agreements, determine the rates of wages and the hours and conditions of labor; and the scales thus determined are the union

scales paid also by merchants and manufacturers not members of the association to their teamsters employed directly. Many of the other teamsters' unions have joint agreements with employers' associations; but such associations, being composed of merchants or manufacturers, are loose and informal, while the associations just mentioned are compact and permanent, some of them with bonds and forfeits, binding them, not only to the scale of wages, but also to the scale of prices.

It appears that the one-team owner who drives his wagon is a kind of connecting link between the ancient guild and modern organization of employers and workmen on class lines. He is eligible either to the teamsters' union or to the team-owners' association. As a member of the owners' association, he is expected to observe the scale of cartage; and as a member of the union, the owners ask that he be made to observe that scale. If this owner is an ice-wagon driver, he requires a helper, and so is not eligible to the union; but he is given a card certifying that he employs a union helper and "is entitled to all the courtesy and respect of members of the I. B. of T."

THE SANITARY IMPORTANCE OF THE MILK-SUPPLY.

AN exhaustive discussion of the importance of a pure milk-supply is contributed to the illustrated review *Kvingsjua*, of Christiania, by Dr. Olav Johan Olsen. The milk-supply of a modern city, this writer insists, is almost, if not quite, as important a factor as the water-supply. In the course of his long study of the subject, Dr. Olsen emphasizes particularly the absolute necessity of a pure milk-supply for children. It may be positively asserted, he declares, that the ratio of death among infants in cities has been in direct proportion to the ease or difficulty with which a supply of fresh milk is obtainable, and the price of the same. Dr. Olsen considers in detail the various methods of adulterating milk. The most common method, he reminds us, is that of adding water, or, as it is commonly referred to, "baptizing the milk." This, however, can easily be detected. Then the milk is skimmed, and all the cream removed. This adulteration can readily be shown by chemical analysis. Another kind of adulteration, much more difficult to discover, however, is that of feeding the cow before milking with salt and preparations to produce much (but thin) milk. Cream is particularly exposed to adulteration; starch is frequently added to it, and even more injurious substances.

In most civilized countries there are severe

penalties for the adulteration of milk. There has not, however, been sufficient legislation on this subject, Dr. Olsen believes. He is particularly severe on certain methods of milk-preservation. Such substances as borax, formaline, and salicylic acid are almost always injurious, except in the minutest quantities. There are cases on record of poisoning through borax in milk. Milk is frequently a means of carrying contagious diseases, particularly since the supply for the large cities has to be transported such great distances. This business grows so much that there is great difficulty in controlling and supervising it. Inflammations of many kinds are caused by impure milk, and, above all, tuberculosis is brought to children in this way. Some physicians deny this, but those who believe in it are increasing in number. The fact that certain contagious diseases are mainly spread by milk is proved by the presence of these diseases among the upper classes, which drink a great deal of milk, and by the fact that when there is a milk epidemic these classes are always first stricken. Dr. Olsen believes that scarlet fever is very often spread by impurities in milk. Indeed, he asserts it can be proved by statistics that in the larger cities of the world abstainers from alcohol who drink milk are more exposed to contagion than those who drink beer at their meals.

Milk used by city consumers generally passes through three hands before it reaches its destination. This increases price and chance for adulteration. In some of the large European cities, ideal establishments for the distribution of milk exist. That of Dr. Bolle, in Berlin, is mentioned. Dr. Bolle superintends the distribution of the milk-supply himself. He receives hundreds of thousands of quarts daily, and gathers it into his own storehouses, where it is pasteurized. That which is not delivered within a certain time is used in the dairies, and the whole

establishment is supervised by first-class physicians and chemists. Paris and Copenhagen have similar institutions. Consumers who get their milk from modern, controlled dairies, which never sell their product when it is older than twenty-four to thirty hours after milking, are practically proof against contagion. Consumers, however, Dr. Olsen advises, should not keep milk in an ice-box, but in an airy and cool room, covered with clean paper. Germs and dust are thus kept away. The milk is also thus guarded from flies, which are the real carriers of contagion.

THE LIÈGE EXHIBITION.

THE exhibition at Liège will coincide, says a writer in the *Nouvelle Revue* of April 1, with the celebration of a national festival dear to all Belgians, for it is just seventy-five years since the independence of Belgium was proclaimed, and the Belgians have certainly not forgotten that their emancipation was provoked by the French July Revolution, and that, so far from being content with proclaiming with enthusiasm the principle of nationalities, France came to their aid and ran the serious risk of offending the powers of the Holy Alliance. Never during the last three-quarters of a century have the relations between France and Belgium been other than most cordial.

Liège is a powerful and magnificent industrial city, with a population of one hundred and eighty thousand. Nowhere is it possible for the observer to discern so easily as at Liège how great has been the struggle between the feudal ages and the modern spirit.

The exhibition covers an enormous area on

the banks of the Meuse and the Ourthe. It is surrounded by green park. Old Liège will occupy the spot between the Ourthe and the Meuse, and will form a citadel, giving access to the industrial section. The fine arts exhibits are in the Jardin d'Acclimatation, and adjoin the pavilions of the French colonies. The French section occupies as much space as all the other foreign sections together.

Since the first international exhibition, at the London Crystal Palace, in 1851, railways and the telegraph have transformed the world, and have overcome the obstacles of distance. Electricity has followed, and has revolutionized industry. Lastly, there has been a moral transformation in international relations, and the nations are gradually learning the wisdom of the principle of arbitration. But as war begins to cease the industrial struggle becomes more and more keen. Thus, foreign exhibitions are to the industries of France as so many battlefields where victories must be won.



THE EXHIBITION BUILDINGS AT LIÈGE.

THE MUNICIPALIZATION OF BAKERIES IN ITALY.

ONE of the reforms most urged by Italian Socialists is the municipalization of bread-making, and several communes have tried the experiment. The commune of Catania began the venture in October, 1902, and a report of the results up to last July has just been published. Antonio Ciaccheri analyzes the report in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), and comments upon it. The commune found ready a fine new bakery that furnished the plant without the expense necessary at Palermo, where \$70,000 was put into ovens and model mills. The deficit at Catania, for the whole period of twenty months, amounts to 112,000 lire, or \$22,000, a large proportion of which is the 660 lire a day indemnity to the former bakers, who are now given the monopoly of sale at a fixed profit. Only a few months ago, however, these bakers became dissatisfied, and, reinforced by other citizens of like mind, created a number of street disturbances. Another disadvantage of the plan is the superabundance of labor, which the municipality is practically forced to provide for by shortening hours or employing more bakers than are absolutely necessary. In fact, these benefits to the laboring class, as well as increase of wages, are promised in advance in the Socialist campaigns. The municipalization has not altered the price of the best bread, although the second and third grades have been sold about half a cent a pound cheaper than elsewhere. The quality, however, instead of improving, has been often worse. During the last month of the investigation, eight out of thirteen tests and two out of ten others showed spoiled bread. The only good result the writer

finds is that the operations are removed from dark, damp, dirty quarters to more hygienic places, a result which might have been brought about by other means. Signor Ciaccheri makes the following comments on municipalization in general :

Certainly, the municipalization of public services merits study and warm approval, but only where the function of the franchise-holder proves a duplication and a useless and damaging form of parasitism ; where industry does not exist, or has an utterly simple form ; where control, instead of being in a numerous body of functionaries, is in bookkeepers, in machines, in constant or semi-constant statistics of production and consumption. But where hazard and the technique of a complicated and varied manufacture enter in, where the purchase of raw materials is in itself a source of speculation and the goods and the products need constant and shrewd surveillance, the work of an impersonal manufacturer, such as a commune, cannot succeed well. Only open competition, the law of supply and demand, the free and conscientious forces of producers and workmen associated in the same work of attaining the greatest ends with the least means, can give the right equilibrium by which industry lives, thrives, and perfects itself. Make the commune the grand monopolist of bread, of flour, of pastry, of meat, of all necessary food products, and you will have, as an economic law, first stagnation and then retrogression. The only class to benefit, perhaps, and that only temporarily and at the expense of the others, would be the laborers, who, made strong in their privileged condition, would impose an increase of wages to which the commune would have to submit, with the result of seeing public wealth absorbed by almost imperceptible but inevitable processes to an artificial collectivism with all the defects of collectivism but without the only quality that would render it less odious,—that of being true, universal collectivism, and not one created for the benefit of a single class.

AN ITALIAN ESTIMATE OF MARK TWAIN.

LIVIA PRUNI gives, in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), an appreciative sketch of Mark Twain, showing a wide knowledge of him and of his works, only one of which, "The Prince and the Pauper," has been translated into Italian. An attempt is made in this article to render several short stories into Italian, after the acknowledgment that the humor is almost untranslatable. In fact, the article begins by noting that no language but English has a word for "humor," which is found only in English, American, and a few German writers. The writer continues :

Humor has not the brilliant vivacity of French wit, bursting from malicious phrases like a laugh from the lips of a pretty girl ; it is not the expression of a frank

and careless, gayety that overflows in certain tales of Boccaccio, in certain chapters of Berni, in so many pages of the inexhaustible Rabelais. Humor is finer, more philosophical, above all more suggestive, always slightly sarcastic, and touched at times with an involuntary, quiet sentiment of sadness. The humorist knows how to catch the comic and ridiculous side of a weakness, an idiosyncrasy, or any moral abnormality, and quietly ridicules it, keeping up an imperturbable seriousness that gives great effect to the joke. There is no treatise on literature defining this kind of wit, and in fact such a definition would be extremely difficult. How can one analyze the subtle magic that wrests a smile from you when reading certain scenes of Shakespeare, certain pages of Cervantes, or of our Manzoni ? However, definitions abound for that which the French call *esprit* and the English *wit*. According to Samuel Johnson, wit is a faculty of the mind that unexpectedly combines dissimilar ideas, and Peruzzi, speaking of

Berni, observes that the principal characteristic of his writings is the genius with which the author finds resemblances between things entirely different, and the opportune use of strange metaphors and comparisons, sometimes sublime, and perhaps all the droller when considered in connection with the subject they illustrate. But the humorist, while using such artifices, does not content himself with them. He does not aim to take you by assault with unexpected couplings of labored brilliancy, but conquers you gradually, and knows how to give to his phrase an apparently serious tone that wins the reader at first sight, and at last draws from him a laugh without his really knowing how the trick was done. In this the Americans are first, and they show in it an imagination full at the same time of energy and of ingenuity, a childish gayety united with a quizzical good humor that delights in exaggeration, in impossibilities, in endless oddities, an infinite art of not expressing the thought all at once, but of veiling it subtly, a continual intention of involving in a single joke both the object of the discourse and the reader himself.

As an example, the writer quotes Mark Twain's description of the people of Civita Vecchia, who were not rendered proud by the possession of other insects than the flies they spent their leisure in catching. Continuing, the writer says :

One characteristic of Anglo-Saxon humor should be specially held in mind,—it is always wholesome and clean. In Italy and France, wit too often is based on obscenity. The true humorist has no need of this string to his lyre, and flees from *décolleté* phrases as being too easy effects.

Further on, in the course of the sketch of Mr. Clemens' life, this characteristic is noted in him : "Needless to say that Mark Twain's jokes are never licentious. His wit never shines at the

expense of modesty, nor offends any belief,—no small merit in our days." After noting his later tendency to wish to be taken seriously, and his spiritualistic and "fad" proclivities, the writer says :

By frequent travel, by contact with all that the European world has of most intellectual, his culture, begun rather late, has been marvelously extended; and his mind, ever democratic, is now more liberal toward all that is not of North America. Indeed, many American prejudices provoke some of his most happily sarcastic phrases. He is, perhaps, no longer so convinced and haughty in his disdain for the present European world, that in truth has many sins, but which has for advantage over America that it has fashioned a life certainly less lucrative, but also less agitated and less deprived of satisfaction for the intellect and sentiment. Europe has at present a lively fascination for the old humorist, and, in Europe, France and Italy please him most. Did he not maltreat us Italians enough in his first travel books ! Neither was he all wrong, given our miserable political state. But now he has made amends, and the young, rising nation has all his sympathy. We shall see soon, since he is never idle, if some of the pages that he will write in the green tranquillity of the Florentine villa where he is spending these months will be inspired by the beautiful and merry Florence, and we prophesy that the inspiration will be like that of former times,—bold and blithe, without too many social and scientific themes. We are happy to conclude these lines by saying that he has the honor of having kept himself ever an enthusiast for liberty, for truth, for justice, a bitter enemy of every kind of oppression, and that such sentiments have inspired him to write hundreds of generous pages, and justly procured him the sympathy of persons of every country, of every faith, of every party,—the greatest eulogy and the highest prize of an honest conscience and an indomitable activity such as his.

HENRY H. ROGERS—MONOPOLIST.

AN intimate study of the vice-president and acting executive of the Standard Oil Company, Mr. Henry H. Rogers, appears in the *World's Work* from the pen of John S. Gregory. Mr. Rogers is an avowed monopolist, says Mr. Gregory. When a boy, Mr. Rogers believed in the concentration of power. He organized his schoolmates for offensive and defensive purposes. One of the games was playing war. When he left school he became a clerk in the Union Grocery Store. It was one of a chain of stores throughout the State that, by means of combination, was able to buy goods lower than individual competitors and thereby undersell them.

This idea made a profound impression on him as he weighed sugar and counted eggs. It has been a cardinal business principle with him ever since. He has waged relentless business conflict and always marshaled his forces so that competition has been made impossible.

Business with him is war. He is to-day the active head of the Standard Oil Company, around whose far-flung battle line a great industrial combat is being fought.

Mr. Rogers, however, has other interests besides making money for himself. He has found time to render a distinct service to American literature, and his friendship with Mark Twain reveals a phase of his character that is little known. It began long before he knew Mr. Clemens. Once, years ago, Mr. Rogers read "Roughing It." He liked it so much that he read it again. Then he read it to his wife and to his children. He said, "If I ever have the chance to help the man who wrote it, I will." And the chance came.

When Webster & Company (of which Mark Twain was a member) failed, every asset of the famous humorist, including the copyrights of his books, went down in

the wreck. It was what is called "a bad failure." Mr. Clemens surrendered everything. Not long afterward, he walked into the Murray Hill Hotel one night with Dr. Rice, a well-known New York specialist. A man with a white mustache was seated on a divan.

"There's a man you ought to know," said Dr. Rice, "and he'd like to know you. That's Henry H. Rogers."

Dr. Rice presented Mr. Clemens. Mr. Rogers knew of the Webster failure. He asked permission to be of service. In forty-eight hours he was managing the author's business affairs. He gave his time, worth thousands of dollars a day, to recoup the fortunes of a broken literary man. Into it he put all his business acumen and energy. He found that Webster & Company owed Mrs. Clemens personally \$65,000 cash lent from her own pocket, upon the firm's notes. He made her a preferred creditor, and to secure the claim gave her the copyrights of her husband's books. In this way the books were saved for Mr. Clemens. They have

been his principal assets. They were worth more to him than the gift of half a million dollars in cash.

Mr. Rogers saw Mr. Clemens safely through these trying business troubles. But he did not stop there. Ever since, he has, with a few others, constituted himself a guardian of Mr. Clemens' business affairs.

Last year he aided in consummating the deal for the publication of Mark Twain's complete works, which placed the author beyond financial care for the rest of his days. Out of that service has grown an affectionate friendship between the men, remarkable for its contrast,—on the one hand the astute, vigilant man, with his finger always on the business pulse, and on the other, the lovable, dreamy humorist. They meet often, play euchre, and go on yachting trips.

GEORGE BERNARD SHAW.

THE most talked-of playwright in England at the present time seems to be George Bernard Shaw. A few weeks since, Sloane Square, London, was almost blocked with carriages when the King was pleased to go to see "John Bull's Other Island," and now we have both the great British quarterlies treating Mr. Shaw quite seriously as a dramatist of genius and a serious reformer. The *Edinburgh Review* considers him "as a reformer—a voice crying in the wilderness of trivial work and mean ambition, a voice still hoarse with exhortation, still a little forced from having had to carry over the heads of a crowd."

His supreme gift as a dramatist is to produce an impression of life which seems, and which is, more real than reality. His plays seem to write themselves.

Mr. Shaw contrives to make even his most serious work simmer with laughter, but the humor is evolved, not added; epigrams are not stuck on the outside of the talk like sugared almonds, and even his wit suffers, as it should suffer, when removed from the setting.

Considering the difficulty of seeing Mr. Shaw's plays on the stage, one must be grateful to his ingenuity in making them acceptable in the study.

REFORMER.

He regards romance "as the great heresy to be swept off from art and life—as the food of modern pessimism

and the bane of modern self-respect," and declares that "idealism, which is only a flattering name for romance in politics and morals," is as obnoxious to him as romance in ethics or religion.

Now, perverse as such views may seem to those who never have taken the road beside a reformer, they will be recognized as inevitable by those who have.

PROBLEM POSER.

Problem has ever been at the root of his work. No drama without conflict; no conflict without something to decide. All life worthy the name is a problem; and every play that would reproduce life must be either a problem or a platitude. A people that is unconscious of having problems to solve, that has outlived its interest in the interpretation of life, is beginning to be at the end of its intellectual resources. Senile decay is as surely indicated in a nation as in a man by a dull acquiescence in the immutability of things; and the literature of a waning race is almost always diverted from the great questions of conduct before it expires in aesthetic trivialities. Hence, Mr. Shaw's determination "to accept problem as the normal material of the drama," and his understanding of drama as "the presentation in parable of the conflict between man's will and his environment," are a pledge at least of vitality in his ideas, and vitality working itself out as creative philosophy is the supreme necessity to the art of the stage.

PHILOSOPHER.

Of Mr. Shaw's philosophy a good deal has been said. It is, indeed, a little too novel for the creation of popular drama. But years have already modified its novelty to himself, and as he shortens sail the years will bring the van of the public within more certain hail of him. The defiant assertiveness of the earlier plays has given place to tolerance.

Greater work than he has done he may yet do; but it must be conceived by a less contentious spirit and wrought in a serener air. He has done for us a deal of much-needed preaching; but while it needs but the understanding of what men should not be to equip the Preacher, to the Pardoner must be discovered the deeper mystery of what they are.



MR. GEORGE BERNARD SHAW.

THE ORIGIN OF THE WELSH BIBLE.

THE world-wide attention which is now directed to the Welsh revival, and consequently to Welsh religion in general, invests with special interest an article in the *Church Quarterly* on the translators of the Welsh Bible. The "three illustrious scholars and patriots" whose combined labors gave the Welsh their Bible were Richard Davies, Bishop of St. David's; William Salesbury, the scholar-squire of Llanrwst, and William Morgan, Bishop of St. Asaph.

Davies was born in 1501, the son of the rector of Gyffin, who, though a Catholic priest, was married; studied at Oxford; married in 1550, and settled down as parish priest at Burnham; fled to Geneva when Mary came to the throne; returned on Elizabeth's accession, and was by her made Bishop, in 1560, of St. Asaph's, and next year of St. David's. In 1563 an act was passed commanding the five Welsh bishops to arrange for the translation into Welsh of the Scriptures and Liturgy in four years. Bishop Davies undertook the task, and called to his aid Salesbury, an Oxford friend, who had formed the idea of reviving the Welsh language, had published "the first book ever issued in the vernacular," a work entitled "The Welshman's Common Sense," and had also published "Llitha Ban," a book which comprised translations of the Epistles and Gospel. This last was "the first recorded appearance in print of any considerable portion of the Holy Scriptures in the Welsh tongue." Salesbury took in hand the version of

the New Testament, Davies of the Prayer Book. Before the close of 1567, both these tasks were complete and were given to the world.

This achievement saved the Welsh language from sinking into disuse, and established for future generations the highest standard of the language. Services in Welsh were introduced in all the parishes. Salesbury's work has been charged by some critics with being pedantic, rugged, and surfeited with English words and expressions. But it is remarkable for the wealth of its vocabulary, and the translator had often to coin for himself his theological terms.

The two scholars were proceeding with a joint translation of the Old Testament when they quarreled hopelessly over the etymology of one word (the word is not recorded) and parted company. Much progress had, however, been made, and the manuscripts were, the reviewer thinks, open to the use of Morgan, who, in 1588, seven years after Davies' death, published a complete and revised translation of the whole Bible and Apocrypha. "The final version of 1620" was the work of Bishop Richard Parry and his brother-in-law, Dr. John Davies, of Mallwyd. The reviewer awards the chief glory of the work to Bishop Davies and Salesbury, and by implication to Salesbury, who, sole and unaided, performed the decisive and difficult task of the first translation. It is interesting that the family whence this first translator sprang was "made in Germany," deducing name and origin from Salzburg.

PLANT GALLS.

THE habit that some insects have of depositing their eggs in the stems or the leaves of plants, where the wormlike larvæ hatch and live until they are ready to metamorphose into the winged form of adult life, reacts on the plant to produce the peculiar deformations of structure called galls, that are of so much interest, both from the standpoint of factors influencing the mode of growth of a plant and from the remarkable nature of the galls themselves, one kind of gall, growing on the oak, having come into especial prominence on account of its use in the manufacture of invisible ink, while the same gall, mixed with certain chemicals, makes a very permanent kind of ink which in some States is required by law for certain records.

The subject is discussed by Dr. M. C. Howard in the last number of *Annales des Sciences Naturelles* (Paris). Some galls, as he shows, are pro-

duced by internal, others by external, parasites; they may appear at the end of the stem, or farther back, between the nodes of the stem, and in some instances they are found even on the roots of the plant. The same kind of insect always produces the same form of gall on the same kind of plant. One insect attacks the petiole of the poplar leaf and produces a hollow, spherical gall about half an inch in diameter, provided with a narrow slit on one side through which the insects may come and go, and a myriad of them use this as a winter residence.

Another gall, on Bermuda grass, resembles a long braid of hair. The parasite in this case takes up its abode in the axis of the stalk of grass, and by its presence interferes with the growth of the shoot, so that the spaces between leaves are much shortened and the leaves themselves cannot attain full development, becoming

more like scales. These stunted leaves, folded around the stem, give the characteristic braided appearance.

In May, the larva of a certain fly hatches out in the stem of thyme, near the tip of the leaf stalk, with the result that the stem never lengthens to any extent, the leaves grow very little and lose their color, and the general appearance becomes that of a small cone.

Another kind of fly spends its larval life in the tip of the ground hemlock stem, affecting its growth in such a way that a loose cone is formed of the half-grown, curved leaves.

Another gall-fly pierces the stem of young growing wheat to deposit its eggs, and when the larvæ hatch a small gall is formed that stunts the growth of the wheat and causes great loss to the wheat growers.

All life is mysterious. What the formative, controlling principles of the simplest organism are, nobody knows. Whether the dynamics of life depend upon something related to chemical affinity, or to molecular arrangement, or to some entirely different condition, cannot be answered. Each individual begins life as a minute, proto-

morphic mass of living matter which in some way synthetizes non-living material into substance like itself, and throughout existence compels it to take a certain form that is constant, in the main, for a given species, although subject to some slight variations, perhaps, as the result of living under more or less favorable conditions.

But in the case of the formation of a gall, an external influence comes in with the egg and larva of the insect, and so affects the vital processes that the plant grows in a way entirely foreign to itself,—a hollow sphere grows where a smooth stem should be, or a knotted woody structure with no resemblance whatever to the leaf that should have developed, normally. What is the nature of the new principle that produces such an effect? The controlling principle already in force becomes so modified under the action of the new principle that something entirely different results, capable of molding a new type of structure, but as to the real nature of this, very little can be said. Whatever it is, it affects the growth of the tissues in every particular, changing the form of the constituent cells, and the nature of their secretions.

LATE ESTIMATES OF THE YUKON'S WEALTH.

GOLD-MINING in the Klondike region attracts comparatively little attention at the present time, and little would be known of the prospects of that country but for an occasional magazine article like that contributed by Mr. C. M. Woodworth to the *Canadian Magazine* for February. Mr. Woodworth has made a careful tabulation of the entire production of Yukon gold from the time of its discovery to the close of 1904, and he disregards the figures shown in the Canadian government reports as too small, since the royalty tax, while it existed, was a constant incentive for the concealment of the true figures. Every fair test, he thinks, fixes the total at about, or in excess of, one hundred and thirty millions of dollars. This is nearly twice the amount of the entire placer output of British Columbia from 1858 to 1903, inclusive.

As to the question, "Is the Klondike nearly worked out?" two answers may be given: "If the conditions and methods of mining which prevailed in 1898 were still in vogue, the answer would be in the affirmative. At that time, drifts paying less than \$8 to the cubic yard, or five cents to the pan of gravel, were abandoned; wages were \$15 a day, and no machinery was used. Present conditions, however, are altogether different; ground yielding two cents per

pan, or \$3.25 to the cubic yard, is now considered as good pay, while a drift bearing half that pay would not be abandoned if the pay-streak were continuous and not too thin. Steam shovels and hydraulic works are coming into use. By methods now in common use, gravels yielding from \$2 per ton upward are commonly worked, but with the steam shovels and hydraulic workings already installed, ground yielding fifty cents to the cubic yard on the average has already been worked at a profit. In California and other countries, where hydraulic mining is in vogue, gravels yielding less than ten cents to the cubic yard have been worked at a profit. In the Yukon, however, the fact that much of the gravel is frozen, together with the remoteness of the territory, will prevent such cheap workings. It is estimated, however, by this writer, that twenty-five cents to the cubic yard should pay handsomely. In the region lying within one hundred miles east of Dawson, it is believed that there are more than fifty square miles of hills, carrying a depth of from 25 to 125 feet of pay gravel which will yield an average of more than twenty-five cents to the cubic yard. At least twenty square miles of hills in the Klondike basin are much richer. One square mile of Paradise Hill, on Hunker

Creek, will produce fifty millions of dollars, of which one-half will be profit. The hills of the Klondike basin will produce, it is believed, more than eight hundred millions of dollars, while those in the Indian and Stewart river districts will produce at least half as much. These will be worked by hydraulic systems. As for the

creeks, many of these have already been worked over by wasteful methods, while others have not yet been prospected. These old claims will in future be worked over by steam shovels or by hydraulic elevators, and it is estimated that they will produce one-half as much more as they have already produced.

THE POLES AND THE LANGUAGE QUESTION IN RUSSIA.

THAT the bloody outbreaks in Russian Poland, which have been so prominent a feature of the events of the past few months, are something more than a passing phenomenon; and that the question of a rehabilitated Polish nation is one of the pressing issues of the future, both for Russia and for Germany, is the emphatic opinion of a careful writer in the *Deutsche Monatsschrift*. He reviews concisely, but with considerable minuteness of detail, the economic situation of the Poles, not only in Russian Poland proper, but in the largely Polish provinces of Lithuania and Little Russia. In the last-named province, the Poles are making comparatively little progress economically; but both in Lithuania and in Poland proper, they are gaining more and more the upper hand, by virtue of superior ability and culture. In Lithuania, this is manifested chiefly in the domain of agriculture; in Poland proper, it is shown in the rapid industrial and commercial development of recent years. In this connection it is pointed out that the Jews in Poland, and especially the educated Jews, are thoroughly identified with the Polish spirit, and "omit no opportunity to give evidence of this feeling." Coming to the question of politics and parties, the writer points out that there are two classes of parties, the social and the political, and it is the social parties that he regards as of the greater importance.

The party of greatest importance, this writer continues, is that of the "Ugodowce." It constitutes the National-Polish section of the Democratic Jewish-Slavonic party. Its plans can be understood only in the light of the Pan-Slavist ideas.

It holds out an attainable end, not a Utopia, like the object of the Pan-Poles,—a "fatherland from sea to sea." The Ugodowce have thus formulated their political aspirations: Russian Poland, along with Galicia, is to be a member of a great Slavic confederacy of states, in which Russia (Muscovy) is to assume the hegemony. Within the limits of this confederacy, the Polish tongue is to be the language of the country, and Russia is to have no right to interfere in any of the inner concerns of the state. Customs duties between the individual states are, of course, inadmissible. And here the modern, commercial Pole comes to the fore. It is no longer

possible for Russian Poland, with its highly developed industries, to exist to-day without Russia as an outlet; unless, indeed, it were to have its own export harbor whence it could send out its productions into the markets of the world. The reacquisition of Posen, etc., is spoken of as merely a question of time; this is to be peacefully achieved by the proletarians, whose hands are needed in German industry.

The Poles, and with them all non-Russians, regard the Muscovite as incapable of exercising the hegemony in a Slav state, because Russia proper, as compared with the regions bordering upon it, is at least two centuries behind in the development of its civilization.

But for another Slavic group, outside of the Poles, to assume the leadership would be out of the question. The only point for the Poles, meanwhile, is to remain Poles and to enlist the sympathies of the Russian educated classes, and these classes are to-day advancing decidedly in the direction desired by the Poles.

The Poles' Fight for Their Language.

The struggle for rights in Russian Poland to-day may be of two kinds, observes the Polish *Zgoda* (Concord), of Chicago,—the struggle for a right which is, and the struggle for a right which is not.

In the first case, the nation should resist all demands of the local authorities that are in excess of the existing Russian law. In the second case, the nation should claim the just and due rights taken away from it at some former time by the formal decree of the supreme authority of the state. The best instance of the first kind of struggle is the resolution adopted by a number of communes in the kingdom of Poland* demanding that the minutes of the communal assemblies, and all the correspondence of the commune, be conducted in the Polish language. There is no formal law removing from communal business the vernacular language in favor of the Russian language. The gradual dislodging of the Polish language from the commune was the work of the local Russian officials, who availed themselves of the ignorance of the peasants and imposed on them a foreign language where the law allowed the Poles to use their own language. The return to the Polish language in the communes is, therefore, a

* That part of Russian Poland which was formed by the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, into a "kingdom" united to Russia merely by the bond of a personal union, the Russian Emperor being King of Poland. In the eyes of the Russians, the "kingdom of Poland" alone constitutes Russian Poland.

struggle for a right which is, against a wrong which, according to law, ought not to be. In such a struggle, even the Russian Government cannot employ coercion, if the people will abide unitedly by their rights. The police may, of course, molest the leaders and advisers, and even arrest and oppress them, but the public in general will not suffer as much as it would in the case of an armed revolution, while the sacrifice of individuals will be highly beneficial and instructive. Another such case will be the banishment from the common schools of the Russian language as the language of instruction. There is a law in the Russian Empire that the state language is to be the language of instruction in the higher and secondary schools. For the common schools, however, the Russian code has kept the native language of the local population. It is just on this basis that the Jews teach their children in the Hebrew and Jewish languages in their schools; the Tatars teach theirs in the Tatar and Arabic languages; the Armenians in the Armenian language; and the Germans in the German language. On the Poles, however, the local educational authorities imposed the Russian language in the town schools, and the peasants did not resist, judging, in their simplicity, that there is such a law, and that it must, therefore, be so.

In some villages the peasants have already set about the regulation of their schools on the basis of the existing law. That work, says the *Zgoda*, "will be a truly national, patriotic, and beneficial work."

For almost forty years the government has violated, in Poland, the cardinal principle of pedagogics,—throwing out honest and learned professors of Polish nationality and filling the schools of its Polish provinces with Muscovite ragamuffins whom the Muscovites themselves did not want in their own schools,—but the Polish parents have sent their children to these schools, so as to secure to them the school diploma, without which it is hard to help one's self in life. . . . And now, after so many years of this torture, the Polish nation has awaked, and has instituted a school strike. The government has, it is true, closed the schools, but it cannot keep them closed forever, for that would be an international scandal, and to such things the Russian Government has always been very sensitive. If, therefore, the Poles persevere in their opposition; if the parents will not be daunted by the loss to their children of a year or two of the school, the government will have to enter into some negotiations with the community, and make some concessions.

We read in the dispatches of March 20 that Henrik Sienkiewicz has raised his voice on this question. In an article which has attracted the attention of the whole world, the great writer represents the entire abnormality of the school in Russian Poland. The world, which had not cared to read what had been written of this matter by hundreds of Polish journalists during scores of years, has now perused this voice of the only Polish writer whom it knows and whom it trusts.

On the courage of the Polish community, therefore, will depend the further course of this movement. The

community should not submit to the government; the government will have to yield to the nation. This will be a struggle for rights in the full sense of that expression. It will be possible to raise and wage many other struggles of this kind, without plunging the whole land in a bath of blood and fire. In those struggles there will be a sufficient number of dramatic episodes, opportunities enough for the manifestation of heroism, victims and sufferings enough; but there will be neither a universal calamity nor a universal havoc.

With the object, then, of turning Russia's plight to the advantage of the Polish nation, the Polish National Democratic party, or, as it is popularly called, the Pan-Polish party, undertook, as the first step of a broad political action, the struggle for the Polish language in the commune. The political programme of which this struggle is the first step aims at the broad autonomy of the kingdom of Poland,—that is, complete separateness of the political constitution, of legislation, of the system of administration, of the judiciary, of public education and finances,—based on its recognition as a country absolutely Polish. The action inaugurated by the National Democrats harmonized in such a measure with the healthy instincts of the Polish community that even those patriotic elements which stand most removed from the National Democratic party appreciated its importance and took part in it. In November, the National Democratic party issued, in the Cracow *Polak* (the Pole,—its monthly organ for the peasants), an address calling upon all the communes in the kingdom of Poland to remove the Russian language from communal administration by means of formal resolutions at their quarterly assemblies. The authorities used all endeavors to prevent such action being taken by the communal assemblies; but the peasants eagerly and earnestly heeded the signal of the National Democratic party, and, according to the latest reports, resolutions demanding administration in the Polish language have been adopted by over three hundred communes, which represents a population of almost two millions. Greater attention is given by the government to the movement among the peasants demanding the Polish language in communal administration than to the labor riots, or even to the school strike, in Poland.

For this movement confirms the fact, long known, that the government's denationalizing policy with respect to the Polish peasant has failed; and this failure is perceived with irritation by the bureaucratic spheres. Years ago, after the crushing of the Polish revolution, in 1864, Milutin and his comrades in the ministry were uncertain as to the side on which the Polish peasant would stand; to-day, the government sees clearly that the Polish peasant stands in a body of seven million for Polishness. This is probably the profoundest revolution in the history of Poland.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

The Methods of the Trusts.—Expositions of the trust iniquities and the secrets of corporate profits are still favorite topics in the popular magazines. In *Everybody's* for June, in addition to what the editor describes as the pivotal installment of Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's "Frenzied Finance," Mr. Charles E. Russell analyzes the Garfield report on the beef industry with a view to showing that since the report deals with only one phase of the trust organizations and a small part of the trust operations, most of its conclusions are valueless.—Mr. John R. Dunlap sets forth quite briefly, in *Success*, the transportation secrets of the Standard Oil Company, which at the present time are all related to a development of the great system of pipe lines, forty thousand miles in length, by which the Standard has secured supremacy and is able to dictate terms to producers all over the country.—In the *World's Work*, Mr. Sereno S. Pratt suggests certain needed reforms in the management of our American insurance companies. He shows that a greater proportion of the income of foreign insurance companies is returned to policy-holders than of American companies. The first step in reform that he advocates is mutualization. It is urged, further, that the directors should be men actively interested in insurance, and not selected merely for advertising purposes; that there should be an end to the scramble for new business, and a limitation in size; and that there should be a reduction in commissions and other expensive methods of exploitation.

American History.—Prof. George P. Fisher's account of "A Visit to Washington on the Eve of the Civil War," which appears in the June *Scribner's*, is full of allusions to men and measures now half forgotten on account of the rush of events that followed immediately upon the firing on Fort Sumter. One of Professor Fisher's acquaintances at that time was the well-known Samuel Sullivan Cox, better known in later times as "Sunset Cox," who was then a Representative from Ohio, but for some years before his death a Representative from New York City. Cox rehearsed with Professor Fisher a speech that he had composed to be delivered in the House, and when his auditor frankly confessed his impression that each of the rival parties would consider the speech as being on its side, Cox remarked that that was just what he wanted. Professor Fisher met President Buchanan, General Cass, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, Senator Trumbull, of Illinois, Senator Sumner, Senator Seward, and other leading personalities of the day.—The *Century* for June prints some recollections of Gen. Jubal Early, the Confederate commander, written by one of his followers. It was Early who in the summer of 1864 "marched his ragged regiments within sight of the White House and camped all night within cannon-shot of the city of Washington." In those days Early gave the Federal generals in and about Washington many a bad quarter of an hour;

but, as this writer concludes, "he was not a Jackson or a Lee, nor was he, in my judgment, the equal of John B. Gordon, who succeeded him. To his followers, he will always be 'Old Jube.'"—This number of the *Century* seems to have been put together with conscious reference to the associations clustering about Memorial Day, for there are articles on "Boys in the Union Army," by George L. Kilmer; "What a Boy Saw of the Civil War," by Leighton Parks; and "A Pupil's Recollections of Stonewall Jackson," by Thomas M. Semmes.—A pleasing chapter in President Roosevelt's career heretofore but sparingly treated by his biographers is contained in an article contributed by S. Addison Wolf to the June number of *Pearson's*. The article is entitled "Roosevelt's First Lesson in Statecraft," and gives an account of the young ranchman's experiences in organizing government on the frontier in the early eighties. The county of Billings was brought into existence in 1885 chiefly through the efforts of young Roosevelt, who was the leader in all attempts to establish law and order in that frontier community.—"Some old Scouts and Their Deeds" is the title of a contribution to the June *Outing*, by David Lansing. This article is illustrated by rare old photographs of such well-known frontier characters as "Ned Buntline," "Buffalo Bill," "Texas Jack," Seth Kinman, Capt. Jack Hayes, Kit Carson, Sam Houston, and a number of Indian chiefs and scouts.—In *Munsey's Magazine* the story of the oldest ship in the United States navy is related by George R. Miller. This, contrary to the prevalent belief, is not the *Constitution*, but her sister ship, the *Constellation*, which was launched just forty-four days before the *Constitution*. Dating from 1797, both ships now outrank in age almost every other naval vessel now afloat under any flag, the most conspicuous exception being the *Victory*, which was Nelson's flagship at Trafalgar one hundred years ago. The *Constellation* is still in service as a receiving ship at Newport. She fought in one or two famous sea-fights under Commodore Truxton more than a hundred years ago.

College Athletics.—The influence of commercialism in college sports is discussed in *McClure's* for June by Henry Beach Needham. The practice of subsidizing college athletes, which is known to prevail in some of the larger Eastern institutions, is described in detail, names and other identifying facts being stated in several instances.—Ralph D. Paine, writing in the June *Outing*, also condemns those college athletes "who make a business of sport and chase the dollar with as much ardor as the pigskin," but he contends that there is another side to the case. The practice of teaching physical culture as a livelihood, or combining the duties of school or college instructor with those of directing gymnasium and field work, is entirely commendable in itself, but the man who does this successfully, as Mr.

Paine points out, is "in a different class from the graduate who makes a profession of coaching football teams three months in the year and who makes a failure of everything else he undertakes during the other nine months."

Is Typhoid a Necessary Evil?—Many facts are marshaled by Samuel Hopkins Adams in the June *McClure's* to show that certain American cities which have had their epidemics of typhoid fever in recent years might have been saved such costly experiences if ordinary sanitary precautions had been taken. Some of these cities have repented and taken tardy steps to lock the stable after the horse has escaped, but the darker side of the picture reveals other cities still reveling in their sins against sanitation and threatened with visitations as severe as any that history records.—The aim of modern medicine to abolish all infectious diseases is clearly set forth in an article contributed to *Leslie's* for June by Dr. A. C. Seely.

Notes of Travel.—Apropos of the approaching completion of the steel railroad bridge across the gorge below Victoria Falls, a brief description of the cataract is contributed to the June *Century* by Mr. Theodore F. Van Wagenen. This writer protests that there is no possibility of comparison between Victoria Falls and Niagara. Niagara he characterizes as a perfect picture in a lovely natural framework, while Victoria is "simply a phenomenon, a terrific gash in the floor of an apparently unending plain, which as one gazes simply swallows a river in a manner that produces almost a thrill of horror." It is likely that the Victoria Falls will be carefully studied by the geological section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, which will hold its meeting next year in South Africa. The floor of the new bridge will be more than four hundred feet above the water of the Zambesi River.—"Across the Highlands of the World" is the title given to Mr. Charles Johnson Post's graphic account of his recent journey through the interior of South America from La Paz, over the Andes and across the continent, out into the Atlantic by way of the Amazon, which appears in the June number of *Harper's*. Comparatively

little has been written of these South American tablelands, and, hard as it may appear, it is probably true that readers in the United States are more familiar with the Himalayas than with the Andes, so far as knowledge may be gained through literary channels. Most of the country described by Mr. Post is a veritable desert.—In the *Metropolitan Magazine*, Dr. Sheldon Jackson, who has been for twenty-eight years the United States agent for education in Alaska, and who always writes authoritatively on Alaskan topics, contributes a well-written account of "Our Barbarous Eskimos in Northern Alaska." Dr. Jackson declares that the Eskimos of Alaska are a much finer race physically than their kindred of Greenland and Labrador. They are not all of low stature, as is commonly believed. Dr. Jackson says that from Cape Prince of Wales to Icy Cape, along the Arctic coast and on the great inland rivers emptying into the Arctic Ocean, many of the Eskimos are six feet and over in height. They are lighter in color and fairer than the North American Indian, have black and brown eyes, black hair (some with a tinge of brown), high cheek-bones, fleshy faces, small hands and feet, and good teeth.—The island of Crete, which is just now very much in the public eye because of the movement for annexation to Greece, is the subject of an entertaining article in *Scribner's* for June by Blanche Emily Wheeler. For many years the island was almost an unknown land to travelers, but since 1897, when autonomy was granted to the people of Crete under the suzerainty of the Porte and Prince George of Greece was appointed high commissioner, foreigners have been invited to visit the island, and have done so with perfect safety. Archæologists were the first strangers to take advantage of the open door, and the explorations conducted by Italian, English, French, and American excavators have already yielded valuable returns.—In the same magazine, Dr. Henry van Dyke offers suggestions of what may be found by the traveler among the Quantock Hills, and recalls some of the literary associations of the region.—In the June number of *Outing*, Mr. Clifton Johnson contributes a description of the headwaters of the Mississippi River, illustrated by his own photographs.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The International Chamber of Agriculture.—The International Congress of Agriculture, meeting in Rome, as this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS is issued, to discuss the formation of an International Chamber of Agriculture, has aroused much more interest in Italy than in this country. Since the articles we mentioned in the May number, several others have appeared in Italian reviews. In the *Giornale degli Economisti*, Prof. Maffeo Pantaleoni, one of the warmest supporters of the idea, defended the project against various attacks. Signor Antonio Agresti, whom we quoted last month, issued a small book, with a preface by Mr. David Lubin, the originator, entitled "The Green International; or, The International Institute of Agriculture," giving a conversation on an Atlantic liner, with an American, an Englishman, a Frenchman, a German, a Spaniard, and an Italian as speakers, and discussing, pro and con, the whole project. Signor Antonio Monzilli, from whose opposing article we quoted last month,

takes this book and the above-mentioned article as text for a twenty-page attack on the scheme in the *Italia Moderna*. He regards international measures as entirely useless for Italian needs, and inferentially for those of other countries. Credit is already world-wide, capital flowing where it is needed, and an international organization would meet the same obstacles that the many local agrarian credit associations do,—that is, length of loan terms, insufficient security, and the low rate of interest possible. As to information of prices and markets, he considers present machinery efficient and sufficient. Museums and exhibits are in abundance rather than deficiency, and makers of improved machinery have their own methods for stimulating its introduction. In the fight against plant and animal diseases, there is lack of community of interest, and countries of diverse interest would be slow to accept uniform laws, or to assume financial burdens resulting from destruction of crops or animals of another country for

the common good. The writer doubts if parliaments would receive with submission the suggestions of the two houses of the chamber, and thinks it would be vexatious to have agents of the chamber executing regulations in the various countries in opposition to or competition with governmental agents. International agrarian insurance he thinks as Utopian as the other propositions. He prophesies that the congress, in the main sensible, will simply establish the bureau for information and statistics, possibly also for investigations; that this bureau will issue a few reports, to be leafed over by half-a-dozen experts in each country, and that then the chamber will vegetate to the profit only of the holders of the sinecure positions created by it.

The Significance of the Kaiser's Visit to Morocco.—The Kaiser's visit in Morocco is editorially commented upon by the weekly *Die Hilfe* (Berlin), a widely circulated periodical with strong liberal tendencies. "When William II., in 1898, held his solemn entrance in Damascus, he said that 'the German Emperor was the friend of all Mohammedans,' and in the eyes of the faithful he is really the 'friend of the Khalifa.' Even when the Arabs are under French ascendancy, as in Tunis and Algiers, they honor the German Kaiser as a secret ally. When the Mussulman uses the words 'our Khalifa,' he always means the head at Constantinople. The 'Sick Man' is still a moral power from Oran to Bagdad. And the brother of the 'Sick Man,' the 'Prussian Sultan,' has now been honored by the ruler of Morocco. The idea of the Mohammedan world concerning an alliance between the Germans and the followers of the Prophet has been strengthened. The question is now whether Germany can help the Sultan of Morocco or whether the imperial visit to Tangier will range alongside of the telegram to President Krüger. Both proceedings possess real resemblance. In both cases, independence of European power is the question, an independence favored by Germany without being able to guarantee any help to the 'friend' in case of actual danger. Nevertheless, if Germany cannot extend a full guarantee to succor the Moroccans against France, it is probable that the development of the present Asiatic crisis sooner or later will necessitate a union of the Mohammedans. The struggle about Arabia is evidently approaching in the same measure as England obtains the ascendancy in Tibet, Afghanistan, Persia, and Egypt. The historical point of the resurrection of the whole Mohammedan body is approaching, and the Emperor has counted upon this emergency for many years. Therefore, Germany could not support Armenia because she has become the partisan of the Turk, painful as it may be. It may be even so in Morocco. The Sultan is strengthened in his adversity against the French, and at the same time in his adversity against reform. Reform in this sense is passing from Mohammedanism to capitalism, from the state of the Middle Age to civilization. Germany desires reform as a commercial people, but as a political power it must strengthen the Sultan. She confesses solemnly and frankly that she will not rule the Sultan,—that is to say, she will not capitalistically civilize him; she will only keep him free. Under such circumstances, it is comprehensible when it is reported that the Sultan, when notified about the visit of the Kaiser, demonstrated barbaric joy. No wonder, then, that everybody in Morocco, from the highest official to the highway

robbers of the stamp of Raissuli, appeared to salute the German Emperor. He embodies for them, indeed, the remaining in the old state of affairs, the keeping of customs, religion, and old culture. We say this not in order to write against the Emperor's visit, but in order to fully demonstrate its consequences."

Reminiscences of Jules Verne.—An appreciative character sketch of the late Jules Verne is contributed to the *Annales* (Paris) by Adolph Brisson. To this French statesman Verne often said: "You need not praise me. My work is the source of my only happiness. When I finish one of my books I am ill at ease and not happy again until I have broken ground for another. For me to be idle is to suffer." Verne was very regular in his habits of work. He arose early, and very soon began his work. In reading the newspapers and reviews, he followed an order to which he always strictly adhered. He began with the *Temps* always, then he took up the *Figaro*, and then the *Gaulois*. Always in this order. On the days when the municipal council of Amiens assembled he was deprived of his reading, for he always fulfilled his duties as city father with admirable conscientiousness. M. Brisson tells about one special visit to Amiens. He was surprised, he says, to find that Verne had traveled but little, and that his information about places and peoples was mainly gathered from books. He confessed to me, says M. Brisson, "that he had a small yacht, and that he had sailed in it a little in the English Channel and on the Mediterranean." "And have you never been any farther than that?" "Never," he said. "Have you never seen any cannibals?" "Never." "Nor any Mongolians?" "Never." "You have not even made a tour of the world in eighty days?" "I have never even made a tour of the world." The author had nothing but a planisphere hung in his study, and this he had covered with confused marks, "just to amuse myself by tracing the roads followed by my heroes." Ranged on the shelves of his library, M. Brisson tells us, were translations of all his works, and all languages were represented there. There was "The Mysterious Island" in Japanese, and "The Voyage to the Moon" in Arabic. Verne started out with the intention of becoming a sort of Balzac of the drama. He meant to shake modern society to its foundations by the audacity and cruel truth of his descriptions. His publisher, M. Hetzel, Sr., however, hearing of this ambition, read the young author a lecture. "My child, stop to believe what I tell you. I know what I say by experience. Do not squander your strength. You are founding,—or, at least, if not founding, renewing,—a style of literature which has hitherto appeared exhausted. Work this thoroughly. You will draw from it a golden harvest as well as a harvest of glory. This is what you must do,—from this day onward you must give me two romances per year. We will sign the contract to-morrow." Jules Verne signed the contract, and he did not fail to perform what he had agreed to. His production was as regular as that of the apple trees of his native land, but it was more abundant, and it furnished two harvests a year,—one in spring and one in autumn; and, moreover, no accident ever suspended the regularity of its advent. For forty years Jules Verne was known as an indulgent and amiable savant, who made a pastime of scientific fancy and taught children to think by telling them stories. But he was something more and better,—he was a great romance-writing idealist.

Spain's National Defense Programme.—In *España Moderna* (Madrid) there is an article on "The Political Bases of National Defense in Spain," the author of which says: "In order to progress,—to live, in fact,—a nation must necessarily have ideals; but why should these ideals be confined to external affairs, to foreign expansion? Are not the ideals of improvement at home sufficiently great and noble? Should not a Spaniard be satisfied with ideals the realization of which would rouse us from our present lethargy and fit us, at a future time, for the quest of ideals which are now dreams and illusions? Is it not suicidal to aspire to other things before assuring our existence as a nation? Let us bring home to the national conscience the fact that the present state of things does not guarantee the political independence of Spain, nor its economic independence, nor its very existence, in fact. When this lesson has been taken to heart,—when we have become strong at home,—then we may cherish broader ideals which are to-day fallacious and dangerous. Before deciding on the best means of national defense, one point must be decided,—shall we strengthen our army or our navy? I advise the former course. As every Spaniard knows, to reorganize our army on an efficient basis would be to create it anew; if this be true of the army, it is doubly so of the navy. We are poor. If we applied our limited resources to the improvement of the navy, we should not only be unable to bring the latter to a state of efficiency, but should be leaving our army just as it is to-day. In this manner, we should have a navy and an army equally inefficient. On the other hand, although the creation of an army is a laborious task, a period of ten or twelve years might suffice to materially improve our military arm."

Questions for the Next Hague Conference.—In a paper read by Prof. T. E. Holland before the British Academy on neutral duties in a maritime war (and published in the *Fortnightly Review*) we are reminded of one of the wishes recorded in the last hours of the Hague Peace Conference. "The conference desires that the question of the rights and the duties of neutrals may be entered on the programme of a conference to be called at an early date." On the programme of that conference Professor Holland would inscribe the following questions: 1. Are subsidized liners within the prohibition of the sale to a belligerent by a neutral government of ships of war? 2. Is a neutral government bound to interfere with the use of its territory for the maintenance of belligerent communications by wireless telegraphy? 3. To prevent the exit of even partially equipped warships? 4. To prevent, with more care than has hitherto been customary, the exportation of supplies, especially of coal, to belligerent fleets at sea? 5. By what specific precautions must a neutral prevent abuse of the "asylum" afforded by its ports to belligerent ships of war?—with especial reference to the bringing in of prizes, duration of stay, consequences of over-prolonged stay, the simultaneous presence of vessels of mutually hostile nationalities, repairs and provisioning during stay, and, in particular, renewal of stocks of coal. How is this duty to be construed with reference to: 6. Interruption of safe navigation over territorial waters and the high seas, respectively? 7. The distance from the scene of operations at which the right of visit may be properly exercised? 8. The protection from the exercise of this right afforded by the presence of neutral convoy? 9. The time and place

at which so-called "volunteer" fleets and subsidized liners may exchange the mercantile for a naval character? 10. Immunity for mail ships, or their mail bags? 11. The requirement of actual warning to blockade-runners, and the application to blockade of the doctrine of "continuous voyages?" 12. The distinction between "absolute" and "conditional" contraband, with especial reference to food and coal? 13. The doctrine of "continuous voyages" with reference to contraband? 14. The cases, if any, in which a neutral prize may lawfully be sunk at sea, instead of being brought in for adjudication? 15. The due constitution of prize courts? 16. The legitimacy of a rule condemning the ship herself when more than a certain proportion of her cargo is of a contraband character?

Drunkenness and Alcoholism.—In a scientific study (in the *Economic Review*, of London), Dr. W. C. Sullivan calls attention to the fact that excessive drunkenness is comparatively innocent compared with alcoholism. Convivial drunkenness prevails most among miners, who are comparatively free from alcoholism, and alcohol engenders diseases. It is the constant habit of nip, nip, nipping that poisons the drinker. Heavy drinking after work is done, however regrettable as a proof of a low standard of manners, is not of very great account in the causation of the worst evils of intemperance.

A German Tribute to American Literature.—An article by Ludwig Salomon in a recent issue of the *Illustrirte Zeitung* (Leipsic) contains a graceful and pleasing tribute to American literature in general, and to one eminent writer, the late Lew Wallace, in particular. It begins: "One of our well-known writers has said: 'Nowadays a good English book is, in the majority of cases, an American book,' and in truth the productions sent over to us from America are far superior to the many superficial and carelessly written books which England is turning out. The better class of American books are carefully thought out, the English is absolutely correct, there is an earnest effort throughout to produce the most perfect result possible, and, above all, each work bears the mark of a certain fundamental ideality. Every American author worthy of the name evidently feels it his duty to point out life's higher significance to his countrymen, who are working so feverishly to secure the good things of life, and to offer noble spiritual enjoyment for their leisure hours. Bryant and Longfellow were animated by this passion, and the whole striving of the late Lew Wallace was for this worthy end,—a novelist whose masterpiece, 'Ben Hur,' was for many years the most popular book in America, and the translation of which has had a remarkable vogue in Germany."

German Attitude Toward Trusts.—A short editorial in the *Deutsche Rundschau* (Berlin) speaks as follows on the subject of trusts and on President Roosevelt's attitude toward them: "President Roosevelt has delivered a speech directed against the trusts, even against the powerful railroad system. To be sure, the celebrated interstate commerce bill,—famous for having accomplished so little,—was aimed at the encroachments of the great railroad men; but in the final decision of all such cases in that country the offenders against the law deemed worthy of punishment have not been the rich and powerful framers of the laws. At

any rate, it is a significant fact that Mr. Roosevelt feels himself competent to deal with the millionaires and multimillionaires who for so long a time have understood how to represent their interests as those of the industry and trade of the middle classes. Well-managed syndicates play into the hands of the great trusts as a matter of course, but in the trusts all industrial and commercial independence is absorbed, and we who have already heard of the American trust system as something particularly commendable have double cause to observe and profit by these developments in America."

With the Russian Troops En Route to Manchuria.—A writer in the *Revue Bleue*, who discusses the military activity of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, describes the provisioning and equipment of the troops dispatched to the far East as, in general, quite adequate. As to the general appearance of the troops whom he saw on several occasions, he declares that what impressed the observer was their calm tranquillity. They are phlegmatic, care-free, and resigned. Even the married men, he says, show no signs of care or worryment. When a train makes a stop they group themselves about the ends of the cars and sing popular songs, some of them dancing for the entertainment of the others. They talk continually about the war, but their conversation is generally a wish that the Japanese had not begun the war, or at least that they had waited until Port Arthur might have been made absolutely impregnable. The Russians, says this writer, in conclusion, have proven that they know how to build a transcontinental railroad and to transport and maintain thousands of troops thousands of miles from home, but they have also shown that they positively do not know how to get ready in time for the emergency.

To Lessen the Publication of Criminal News.—In the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), F. Romorino calls attention to a movement inaugurated by Professor Cian, of Pisa, in the *Giornale d'Italia*, against what in America is called "yellow journalism,"—that is, the printing of details of crimes and writing about criminals in such a way as to create sympathy or admiration for them rather than condemnation, and to suggest, if not the repetition of such crimes, at least a tolerance that defeats justice and injures moral standards. Petitions headed with a declaration that the signers wish some check put upon the chronicling of crime are sent out in Italian magazines and circulated in other ways.

The Growth of International Arbitration.—Sir John Macdonell, writing, in the *Nineteenth Century* for April, on the international arbitrations of the century, says: "Looking back on the arbitrations of last century, they are seen not to be detached incidents in its history. We witness the formation of a new institution, a new organ for harmonious relations between states, with functions of its own; an evolution not unlike that which created ages ago in most countries tribunals for the settlement of domestic disputes. The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries gave the world permanent embassies, permanent means of conducting intercourse between nations. The eighteenth century at its close gave the rudiments of a rational law of

neutrality. The nineteenth gave international arbitrations, which, in the words of William Penn, tend not a little 'to the rooting up of wars and planting peace in a deep and fruitful soil.'"

The Pan-Celtic Movement.—Considerable impetus has been given during recent years to the pan-Celtic movement. In Ireland, Wales, Scotland, and Brittany, the racial consciousness has manifested itself with increasing force. A French writer, J. G. Prud'homme, writing in the *Revue Bleue*, declares that today pan-Celtism represents a population of 3,600,000. Of these, 2,200,000 are in Great Britain, and 1,400,000 in Brittany. M. Prud'homme sees in the Welsh eisteddfod, or national gatherings for musical and oratorical contests, the most rational and desirable manifestation of this pan-Celtic movement. Neither France nor Great Britain, he declares, can find fault with such evidences of racial pride and desire for the cultivation of venerable artistic tongues.

Alcohol and Hypnotism.—The editor of *La Revue's* scientific section, Dr. L. Caze, has a paragraph on "Alcoholism and Hypnotism." The disease of drunkenness, he declares, is now being treated by hypnotism in Russia. The well-known French doctor, Legrain, has made this practice the subject of an interesting communication to the French Society of Hypnology and Psychology. The Russian Government, he declares, has established dispensaries in a number of the cities, among them St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Saratof, and Astrakhan, in which so-called incurable drunkards by the hundred are treated by this hypnotic method. Liquor is kept from them during the cure, and they are informed that they do not want to drink any more. They are followed for some time by the care of the doctors, and the treatment is said to have already had very happy results.

The Real Founders of the British Navy.—A writer on "The Tudors and the Navy" (in the *Quarterly Review*) brings to light the startling fact that the English navy owes more to Henry VII. and Henry VIII. than to Elizabeth. Henry VII. dared to be insular, and in renouncing the traditional claim on French territory committed the country to a maritime career and gave a naval bias to our history. The navy board was established in 1546. Henry VIII. fashioned the navy with which Elizabeth fought Spain, and opened a new era in naval tactics by arming his ships with heavy guns. The warship, instead of a platform for land battles fought at sea, became a mobile gun-carriage.

The Early Life of the Present Pope.—In the latest installment of the life of Pope Pius X. which is now appearing in the *Revue de Paris* we are informed that the Pontiff's early life seems to have been altogether full of hardships, which have left an impression on his features and his mode of life; and he has had the good taste to preserve the simplicity of his youth amid all the pontifical ceremonial which his present position of dignity imposes. Having been severe to himself, he does not hesitate to be exacting toward others in the service of the Church; he does not permit resistance or temporizing.

NOTABLE FICTION OF SPRING AND SUMMER.

IT is difficult, if not impossible, to discern with any clearness of outline the dominant movements—if movements there be—in contemporary fiction. Yet the literary historian of the future will necessarily, in self-defense, be forced to classify in some way the enormous mass of books which at a glance seems quite heterogeneous. We need not, however, let the difficulties of that hypothetical gentleman oppress us. The Elizabethan knew nothing of the "Tragedy of Blood," or of the "Romantic Comedy;" we know nothing of the "American Problem Novel," "The Stevensonian Romance," the "Novel of the Wild;" or, at least, we are only vaguely conscious of such classes or groups. The literary historian of the twenty-first century will see these movements quite clearly, as well as others that do not even suggest themselves to us. The satiric imagination, indeed, may even delight itself with the vision of future post-graduate students writing doctoral dissertations on "American Novels of the Anthony-Hope Type from 1890-1910," or, with the supersubtle specialization to which the academic mind tends, on "Kiplingesque Short Stories by Natives of Indiana in the First Quarter of the Twentieth Century."

But if we could view the fiction of our own time objectively enough, if we could assume toward it the juster and sterner attitude of future critics, how much more fruitful and how much less painful a task would the criticism of books become. At present we pick up a volume—one here, one there—and produce the desired quantity of "copy." In literature alone could such a nerveless method of procedure be tolerated. But suppose the reviewer said to himself: "I have here a novel belonging to the American problem-novel type; variety, 'Negro-Problem.' Hence, the main theme of the book is specific, temporary, geographical. Does it contain enough of the eternal, of vital, human things, their tears or laughter, to outweigh its more immediate and merely ephemeral appeal? No; then it need not be noticed." Vain dream! Review one book in a hundred? And how, if you please, is the reviewer to live, and shall the

seventh-rate novelist be forsaken and his children beg bread? No doubt. Let us encourage the production of fiction as heretofore. Let it increase in more than geometrical ratio, as it has done within the last half-century. Let us read and review until our mental fiber



MRS. HUMPHRY WARD.

(Mrs. Ward's latest novel, "The Marriage of William Ashe," is noticed on the following page.)

is completely relaxed and our very power of critical rectitude is lost. Then shall we read and review without twinges of conscience and be contented *in sacula sarcutorum!*

REPRESENTATIVE BRITISH FICTION.

Mrs. Humphry Ward possesses not only sincerity and strength, not only narrative and dramatic power,—all qualities far commoner than they are thought to be,—but she puts into her books that “fundamental brain-work” which at once and unmistakably raises a new novel from her hand above the glaring emptiness of the horde of contemporary and temporary novelists. It cannot be said of Mrs. Ward that she “sees life steadily



MAURICE HEWLETT.

and sees it whole;” nor even, perhaps, that she sees it as steadily as she did when, long ago, she wrote “The History of David Grieve,” and dealt with problems and passions more elemental than she has done of late. Nevertheless, the story of William Ashe and of his fatal marriage to Lady Kitty Bristol is one of the few stories of which a measure, at least, of endurance may be predicted. Like all of Mrs. Ward’s books, “The Marriage of William Ashe” (Harpers) is rich in a multitude of living characters. But neither these nor (as has been erroneously supposed) the problem of William’s attitude toward his wife lend the book its vital significance. That resides chiefly, if not alone, in the character of Lady Kitty Bristol. She was a child of genius predestined to genius and waywardness and to immortal childhood. She was untrue to her husband not through passion, nor was she unkind through any hardness of heart. She was one of those rare beings,—infinitely adorable and pitiable at once,—whose souls do not feel, until too late, the inexorableness of things. But to her, too, came at last the deeper vision. “Oh, what pain there is in the world, William! What *pain!* *That’s what I never knew.*” And then she died, for her nature was not made to realize pain or to feel it. As for William, he did his best, and, doing it, he, like so many men, “killed the thing he loved.”

To Mr. Maurice Hewlett, as to Théophile Gautier, “the visible world exists.” The sight of beauty is, in

his eyes, its savor upon his tongue. In the deliberate flow of his golden sentences, he tells us not only of dawn and sunset, spring or summer, but of jewels and gorgeous raiment, and of all the pageantry of forgotten years. To do this he chooses the Middle Ages as his province. He chooses them, too, because he can find there the play of sheer passion,—of hunger, hate, and love. Love is the burden of Mr. Hewlett’s stories,—not love as depicted by the modern lady novelist, but the great primitive desire that clutches a man’s throat and races in the current of his blood; sensual, if you will, but transfigured and transformed through the power of beauty. Four “Fond Adventures” are related in Mr. Hewlett’s new volume (Harpers),—one of old Provence, one of the Canterbury Pilgrims, and two of Italy “before the days of Dante and his friend Giotto.” The first and third adventures are the more remarkable. In the first, we learn how the proud Provençal, Lady Saill, was, by her own cruelty and the fortune of war, brought low. Her white feet bled in the snow; she knew cold and hunger, and learned, incidentally, that the poor minstrel loved her better than the great lords who sang so marvelously of their love. And thus to Guillem was given “the heart’s key.” More pitiful for its sad ending is “Buondelmonte’s Saga,” for Buondelmonte and Piccarda, the spotless, burned toward each other instinctively



EDEN PHILLPOTTS.

and inevitably, and the lover was swiftly slain in the broil of Florentine factions. But it really matters little what subject Mr. Hewlett chooses. His style, his vision, his passion,—these are always there.

And yet one should not care, perhaps, to linger too long amid the heated passions and brilliant pageants of Mr. Hewlett’s world, but turns gladly to “The Secret

Woman" (Macmillan), the latest, and assuredly the best, novel of Mr. Eden Phillpotts. Here we are far from any ardors of the South. A stern sky bends over the Devon country, the swift winds blow over the solemn hills, and Nature has lent something of her own austerity to the soul of man. This is no home of facile sinning. Righteousness and repentance, strength and self-control, are native here. The sin of Anthony Redvers was



THE BARONESS VON HUTTEN.

merely one of sense. For to him that silent woman who was his wife was, for all her coldness, before and above all other women. But Ann, though she faltered a moment, could not at last forgive. Yet she did not mean to slay her husband. From that event on, however, the tragedy moves on unbrokenly and impressively. Ann Redvers and Salome Westaway, with whom Anthony had sinned, and Ann's sons,—all are in the grip of fate. It is a Greek tragedy upon the Devon hills, beautiful and austere. One reconciling touch comes at the end. For the silent woman has glimpses of a mercy that is beyond justice, and forgives, even as she would be forgiven. "The Silent Woman" is not unfittingly inscribed to Mr. Swinburne.

These three books,—the most noteworthy of the season's output of British fiction,—belong distinctly to the realm of literature proper rather than to that of journalistic story-telling. In regard to the majority of books, such an assertion would be hazardous, though one should like to make it of "Pam," by the Baroness Bettina von Hutten (Dodd, Mead). The trouble with Pam is that, with all her bewildering charm, both as child and as woman, one cannot avoid suspecting her of being a brilliant impossibility. Doubtless she had a right to be strange, seeing that her parents were not married and were yet brave and strong enough to be absurdly happy together, and thus added another demoraliz-

ing example to the flourishing of the wicked. The illegality of her parents' relations to each other was never concealed from Pam. Thus, her remarkable character and intellect gained something strange, exotic, exquisite. And yet, though Pauline Yeoland and Guy Sacheverell were truly happy, though Pam,—fruit of that irregular union,—grew up, for all her petulance, to be strong and wise and good, though the Baroness von Hutten disclaims all moralizing aims, there is but one conclusion to be drawn from this story. Marriage may be an evil necessity, but a necessity it is. Ravaglia, the Italian actress,—whose tragic, gracious figure is drawn in some of the best pages of the book,—felt this. Even Pam came to feel it at last. It is vain to battle against the accumulated instinct of innumerable generations, and when even the man whom she loved insulted her, Pam said: "I know that people must marry, so that their daughters can bear their fathers' name, and not be hurt like this." One hopes that somehow, somewhere, Pam found the happiness she deserved.

With "Lady Penelope," by Morley Roberts (L. C. Page), witty and ingenious as the book is, we descend to the plane of the more or less frankly ephemeral. Lady Penelope, afflicted with great wealth, a plentiful



LADY PENELOPE BRADING.

(Frontispiece reduced.)

lack of humor, and Earnestness (with a capital E), sets out upon new paths to matrimony. Her plan is, first, to reform and chasten "the horde" of her suitors, and then to marry one of its members secretly. It is all very amusing. The characters of the gentlemen in Penelope's train are vividly outlined and differentiated. The boy, Bob, is capital fun, and so is the duchess. But only the verbal wit has delicacy; the rest is caricature. Rufus Q. Plant, for example, comes perilously near the obvious comic-paper American. But "Lady Penelope" will fill the proverbial idle hour with very genuine amusement.

Mr. E. Philips Oppenheim is not content to do things by halves. The ramifications of his mystery are staggering. "The Mysterious Mr. Sabin" (Little, Brown) appears upon the stage with a limp, a white Henri Quatre, an air of ruthlessness and cold cruelty. One suspects a twentieth-century Mephistopheles. But Mr. Sabin turns out to be only a fanatical adherent of the House of Bourbon who by a mad and impossible series of international complications would force Germany to invade France and restore the dynasty of her ancient kings. It is all glaringly impossible, yet not without power or real fascination. Mr. Oppenheim has no difficulty in holding or convincing his reader,—if only for an hour.

"An Act in a Backwater," by E. F. Benson (Appletons), is a novel which starts out admirably and ends in sheer vacuity. A keen, satiric vision went to the crea-

tion of that swaggering liar, Colonel Raymond, his weary wife, and equally weary children. The logical outcome of Raymond's career should have been a grim exposure at the hands of his "noble relatives." Instead, Mr. Benson drops the thread of his powerful narrative satire and gives us a love-story like a hundred others,—old village maidens and pathetic death. But Colonel Raymond deserves to be remembered.

It would be difficult to find a volume more refreshing than "Mr. Pennycock's Boy," by J. J. Bell (Harpers). Here are neither impossible romance nor pseudo-subtlety, but simple happenings in very simple lives, related with such humor, such charm, such human kindness, as to rank Mr. Bell with the other living masters of Scotch fiction,—with Barrie and Crockett. The stories in "Mr. Pennycock's Boy" are all quite brief. Many of them deal with the children of the Glasgow streets; in all of them, children occur. Mr. Bell, like Stevenson, has remembered his own childhood. He still feels the poignancy of its small griefs, the keenness of its joys, and the children whom he creates through memory and imagination will recall to every reader his own childhood.

The heroine of "The Vicissitudes of Evangeline," by Mrs. Elinor Glyn (Harpers), has red hair, green eyes, black lashes, and closes her career as that of an "Adventuress." She ends up by making a more or less conventional marriage. Evangeline almost deserved a better fate, at least, as a heroine in fiction. The story is witty, fluent, and amusing.

BRITISH HUMOR.

Whether Mr. Zangwill is a great humorist remains to be seen. But he assuredly possesses one of the great humorist's qualifications,—inexhaustible fertility. There are not many books in any language that for sheer richness of humorous invention surpass "The Celibates' Club" (Macmillan). Of course, the bachelors in the bachelors' club, and the old maids in "The Old Maids' Club," are all, at last, crushed under the pitiless heel of matrimony. In thirty-two stories, Mr. Zangwill tells us how they succumbed, and though the stories vary in interest, the reader will probably not care to miss a single one. As in the work of all humorists who really count, there is here profound seriousness beneath much that seems lightest fooling. There is a tragedy, in fact, in "The Fall of Israfel." For Israfel Mondego had a genius for singing comic songs, and by life's irony was forced to ladle out sentimentality, which his soul abhorred, to widows and spinsters, who adored his songs, his eyes, and his mustache. Equally serious at bottom is "The Logic of Love," the story of a divine dream nursed shyly for years in the heart of a colorless man of science, and realized at last. It is needless to add that all the stories

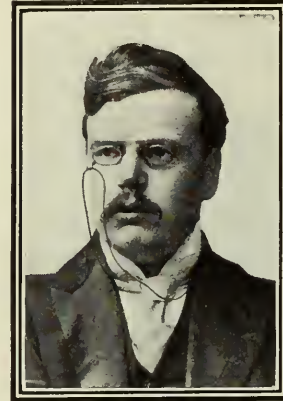


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ISRAEL ZANGWILL.

abound in wit and humor in detail, and that some of the verses are brilliant.

Mr. Gilbert K. Chesterton, the really brilliant English critic, comes for the second time to pay homage to the Golden Calf, a process which in the case of the modern author means, obviously, that he has brought out his second volume of fiction. The humor of his first book, "The Napoleon of Nottingham Hill," was like the peace of God,—past all understanding. "The Club of Queer Trades" (Harpers), utter and unredeemed extravaganzas as it is, is more enjoyable. To give away Mr. Chesterton's central idea would be to give away all. The reader, if he is not too fastidious, can, however, be promised a series of pleasant shocks.



GILBERT K. CHESTERTON.

But the author of "Varied Types" writing "The Club of Queer Trades" is a singularly unedifying spectacle.

AMERICAN SOCIETY AND POLITICS.

All critical epithets have been so sorely overworked that at last one hesitates to use them. Yet there is no word but charm with which to describe the quality of "Tommy Carteret," by Justus Miles Forman (Doubleday, Page). The infinite charity that is the best fruit of deep experience breathes from these pages,—the charity that forgives everything because it understands everything. Thus, Mr. Forman has no bitter word for that hopeless superannuated philanderer, "old Tommy Carteret," whose burden of guilt "young Tommy" assumes, because "Carteret never failed Carteret." For, as young Tommy says to himself repeatedly, "A man is no stronger than he's made." Hartwell, the outraged husband, believing in young Tommy's guilt, decrees that he shall go into the wilderness. Thus, Tommy buys silence for his father's sake and Sybil's,—the dearest girl in the world,—and is suddenly driven from the open gates of his paradise into a hell for soul and body. The descriptions of Tommy's life in the wilderness, of how he conquered despair again and again, of his meeting with Mariana, a bill girl, and of her tragic love,—these are the best things that Mr. Forman has yet done in fiction, and they are thoroughly good. One fails to see quite why, when Hartwell's death has set Tommy free, he should be followed by Mariana's ghost, why this supernatural phenomenon should prolong the story which ended logically with the fact that Hartwell's heart was by no means well. But one is disinclined to quarrel with a book that unites so much power and charm, so much insight and kindness and truth.

There is a certain hardness of outline, a certain cold glitter, about "The Orchid" (Scribners), Judge Robert Grant's latest study of American society. Lydia Arnold, the orchid, sells her little girl to her husband for two millions and a half, in order that she may live in comfort with the man whom she believes to love. Why Lydia Arnold should be the subject of a story is not

clear. She is only a rather shallow, rather unscrupulous woman, no better and no worse, and hardly more interesting, than a thousand others. The glamour of millions cannot veil her essential insignificance. Judge Grant's sure touch and craftsmanship are here, but "The Orchid" is hardly a worthy successor to "The Undercurrent."

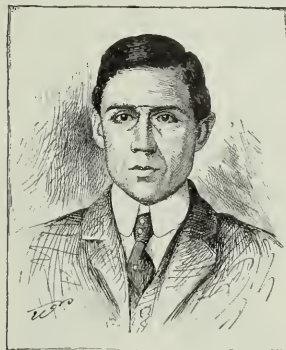
"The Fire of Spring," by Margaret Potter (Appletons), is a notable study of that vital subject, woman's pre-marital ignorance of her future functions and duties. To be very severe on Mrs. Merrill because she gives her innocent little daughter in marriage to Van Studdiford would be more or less absurd. Genteel poverty is a very harrowing affliction, and it is silly to expect many individuals to rise above the current ethics of their social environment. It is to Mrs. Merrill's credit that she felt any pangs. Though Charles van Studdiford turns out finally to be a thorough gentleman, the more immediate consequences of the marriage are tragic enough. Virginia,—glittering little butterfly,—is suddenly in the hard grip of woman's physical travail. Under that strain, her husband rasps on her, and she irritates him so intolerably that he strikes her. After that there is danger of the story becoming a new version of Paola and Francesca, but the tragedy is checked. "The Fire of Spring" belongs to the very best in the season's American fiction.

That Wall Street has its possibilities of romance, no intelligent observer can doubt. To exploit these possibilities with originality and verve has been the task of Mr. Edwin Lefèvre, author of "The Golden Flood" (McClure, Phillips). The basis of Mr. Lefèvre's romance is sound enough. The suspicion—apparently inevitable—that here was a man in the world who could produce unlimited quantities of gold and thus depreciate

its value indefinitely,—this suspicion would in reality produce just such startling and dramatic effects as it does in Mr. Lefèvre's story. That story, however, has more than its element of uniqueness to recommend it. The studies in the characters of great financiers, Gentle and Jew, are of unusual vividness and verisimilitude.

"The Walking Delegate," by Leroy Scott (Doubleday, Page), is, as its title shows, a study of the labor union as it exists to-day in this country. Mr. Scott joined a

union himself and studied his men at close range, all of which would not have helped him had he not been possessed of true creative power. Buck Foley, walking delegate and most infamous of conceivable blackguards, is one of the most powerful, vivid, and almost tangible characters in the fiction of recent years. He is superbly vigorous and alive. Hardly, if at all, less convincing are the other



LEROY SCOTT.

chief, and even minor, characters, above all Tom Keating, bitter enemy of graft and tyranny, who fights the good fight against Foley. Both as a human document and as a work of art, "The Walking Delegate" is a book of extraordinary worth.

"The Digressions of Polly," by Helen Rowland (Baker & Taylor), would be thoroughly delightful did Polly not remind us so irresistibly of a certain Dolly who digressed years ago in the pages of Mr. Anthony Hope. By looking more closely, it will be discovered that Polly has a character of her own, perhaps a little deeper and more real than Dolly's was. She is certainly entertaining, though, perhaps for too many pages.

A feeling, quiet and unobtrusive enough for the pathos of human things, lends dignity and interest to an otherwise not remarkable collection of stories, "The Courtship of a Careful Man," by E. S. Martin (Harpers). The stories deal with familiar aspects of New York life, and hence have, to the "dwellers in Babylon," a slightly extrinsic interest.

"The Purple Parasol," by George Barr McCutcheon (Dodd, Mead), is the story of a young lawyer who is directed to follow and observe, for purposes of criminal investigation, a lady having a purple parasol and various other marks. He does. But the woman followed turns out, in spite of the purple parasol, as not the woman he should have followed. The ending is obvious. Mr. McCutcheon is happier when in "Graustark," but he can hardly stay there always.

Miss Frances Aymar Matthews is nothing if not prolific. She has two new books this season. "Billy Duane" (Dodd, Mead) is a novel of city politics, love, and various other necessary and constant ingredients of the American novel of the day. It lacks neither rapid movement nor an interesting central theme, but is written in an irritating staccato style (sentences of a few words set off in separate paragraphs), which makes it hard to read.



EDWIN LEFÈVRE.

A really delightful story by the same author is "The Marquise's Millions" (Funk & Wagnalls). The old French ladies, with their dream of the coming of the "eighteenth Louis," are exceedingly well drawn, and the intrigue of the American heiress, whose lover impersonates the "king," is clever and well carried off. Equally well suggested is the atmosphere of blind loyalty and ancient memories in which the ladies live.

Mr. Joseph A. Altsheler is, perhaps, the most admirable writer of political fiction in this country. He really possesses the art of making the reader feel that the great game is worth while,—that it is not ignoble or utterly void of romance. In "Guthrie, of the Times," which was noticed in these pages, Mr. Altsheler treated the politics of the State; in "The Candidate" (Harpers), he turns his attention to national issues. The book is nothing more than the story of the Presidential campaign made by Grayson, who was ultimately elected. And that story is told with an almost prodigal display of intelligence and of power. That last night, when Grayson, his family, and his friends are all awaiting the election returns, and the tension of atmosphere and mood is almost unbearable,—that night and its scenes are genuinely memorable, as truth and as fiction. When our politics are treated in fiction with such largeness of view and such grasp of their romantic possibilities, a real addition to the better class of American literature is necessarily made.



JOSEPH A. ALTSELER.

NOVELS OF THE SOUTH.

In "Constance Trescott" (Century Company), Dr. S. Weir Mitchell has painted, with immense care and elaboration, the full-length portrait of a woman. Constance is extraordinary neither for beauty nor for intellect. Her character is interesting merely through the abnormal intensity in it of primitive instincts,—the instinct for possession and the instinct for revenge. But a few years after the close of the Civil War, Constance and her young husband,—ex-officer in the Federal army,—take up their abode in a small Southern city. Here, at the end of a fierce legal conflict, George Trescott is shot and instantly killed by Greyhurst, opposing counsel and hot-blooded Creole. Greyhurst puts up the conventional plea of self-defense,—which was utterly absurd here,—and is acquitted. It is at this point that all the hidden power and passion of Constance's soul awake. Society will not avenge her wrong; hence she must herself avenge it. A silent, tragic figure, upheld only by her indomitable will, she moves, ruthless to any opposition, toward her end,—the ruin of Greyhurst, body and soul. That end accomplished, she becomes a somewhat peevish, somewhat selfish, woman. Impressive as the book is, one wonders inevitably whether Constance was, after all, worth this expenditure of literary power on the part of Dr. Mitchell.

"The Master Word," by L. H. Hammond (Macmillan), is a study of certain Southern conditions, almost terrible in its austerity. No objection can be made to Mr. Hammond's judgment. But if such ethical severity were to be applied to all men and their sins life could not continue. In such a world as this, our nature being thus and not otherwise, we should rather be glad, with Stevenson, if in the end we have saved some rags and tatters of manliness and honor, and can point to some victories amid many defeats. Philip Lawton became the father of a mulatto child,—a thoroughly bad business, doubtless,—but in his case a mere momentary sin of sense. This very fact should have made Margaret, his wife, forgive him, but it is just this that renders her pitiless. Philip dies, and Margaret sets about repairing irreparable wrong. Her husband has given life to a being who is an outcast from the race to which she belongs by nine-tenths of blood and all of instinct, and who recoils with horror from the negroes with whom she is classed. The conflict between Virey, the half-breed girl, and Margaret, who has no answer to that terrible indictment of a life having been given for which the world has no place,—this conflict Mr. Hammond has described with almost painful intensity and passion. "The Master Word" is a book that stands far above the average of contemporary fiction.

A somewhat more conventional novel of Southern life is "The Ravenels," by Harris Dickson (Lippincott), but the book contains one of the best trial scenes in recent fiction. It may be remarked, *passim*, that no literary genre, since the Elizabethan drama, contains so many trial scenes as the modern American novel,—a fact of some significance and one worth studying. "The Second Wooing of Salina Sue," by Mrs. Ruth McEnery Stuart (Harpers), is another volume of those sketches of negro character which Mrs. Stuart writes so sympathetically and well, even though one at times suspects her of attributing feelings to her black folks of which the latter are quite innocent. The somewhat overworked mill problem of the South furnishes the subject of "Amanda of the Mill" (Dodd, Mead), an interesting but rather improbable story by Mrs. Marie Van Vorst.

THE LIFE LITERARY.

It is quite possible that "The Letters of Theodora," by Adelaide L. Rouse (Macmillan), may not appeal to a very large public. The public to which it does appeal



ADELAIDE L. ROUSE.

will be select and worth having. Theodora is "a sentimental Tommy in petticoats." She is more to us, for she is a thoroughly admirable study of the literary temperament as it exists in America to-day. So true to the facts of life, for that small class of men and women who earn their bread by the sweat of their fountain pens, is Theodora,

her friends and her fortunes, that to these men and women the book will have an exquisite intimacy of appeal, at least through memory. But the book is more than a tale of dear familiar things to a few. Not many things in contemporary fiction surpass in literary value the seventh letter, in which Theodora tells of a visit to her old home, or the scene in which the uncouth Congressman to whom she has mistakenly become affianced receives the bitter blow of losing her with so much gentleness and strength. If "The Letters of Theodora" is, as it seems to be, almost Miss Rouse's first book, work of a very high order may be expected of her.

TALES OF STRANGE LANDS AND SEAS.

In the days of Baranof and Russian possession, Alaskan life wore an aspect different from its present one. It was in those days that Fedor Kirilovitch Delarof passed over the seas with Anna Gregorovna, learned with sorrow that she was betrothed to another, and yet, in honorable fashion, won her for himself at last.

These details really do not matter very much, seeing that in "The Way of the North," by Warren Cheney (Doubleday, Page), we come at last to an American book that can be enjoyed for its style alone. A harsh critic might say that Mr. Cheney has read his Stevenson very closely. That does not alter the fact that the sharp, swift, clean-cut sentences move with a rounded rhythm that is a perpetual delight to the inner ear. "The Way of the North" is, beyond doubt, the best-written American book of the season.

"Sons o' Men," by G. B. Lancaster (Doubleday, Page), is a volume of very surprising stories. Mr. Lancaster is not a new Kipling, for in that case he would have to be different; but of all who have copied that master's manner, he has certainly succeeded best. Kipling's sublime cocksurenness, his equally sublime assumption that he has probed the human heart, the splendid insolence of his syntax,—all these are here in a measure, and the highest compliment that one can pay Mr. Lancaster is to say that, withal, he is not absurd. The stories deal with the men who herd and shear the sheep in South New Zealand and save them from storm and snow at the cost of hardships scarce endurable. At times, too, the native plays a part, as in the striking "Story of Wi," who discovered with scorn the hollowness of the white man's professions and went back to his own folk. It is to be hoped that Mr. Lancaster will find a manner of his own in which to tell his stories in future, which is saying a good deal, even though it is on the side of style, rich or musical or subtle, that our literature seems weakest. Through such books hope grows less forlorn.



WARREN CHENEY.



ERNEST WILLIAM HORNUNG.

Another volume of Australian stories is "Stingaree," by E. W. Hornung (Scribners). It is not by any means as fresh or as striking as "Sons o' Men." The criminal who is something of a gentleman is not at all new to fiction, and it does not greatly matter whether he carry on his graceful operations in London or in Melbourne. Still, "Stingaree" is undoubtedly a very engaging scamp, who robs with zest and puts an artistic

finish to hold-ups. But his exploits hold little that is memorable.

"Pardners," by Rex E. Beach (McClure, Phillips), and "The Probationer," by Herman Whitaker (Harpers), are two volumes of short stories dealing with the life of the "frozen North" of British Columbia and Alaska. The stories in both volumes are excellent, but singularly lacking in literary individuality. It would be quite possible to shuffle them at will without causing the most careful reader even a slight shock. Especially thoughtful and well wrought are "The Test" in "Pardners" and the title-story of "The Probationers." But the more one reads books such as these,—books that deal with life primitive and elemental,—the more one comes to see how Stevenson and Kipling have, apparently, and for a long time to come, set not only the note of style for such work, but also its intellectual attitude.

A volume of thoroughly good and amusing stories of many seas is "Down to the Sea," by Morgan Robertson (Harpers). Mr. Robertson's rarest gift is undoubtedly his humor, which is especially visible in "Old Man Finnegan,"—a real creation, not to be ranked, as some have foolishly asserted, with such indubitable immortals as Mulvaney, but very real, very human, and capital fun.

HISTORY AND ROMANCE.

To create the atmosphere of a past age without any of the trappings of the historical novel, without war or rumors of war, kings, courts, or captains; to tell of past life upon a storm-swept country-side of marsh and island, and yet to convince the reader inevitably that these things happened in the seventeenth century,—this is assuredly no small achievement in literary art. Miss Una L. Silberrad is to be congratulated upon her volume of stories, "The Wedding of the Lady of Lovell" (Doubleday, Page). Something of the dream-spirit of Norse saga and folklore dwells in the stories, so full are they of atmosphere, of poetry, of true romance. Full of genuine humanity, too, in the sturdy figure of Tobiah, the Dissenter; in the figure of Priscilla, who stole from her stern guardian's house on a May morning and found love; of Mr. Smallpage's John, the bookseller's apprentice, dreaming of a star-like lady.

who was not for him; of the beast-like, superstitious men of the marshes who, in the time of the great sickness, swore that the Lady Placida was Chuma, the Spirit of the Plague. If Mr. Maurice Hewlett cared less for color and passion, more for the subtler poetry of mournful Northern landscapes, he might well have written "The Wedding of the Lady of Lovell."

The time has probably come when it is no longer necessary to notice in detail the more or less conventional historical novel, even when it is as competent and as highly recommended as the late George Gissing's "Veranilda" (E. P. Dutton). Love and intrigue and clash of armor still entertain a numerous public. One need not recommend these elements; to deprecate them is hardly worth while. "The Golden Hope," by R. H. Fuller (Macmillan), is a romance of the time of Alexander the Great, not without signs of ability and interest. "Psyche," by Walter S. Cramp (Little, Brown), is a romance of the reign of Tiberius. It recalls "Quo Vadis," and turns pale in comparison. Judith and Holofernes form the subject of "Judith Triumphant," by Thompson Buchanan (Harpers). "In the Name of Liberty," by Owen Johnson (Century), is a thousand-and-first "Story of the Terror," well and swiftly told; and probably of breathless interest to the unsophisticated mind. "A Prince of Lovers," by Sir William Magnay (Little, Brown), is a Zenda story put back a hundred years. Undiscovered German principalities are said to bring very high prices now,—there are so few left.

Among books of pure romance, the season's best are, probably, "The Dryad," by Justin Huntly McCarthy (Harpers). In a forest near the medieval duchy of Athens, a Dryad meets and loves a charming French prince, soldier, and lover of spring and poetry. Thus, a faint shimmer from the poetry of antique Greece blends with the glitter and romance of chivalry. The story is told with Mr. McCarthy's usual verve and lightness.

"Hurricane Island" (Doubleday, Page) has been truly said to combine elements belonging to "The Prisoner of Zenda" and to "Treasure Island." The result is a capital romance of love and piracy and hairbreadth escapes very convincingly and

delightfully related. Mr. Marriott-Watson's pirates are singularly good, although Holgate, admirable villain that he is, would have vanished into thin air at one glance of Long John Silver's eyes.

"The Monk's Treasure," by George Horton (Bobbs-Merrill), is a good story of a young American who finds on an island of the "shining Cyclades,"—where he has gone for crude cream of tartar for his uncle's baking-powder factory,—an exquisite Greek servant girl, who turns out to be a duchess, who turns out to be the owner of the monk's treasure. Duchess, treasure, and young American become united and live happily ever after.

TERROR AND MYSTERY.

With the stories contained in "The Return of Sherlock Holmes" (Scribners), Sir Arthur Conan Doyle has probably closed forever the chronicles of his illustrious (or is it notorious?) detective. The new stories are not so fresh as the old, not so ingenious, nor do they offer that full measure of breathless suspense without which the fiction of crime is only weariness and vexation. Given the now stereotyped method of Holmes, it hardly needed him in person to solve the mystery of the "Three Students," or of the "Priory School," or even of the "Golden Pince-nez," and the helpless dullness of that open-mouthed man of straw, Dr. Watson, becomes more inexcusable and absurd than ever. For all that, we ought to be thankful enough for these latest stories, occasioned by the return of Holmes, and, retrospectively, for the whole series of adventures in which he figures. These form a series of detective stories preëminent in that somewhat shady kind for intelligence, freedom from vulgarity, and an atmosphere of genuine mystery and terror.

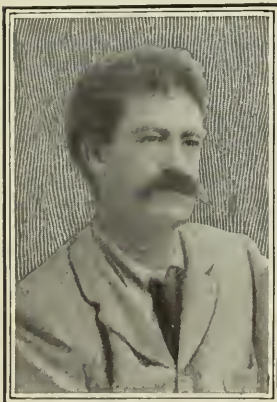
To compare Sherlock Holmes to the hero of "The



UNA SILBERRAD.



CONAN DOYLE.



H. B. MARRIOTT WATSON.

Millionaire Baby," by Anna Katharine Green (Bobbs-Merrill), is to realize how great a man he really was. Not that "The Millionaire Baby" is without merit. The mystery is complex and original, but the detective who unravels it is such an ass that it is hardly possible to believe in his success.

A very much more notable book is "Art Thou the Man?" by Guy Berton (Bobbs-Merrill). It is the story of a brilliant young lawyer who combines with an intensely intellectual temperament certain fearful pathological desires which lead him to commit nameless crimes. He knows himself, as a human intelligence, to be innocent. The desires are not his to control; they did not come at his bidding; and yet he knows that sooner or later his fate must overtake him. Given an acquaintance with Krafft-Ebing and similar works, the problem was not hard to find. But its working out amid the wild, swift life of Denver lacks neither freshness nor power.

When Mr. H. G. Wells is frankly and simply a teller of tales he is entirely delightful. In his latest volume of stories he has but rarely any prophetic or scientific axe to grind. His stories deal with the marvelous under many aspects, but always in the light of his half-joyous, half-whimsical humor. "Twelve Stories and a Dream" (Scribners) will not lower Mr. Wells' reputation as an imaginative writer, which his previous volume probably did.

"A Mortgage on the Brain," by Vincent Harper (Doubleday, Page), is a singularly interesting study of the problem of dual personality. With obvious seriousness, Mr. Harper holds that the "Ego," as conceived by philosophy, is a fiction; that human personality is a much more fluid and unstable thing than it is usually thought to be. Around this thesis Mr. Harper weaves a strange and fascinating web of incidents, somewhat bewildering in its shifting, glimmering improbability, but none the less suggestive and taking.

In "The Tyranny of the Dark" (Harpers), Mr. Hamlin Garland has succumbed to the lure of the mystical and esoteric. No one seems able to escape it. Indeed, we are told that the events narrated in "The Tyranny of the Dark" are drawn from facts within Mr. Garland's personal experience and observation. That the story of Viola Lambert—medium against her will—lacks genuine literary attractiveness or convincingness on its supernatural side, it would be absurd to deny. Nevertheless, it is a pity that Mr. Garland should have lent the authority of his style and name to things that at best are unproved and hence negligible, and at worst the humbug of swindlers or the raving of people whose only

place is that of clinical material to a specialist in diseased psychology.

IN DARKEST RUSSIA.

"The White Terror and the Red," by Abraham Cahan (A. S. Barnes), is a book that impresses one with its power, competence, and fairness. Mr. Cahan has undertaken to give an account of a certain most interesting phase of the revolutionary movement in Russia,—the spread of the "underground" propaganda during the seventies,—the red terror of revolution and the



MRS. ANNA KATHARINE GREEN.



ABRAHAM CAHAN.

white terror of the ruthless government. As a novel, the story of Prince Boulatoff does not rank as highly. It is as a profoundly interesting sociological document that the public may thank Mr. Cahan.

Mr. Ezra S. Brudno, on the other hand, writes with more intensity, a more poignant pity, and a less cool head. Consequently, "The Little Conscript" (Doubleday, Page) is a much more appealing piece of literature than "The White Terror and the Red," but not, we suspect, so trustworthy an account of actual conditions. There is enough of pity and terror, surely, in "The Little Conscript." Mr. Brudno has something of the pitiless power of the great Russian novelists. This appears far more in the character of the peasant, Alyosha, than in the hero, Pavel. Pavel merits all sympathy, but he is just a shade too perfect. But Mr. Brudno's work deserves generous recognition. It is to be remembered that both he and Mr. Cahan had first to acquire as a foreign tongue the language in which they now write.

DUTCH PICTURES.

Mr. Maarten Maartens has painted a series of realistic genre pictures in "My Poor Relations" (Appletons). He has very little mercy on his Dutch peasants. Their life,



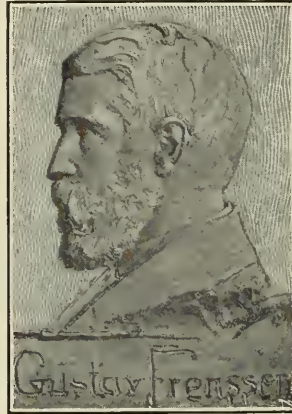
MAARTEN MAARTENS.

as he represents it, is without any glimpses of things fair and of good report. Greed and envy and lust are its dominant factors. Nor does Mr. Maartens care for half-lights, shadings, or suppression. The outlines in his pictures are hard, the colors definite and sharp. But it is this very quality, this stern truthfulness, that, combined with a no less stern suppression of self, gives the stories their high and peculiar quality. One may go so far as to compare them to De Maupassant's, though hardly to that master's best.

A STRONG NOVEL OF MODERN GERMANY.

A German novel the sale of which reaches 200,000 copies is something unheard of. But the unheard of has happened, and the novel is "Jörn Uhl," by Gustav Frenssen, Lutheran pastor in a Holstein village. (The very competent English translation is by F. S. Delmer. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. Archibald Constable, London.) It is very interesting to note that this novel, which has appealed so profoundly and immediately to the German people, is powerful rather than original, deliberately thoughtful and carefully wrought rather than striking; that, finally, it is the culmination, not the creation, of a genre. Up to a certain point, not even the central theme of the book is new. Was not

the fate of Paul in Sudermann's "Frau Sorge" very much the same as Jörn's,—a delicate soul born out of place amid this hard and brawling peasant folk? But Jörn, unlike Paul, works out for himself, through peace and war, sorrow and travail, a triumphant salvation. The strength of the book lies in its style (necessarily lost through translation), severely simple, yet every word and form pregnant with associations of the



GUSTAV FRENSEN.

(Frontispiece reduced.)

Germanic past; in its rich humanity; in its liberal yet by no means revolutionary point of view. Strangest of strange things! Upon the surface, this modern Germany seems given entirely to the worship of new gods whose prophet is Nietzsche. And then comes a simple Lutheran parson, writes in simple German words,—free of all modern tricks and turns,—the story of a "deep and strong" man, who at the end of years of weariness and bitter hardship says: "To have faith is everything,"—faith, that is, in ultimate good and righteousness and mercy,—and our parson takes the laud by storm, is ranked with Goethe, and the "Modernen" at Berlin shake their heads! In this fact lies the significance of "Jörn Uhl," for to call the book great, from a purely literary point of view, would be an obvious exaggeration.

A MODERN UTOPIA.

Very far removed from such fooling as "The Food of the Gods" is Mr. H. G. Wells' latest and, as he tells us, last adventure in prophecy—"A Modern Utopia" (Scribners). The book is an essay rather than a romance, or, as the author would have it, a cross between the two. Whatever it may be, it is an admirable piece of literature and a book of unlimited suggestiveness. It is all the foreshadowing, in part, of an immeasurably far ideal. This Mr. Wells confesses. Yet, to every serious thinker, certain of Mr. Wells' reforms and restrictive measures will seem inevitable—sooner or later. There can be little doubt that the overproduction of inferior human material must, at some not very distant day, receive a violent check. In past ages, war destroyed the unfit, or pestilence, or hunger; in the future, the unfit must not be born. Society must insist on limiting parenthood to the healthy and intelligent. Mr. Wells' exquisitely attractive dream of the "Samurai" who shall be the real rulers of the world is not really new,—many have dreamed of a rule by the truly excellent alone.—but he, for the first time, seems to bring that dream nearer the borders of reality. As literature and as philosophy, "A Modern Utopia" is Mr. Wells' masterpiece.



OTHER NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

PROFESSOR EDWARD CHANNING, of Harvard University, is the author of a new "History of the United States" (Macmillan), from the discovery of America to the close of the nineteenth century. The first volume, which has just appeared, covers the period



PROFESSOR EDWARD CHANNING.

ending in the year 1660. In his treatment of our colonial history, Professor Channing considers the colonies as parts of the English Empire, and as having simply pursued a course of institutional evolution unlike that of the branch of the English race which remained behind in the old home land across the Atlantic. Believing that the most important single fact in our development has been the victory

of the forces of union over those of particularism, Professor Channing traces the evolution of the nation as a story of "living forces" always struggling onward and upward toward that which is better and higher in human conception. Professor Channing's treatment of the colonies and their social institutions is interesting throughout, but is especially strong in those chapters which deal with New England.

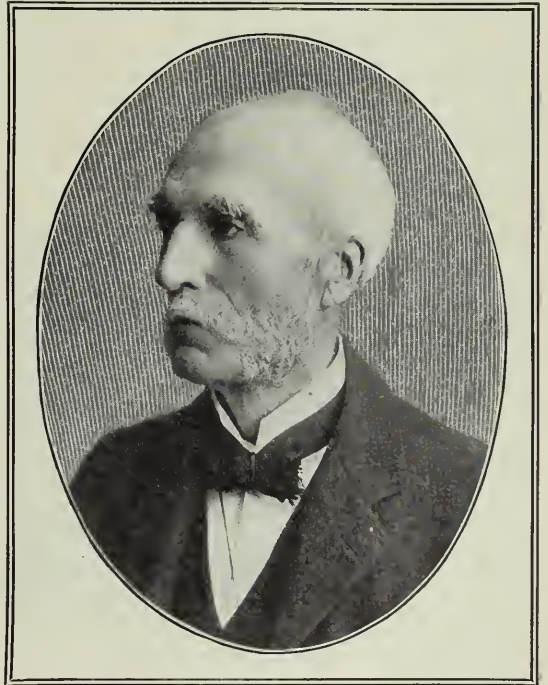
A model "Short History of Venice" has been written by Mr. William Roscoe Thayer (Macmillan), who for many years has been a special student of Italian subjects, and to whom the story of the Venetian Republic has especially appealed as an object-lesson in government. The fact that this little state of three hundred thousand inhabitants was able to establish a colonial empire relatively larger than



WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER.

the British Empire, and that it carried on a commerce relatively more extensive than the British commerce has ever been, suggests to Mr. Thayer other parallels between Venice and England which add not a little to the interest and effectiveness of his treatment.

"The Aftermath of Slavery" (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) is a study of the condition and environment of the American negro, by Dr. William A. Sinclair, himself a member of the negro race who was born in slavery. This book gives the educated negro's own view regarding the fitness of his race for full citizenship. It contains a complete record of the civil history of the American negro, showing what the race has done for the country in peace and in war, and what the negro has accomplished for his own uplifting. An introduction is contributed by Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson.



GOLDWIN SMITH.

Mr. Goldwin Smith's "Memories of Gladstone," originally published by Unwin of London, has been imported by the A. Wessels Company. In the opinion of the venerable Canadian writer, Gladstone was "a wonderful being, physically and mentally,—the mental part being well sustained by the physical." Gladstone was in the best sense a man of the people, and "as an embodiment of some great qualities, especially of loyalty to righteousness, he has left no equal behind him."

The ancestors of William H. Prescott had lived for one hundred and fifty years on American soil before the historian was born. They had fought, moreover, to free the colonies from the British yoke. Yet the author of "The Conquest of Mexico," almost half a century after his death, is classed among "English Men of Letters." There is nothing in Prof. Harry Thurston Peck's biographical sketch of Prescott (Macmillan) to confirm this classification; for it appears from this sketch that Prescott was a very good American indeed. By common consent he stands in the first rank of American historians, and the fact that he achieved this eminence in spite of a great physical affliction has caused his name to be doubly honored by two generations of Americans. There are few pages in American biography more inspiring than the record of the blind historian's painfully laborious composition of history, with the assistance of the "noctograph."

The latest issue of the "Literary Lives" which Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll is editing for the Scribners is the volume on Ernest Renan, by Dr. William Barry, who, it will be remembered, also prepared the volume on Cardinal Newman. The career of the famous French scholar, author, and philosopher is considered under these heads: The Breton Peasant, The Eclipse of Faith, The Scholar in Paris, Galilee and Afterward, In St. Paul's Footsteps, Paris and Jerusalem, Ecclesiastes or the Preacher, and Last Days, Death and Epitaph. While admitting the massive intellect of Renan and his astonishing vitality, Dr. Barry declares that it was a mind which, "looking out into the universe, saw nothing to worship but its own powers, and which ended in absolute negation."

Sir Archibald Geikie, the geologist, has not commonly been classified among the story-tellers, but his volume

of "Scottish Reminiscences" (Macmillan) shows us that even the scientist whose business is chiefly with the rocks and their stratification may still have a human side. There is abundance of information in these recollections,—information about live people and their interests. Whatever may be our doubts as to the existence of that



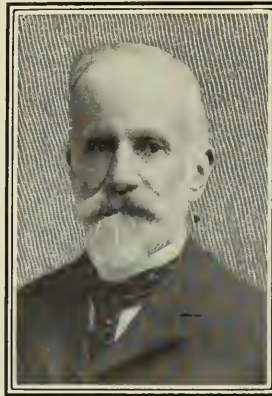
SIR ARCHIBALD GEIKIE.

evasive entity that we call English humor, the reader of this book will soon be convinced that the quality of the Scottish article is quite beyond question.

THE PANAMA CANAL.

Gen. Henry L. Abbot, U.S.A. (retired), has written a timely volume entitled "Problems of the Panama Canal" (Macmillan). In 1894, General Abbot was appointed a member of the Comité Technique, which was charged with collecting the data upon which to begin the official study of the canal, with the view to induce

capitalists to undertake the completion of the project. Four years later, General Abbot visited Panama and made a personal study of the canal and the Isthmus, and remained a member of the Comité Technique until



GEN. HENRY L. ABBOT.

the new Panama Canal Company sold its property to the United States, in 1902. In preparing the present work, General Abbot has endeavored to cover every essential element bearing upon the construction of the best possible canal. Having devoted so many years to a technical study of the problem, with unusual facilities for obtaining information, General Abbot is in a position to write an exceptionally helpful treatise on this subject.

The four problems with which he deals in this book are the climate, the Chagres River and the control of its floods, the disposal of the rainfall, and the question of the level of the canal. The general believes that if proper sanitary precautions were taken the yellow fever may be minimized and the Isthmus greatly improved as a place of residence. His solution of the problem of the control of the Chagres River is the creation of two lakes,—one at Alhajuela and another at Bohío,—to hold back, between them, about two hundred and fifty thousand cubic meters of flood-water. The rainfall will be cared for by these artificial lakes, and by others. It is General Abbot's opinion that a canal wholly without locks is impracticable, since the tidal oscillation on the Pacific (about twenty feet) can only be controlled by a lake near Miraflores.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS.

Two little volumes on subjects of great social importance come to us from McClure, Phillips. These are Mr. G. Lowes Dickinson's "Religion: A Criticism and a Forecast," and Prof. Felix Adler's "Marriage and Divorce." Mr. Dickinson's little work was originally a series of articles in the *Independent Review*, of London. These articles were frank and definite discussions of the relation of religion to knowledge. Mr. Dickinson has a clear and suggestive style, and his general position may be indicated by a sentence in his introduction. Assuming a lack of absolute knowledge, and asking whether there is a legitimate attitude toward religion other than that of agnosticism, Mr. Dickinson says: "I have wished to indicate an attitude of what I may call active expectancy,—the attitude of a man who, while candidly recognizing that he does not know and faithfully pursuing or awaiting knowledge and ready to accept it when it comes, yet centers, meantime, his emotional, and, therefore, his practical, life about a possibility which he selects because of its value, its desirability." Professor Adler delivered two lectures before the Society for Ethical Culture of New York, and it is these two lectures which form this little book. Professor Adler does not approve of divorce for any

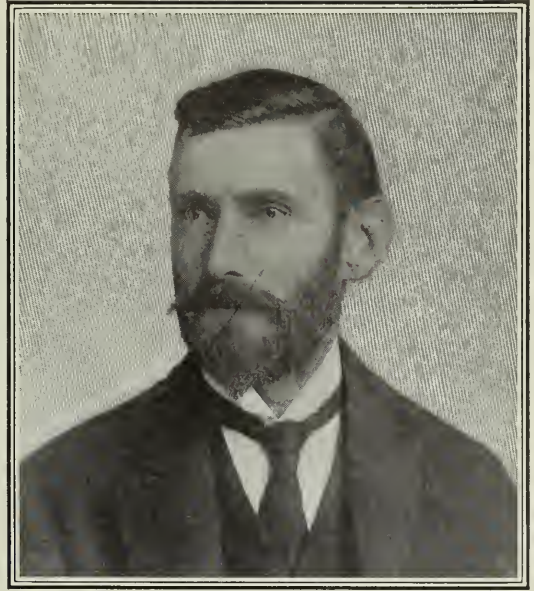
cause whatsoever; he believes separation should be permitted.

A unique treatment of an important subject is Prof. Frederick M. Davenport's study of "Primitive Traits in Religious Revivals" (Macmillan). This is a purely sociological interpretation of revivals, having no evangelistic bias or motive. In his development of this theme the author has introduced accounts of various revivals of this country and Great Britain, such as the Scotch-Irish revival in Kentucky, in 1800, the Scotch-Irish revival in Ulster, in 1859, and the New England awakening originating with Jonathan Edwards. There is also a good chapter on what the author terms the transition period in the United States. — Nettleton, Finney, and Moody. So far from accepting the view that the religious instinct has declined in this country, Professor Davenport maintains that it is only within the last quarter of a century that it has come to its flower in American colleges.

What could be more timely, in view of the discussion that has filled so much newspaper and magazine space for several months past, than a treatise on the modern system of life insurance? Mr. William Alexander has adapted his book on "The Life Insurance Company" (Appletons) to the needs of the average business or professional man, who has heretofore had to rely chiefly on the information dealt out to him by the rival agents, who were primarily interested in securing business for their respective organizations. It is a simple, straightforward exposition of the principles on which all sound insurance is conducted, including a fair and impartial statement of those facts in the history and present management of the great American companies which every prospective policy-holder should know.

The editor of the *New York Observer*, Dr. John Bancroft Devins, recently made a tour of the Philippines to good purpose. His book, "An Observer in the Philippines" (American Tract Society), summarizes what he learned about social conditions in the islands, giving many vivid pen pictures of life among the natives and the American residents. The views of this Protestant clergyman concerning the influence of the friars naturally conflict, to a certain extent, with the opinions formed by American Catholics. Yet these views are temperately expressed, and Catholics generally will not be disposed to quarrel with Dr. Devins' statement of the facts as he sees them. While not committing himself to an unreserved acceptance of everything contained in the book, Secretary Taft gives the work, as a whole, his cordial approval, and expresses the hope that it may have a wide circulation.

A popular, low-priced edition of Sir Horace Plunkett's now famous book, "Ireland in the New Century," has been issued by John Murray (London) and imported



SIR HORACE PLUNKETT.

by the Duttons. Mr. Plunkett's aim in this volume has been "to bring into clearer light the essential unity of the various progressive movements in Ireland, and to do something toward promoting a greater definiteness of aim and method and a better understanding of each other's work among those who are in various ways striving for the upbuilding of a worthy national life in Ireland." The reasons for Ireland's failure to rise to her opportunities, and to give practical evidence of the intellectual qualities with which the race is admittedly gifted, are, Mr. Plunkett declares from a long study of Irish life, "due to certain defects of character—not ethically grave, but economically paralyzing." These defects are, he declares, a lack of moral courage, initiative, independence, and self-reliance. He believes that the new movements in Ireland, which have a common aim and should be coördinate, "exert a stimulating influence on Irish moral fiber." The original edition of this work excited a great deal of adverse comment,—chiefly, Mr. Plunkett informs us in the new edition, from those who had not read it. In the new edition, he emphasizes again his central idea—"the application to Ireland of the principle that all true national progress must rest upon a moral foundation." The volume begins with a chapter on "The English Misunderstanding," and traces the whole question of politics, religion, economics, and education to the final chapter, which is on "Government with the Consent of the Governed."

Mr. A. C. Pigou, lecturer in economics at Cambridge University, England, has written a treatise entitled "Principles and Methods of Industrial Peace" (Macmillan). In this work the author considers the question of not what have arbitration and conciliation done, but rather what ought they to do, and how ought they to do it. Many references made by the writer show that he has familiarized himself with recent writings of American students, and especially with the report of the United States Industrial Commission.



DR. JOHN BANCROFT DEVINS.

A STUDY OF WILD BIRDS.

Those who read the article by Mr. Herbert K. Job in the April REVIEW OF REVIEWS on "Bird-Hunting with the Camera" will be pleased to learn that a volume of Mr. Job's recent writings on this subject, illustrated from his own photographs, has been published under the title of "Wild Wings" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). An introductory letter by President Roosevelt, which was published, by permission, in connection with the REVIEW OF REVIEWS article, speaks in the highest terms of Mr. Job's work, and commends the substitution of the camera for the gun. Such books as this are likely to do a great deal to promote an increased interest in this form of sport, to say nothing of the intrinsic value of the pictures themselves and the accompanying text. Many of Mr. Job's photographs of wild birds are here reproduced for the first time. In some instances the birds are not known to have been photographed before in wild life. Mr. Job's adventures as a camera hunter, from the Magdalen Islands, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the Florida Keys and the Dry Tortugas, are quite as entertaining as most hunters' stories.

POETRY AND MUSIC.

A little collection of poems with much promise is the "Gedichte," by Georg Sylvester Viereck, a young German-American boy who is now in a New York college, but who has done some real poetic work. There is an introduction, or, rather, an appreciation, to the collection by Mr. Ludwig Lewi- sohn. As Mr. Lewi- sohn points out, Viereck has originality, power, and imagination.

Two new issues of the "Musician's Library" (Ditson) are "Selections from the Musical Dramas of Richard Wagner" and "Twenty-four Negro Melodies." The selections from Wagner have been arranged by Otto Singer, and cover every opera from "Rienzi" to "Parsifal," making a total of twenty-five numbers. There is an introduction by Richard Aldrich, and the front-piece is a portrait of the composer reproduced from the last photograph ever taken of him. The negro melodies

are transcribed for the piano by S. Coleridge-Taylor. There are twenty-four transcriptions of folk-melodies, both African and American, used as themes for compositions in the style of fantasias. Mr. Coleridge-Taylor has preserved the distinctive traits of these melodies, but has given them form and structure. There is a brief biographical introduction by Booker T. Washington.

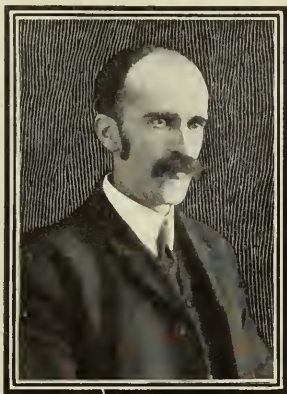
BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

The current issue of that most useful volume, "The Statesman's Year-Book," is the forty-second annual publication (Macmillan). Dr. J. Scott Keltie, the editor, has improved this annual from year to year, and the issue for 1905 is the best yet. Some of the improvements especially valuable are those in the way of subdivision and detailed information. For example, the Commonwealth of Australia is now treated collectively. There is also a recasting and revision of Anglo-French relations, with particular reference to the convention of 1904 as affecting the British colonies, Siam, Egypt, and Morocco. Increased attention is given to Germany, especially with regard to education, and scope for this is gained by cutting the space formerly given to the small German states. The matter on China has been thoroughly revised, and the dependencies of that empire (especially Tibet) are treated separately. Turkey has also been largely rewritten, and the islands of Formosa and the Philippines receive much fuller treatment. The naval situation of the powers at war in the far East is thoroughly canvassed, and helpful statistics and tables are presented. There are maps and diagrams showing British military and naval distribution, proposed railways in the near East, the new frontiers in South America, and the cotton, wheat, and live-stock areas of the world. The whole work has been subjected to thorough revision and correction.

A brief but comprehensive and useful "Pocket Guide to Europe" has been edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and Thomas L. Stedman (William R. Jenkins). It has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date, and contains an entirely new railroad map of Europe. One of the best features of it is that it is really of a size to fit the pocket.

"Collier's Self-Indexing Annual" for 1905 (New York: P. F. Collier & Son) is an illustrated record of contemporary history. Special departments of the work are: political history; labor, industry, and commerce; science and invention; the fine arts, drama, and music; sports and pastimes; and education, religion, and sociology. Many brief biographical sketches are included, and a special section is devoted to the necrology of the past year. There is a complete diary of the Russo-Japanese war down to the beginning of 1905.

One of the most useful books of reference which come to us from the other side of the Atlantic is "The Municipal Year-Book" of the United Kingdom, edited by Mr. Robert Donald (London: Edward Lloyd, Ltd.). In addition to the chapters on London municipal government, municipal government in England and Wales, municipal government in Scotland, and local government in Ireland, there are special sections of the book devoted to water-supply, gas-supply, tramways, electricity-supply, housing of the working classes, markets, telephones, baths and wash-houses, education, libraries, cemeteries, sewage-disposal, local taxation returns, and municipal trading. Each of these sections contains material of special interest and value to American students of municipal problems.



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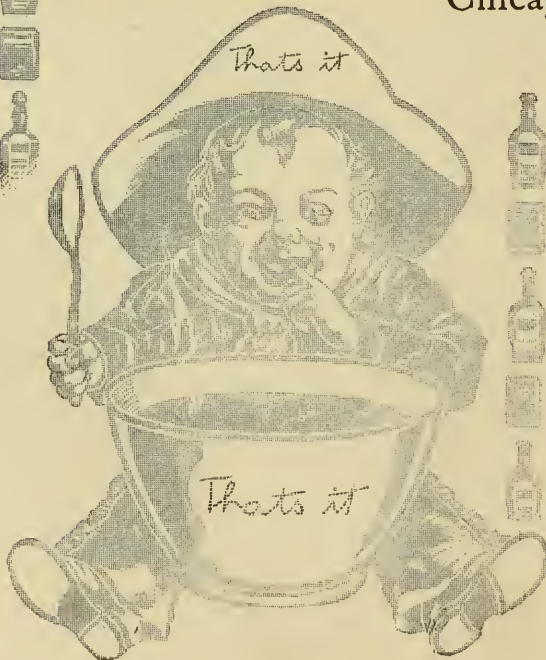
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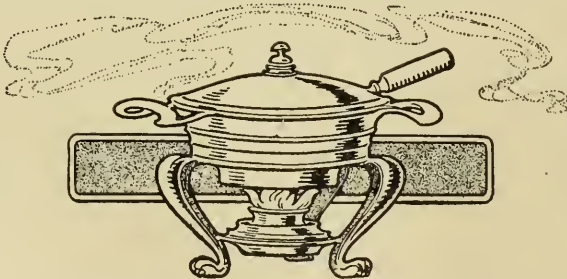
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